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DATA FUSION OF SECURITY LOGS TO MEASURE
CRITICAL SECURITY CONTROLS TO INCREASE SITUATION AWARENESS

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ABSTRACT

In Jan. 2018, a NIST draft to the Cybersecurity Framework called for the development of cybersecurity metrics, saying such work would be a “major advancement and contribution to the cybersecurity community (National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2017b).”

Unfortunately, organizations and researchers continue to make little progress at measuring security. Along with this, research around measuring security fails to present detailed guides on how to implement security metrics collection and reporting in an organization.

This research seeks to explore how measuring the CIS (formally SANS) Critical Security Controls, through data fusion of security logs, has the potential to increase situation awareness to strategic decision makers, and systems administrators. Metrics are built for each of the sub controls for Critical Security Control 8: Malware Defenses.

Along with the development of these metrics, a proof of concept is implemented in a computer network designed to mimic a small business that is using Symantec Endpoint Protection and Splunk. A Splunk dashboard is created to monitor, in real time, the status of Critical Security Control 8.1 and 8.2. A discussion on the actionable information and value provided by these dashboards occurs.

This work contributes to the industry’s need for cybersecurity metrics through the development of six metrics. Along with this, a detailed implementation guide is provided for security practitioners looking to implement metrics for Critical Security Controls 8.1 and 8.2 in an organization.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures	v
List of Tables	vi
List of Equations	vi
Acknowledgements	vii
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
A Need to Measure Security	1
Why Measuring Security is Hard	2
A Lack of Consensus	2
The Need for a Standard Measurement Taxonomy	3
Lack of Implementation Guides	3
Past Qualitative Measurement Techniques	4
Visibility into Systems	5
Changing Tactic, Techniques, and Procedures of Attackers	6
Research Questions	7
The Structure of this Work	7
Chapter 2 Literature Review	9
Security Metrics	9
Defining Security Metrics	9
Types of Metrics	10
What Makes a Metric Good	11
CIS Critical Security Controls for Effective Cyber Defense	14
Core Tenets of CSCs	16
Benefits of Metrics	17
Other Examples of Cyber Metrics	18
Situational Awareness	19
Level 1: Perception	20
Level 2: Comprehension	20
Level 3: Projection	20
Cyber Situational Awareness	21
JDL Data Fusion Process Model	22
Sensors	23
Level 0/1: Object Refinement	24
Level 2: Situation Awareness	25
Level 3: Threat Refinement	26
Level 4: Process Refinement	28
Level 5: User Refinement	29
The Gap	29
Conclusion	30

Chapter 3 Metric Design and Development	31
Critical Security Control 8 Overview	31
Critical Security Control 8.1 Metric	32
CSC 8.1 Metric Numerator.....	33
CSC 8.1 Metric Denominator	33
Alternative Options for Denominator	34
Critical Security Control 8.2 Metric	35
CSC 8.2 Metric Numerator.....	35
CSC 8.2 Metric Denominator	36
Critical Security Control 8.3 Metric	36
Critical Security Control 8.4 Metric	38
Critical Security Control 8.5 Metric	39
Critical Security Control 8.6 Metric	40
Chapter 4 Metric Implementation.....	41
Implementing Critical Security Control 8.1	45
Numerator Measurement of Anti-Virus/Anti-Malware Scan Logs.....	45
Denominator Measurement of ARP Cache	47
CSC 8.1 Metric Result	48
Splunk Dashboard	49
Fused Data Table	50
Dashboard Value to Stakeholder	51
Implementing Critical Security Control 8.2.....	52
Numerator Measurement of Anti-Virus/Anti-Malware Update Logs	52
Denominator Measurement of ARP Cache	54
CSC 8.2 Metric Result	54
Splunk Dashboard	54
Fused Data Table	55
Dashboard Value to Stakeholder	57
Metric Use Case Examples	57
Authorized & Unauthorized Machines.....	57
Network Outage.....	58
Chapter 5 Discussion and Conclusion.....	59
Discussion.....	59
Why Data Fusion is Important.....	60
Potential to Increase Situation Awareness.....	61
A Guide to Help Implement Measurement.....	62
Contributions.....	62
Limitations	63
Future Work	64
Conclusion.....	65
References	67

Appendix: Source Code for Splunk Dashboards	75
Critical Security Control 8.1 Dashboard Source Code	75
Critical Security Control 8.2 Dashboard Source Code	78

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: A Model for Situation Awareness from (Endsley, 1995)	19
Figure 2: The JDL Data Fusion Process Model for Cybersecurity (Giacobe, 2010)	23
Figure 3: Level 2 - Situation Awareness Model (Giacobe, 2010)	26
Figure 4: Level 3 - Fusion for Projection (Giacobe, 2010)	28
Figure 5: Symantec Endpoint Protection Features (Symantec, 2017).....	43
Figure 6: A Sample Symantec Endpoint Protection Client Log Entry.....	45
Figure 7: Splunk Query to Produce Table 9	46
Figure 8: Splunk Query to Determine Numerator Total.....	47
Figure 9: Retrieving the ARP Cache.....	47
Figure 10: Splunk Query to Determine Denominator Total	48
Figure 11: Splunk Query to Determine Top Level Measurement.....	49
Figure 12: CSC 8.1 Splunk Dashboard	50
Figure 13: CSC 8.1 Data Correlation Query	51
Figure 14: A Sample Symantec Endpoint Protection Client Update Log Entry.....	52
Figure 15: Splunk Query to Produce.....	53
Figure 16: Splunk Query to Determine Numerator Total.....	53
Figure 17: Splunk Query to Determine Top Level Measurement.....	54
Figure 18: CSC 8.2 Splunk Dashboard	55
Figure 19: CSC 8.2 Data Correlation Query	56
Figure 20: Noncompliant Network Assets Query.....	58
Figure 21: Splunk Dashboard during a Network Outage	58
Figure 22: All Twenty of the Critical Security Controls.....	64

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Critical Security Controls' Partners and Developers ("CIS Critical Security Controls: A Brief History," n.d.).....	15
Table 2: 5 Core Tenets of CSC's ("CIS Critical Security Controls: Guidelines," n.d.).....	16
Table 3: Critical Security Control 8 (Center for Internet Security, 2015).....	32
Table 4: CSC 8.3 Measurements	38
Table 5: DataExecutionPrevention_SupportPolicy Response Codes ("How to determine that hardware DEP is available and configured on your computer," n.d.).....	38
Table 6: ABC.local Workstations	42
Table 7: ABC.local Servers	43
Table 8: Field Extractions for Symantec Endpoint Protection Client Scan Logs	46
Table 9: Numerator Table for CSC 8.1	46
Table 10: ARP Cache from Local Network	48
Table 11: Field Extractions for ARP Cache	48
Table 12: CSC 8.1 Fused Data Table.....	51
Table 13: Field Extractions for Symantec Endpoint Protection Client Update Logs.....	52
Table 14: Numerator Table for CSC 8.2	53
Table 15: CSC 8.2 Fused Data Table.....	56
Table 16: Noncompliant Network Assets.....	58

LIST OF EQUATIONS

Equation 1: Measuring CSC 8.1	34
Equation 2: Measuring CSC 8.2	35
Equation 3: Measuring CSC 8.4	39
Equation 4: Measuring CSC 8.5	40
Equation 5: Measuring CSC 8.	40
Equation 6: Metric Result from Implementation of CSC 8.1	49
Equation 7: Metric Result from Implementation of CSC 8.2	54

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Chapter 1

Introduction

A Need to Measure Security

In April 2017, the Chamber of Commerce praised the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) for its cybersecurity measurement (Beauchesne, 2017). The first draft of version 1.1 of the NIST Cybersecurity Framework included a new section titled “Measuring and Demonstrating Cybersecurity.” This new section expressed “this is an under-developed topic, one in which there is not even a standard taxonomy for terms such as ‘measurement’ and ‘metrics.’” The development of reliable ways to measure risk and effectiveness would be a major advancement and contribution to the cybersecurity community (National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2017b).”

A second letter to NIST from the Chamber of Commerce in January 2018 reads “The Chamber agrees with NIST that utilizing measurement data can improve the security of multiple business networks and information systems while providing consistent, reasonably complete, and flexible data to a range of stakeholders (Beauchesne, 2018).”

Draft 2 of the Cybersecurity Framework Version 1.1 moved key measurement content into the NIST Roadmap for Improving Critical Infrastructure Cybersecurity Version 1.1 after industry suggested “that cybersecurity risk measurement was so critical to successful risk management that a separate effort was needed to ensure measurement received adequate attention (National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2017a).”

If measuring cybersecurity is so important to an organization’s risk management, why has there been so little advancement to support this effort?

Why Measuring Security is Hard

There are a number of reason for the lack of advancement made in measuring security, including a lack of consensus in defining security or the utilization of a standard taxonomy. Along with this, the lack of implementation guides, qualitative assessments, and a lack of visibility into systems makes implementing measurement in an organization difficult. Finally, the changing nature of attacker's tactics, techniques, and procedures (TTPs) play a role in the challenge to measure cybersecurity.

A Lack of Consensus

One of the reasons that little advancement has occurred is because measuring security is a difficult task. A major challenge of measuring security is a lack of consensus around what security is (Krautsevich, Martinelli, & Yautsiukhin, 2010; C. Wang & Wulf, 1997) and how we should measure it. Many of the definitions of security are ambiguous and contradictory (J. A. Wang, Wang, Guo, & Xia, 2009). This presents a significant problem because without a shared lexicon, we lack a core foundation across the domain.

As Wang and Wulf (1997) express “we tend to know approximately, what we mean by ‘security’ and what we want it to do, but we seldom clearly state what security really means to us and how secure is “secure enough.” Most works on metrics present their own understanding of what security is and what it means to be more secure. Unfortunately, little of the work in this domain proves that these definitions of security or security metric(s) indicates a change in the current state of security (Krautsevich et al., 2010).

Often there is two strategies for metrics. General metrics which seek to assess the overall status of security, such as attack surface metrics, or metrics that seek to be narrowly focused on

measuring components of a security system, often a requirement of a larger security framework (J. A. Wang et al., 2009). J. A. Wang et al express that often these two strategies are “are either too broad without precise definitions, or too narrow to be generalized to cover a great variety of security situations (2009).”

The Need for a Standard Measurement Taxonomy

Furthermore, security researchers and practitioners lack an agreement on a security taxonomy or model to build metrics from. If a taxonomy or model is present in research, multiple taxonomies are often used simultaneously (Krautsevich et al., 2010). Researchers even disagree on the need for a taxonomy or model. Rathbun (2009) argues that researchers should avoid using a taxonomy as a framework for a metrics program because it could create subjective metrics. While this can be true, researchers argue that security requirements from a security taxonomy or model inform a metrics program (A. J. A. Wang, 2005; Mellado, Fernandez-Medina, & Piattini, 2010; Jansen, 2009; Savola, 2007; Luna, Ghani, Germanus, & Suri, 2011; National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2017b; National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2017c; Beauchesne, 2018).

Lack of Implementation Guides

Another challenge in measuring security is that much of its research fails to present detailed instructions on how to implement security metrics collection and reporting (Vaarandi & Pihelgas, 2014). While ample work has gone into the development of standards and taxonomies for security, little work has gone into coupling these documents with detailed recommendations on measuring the requirements put forth (Narang & Mehrotra, 2010).

Implementing cybersecurity metrics can be a difficult task to undertake for some organizations. Metrics are often most effective when incrementally improved as an organization grows its monitoring and collection capabilities. Beres, Mont, Griffin, & Shiu (2009) claim “often the metrics that end up being collected across organizations are low-level, operational metrics, which are amassed without contextualizing them to the overall security processes.” This strategy is very dangerous because metrics inform macro level analysis of an organization’s security policy and budget. If metrics are not properly contextualized, patterns drawn from these metrics to aid in predictive decisions, could negatively impact an organization because they are incorrect and uninformed (Black, Scarfone, & Souppaya, 2008).

A further difficulty related to this task is how to apply metrics to be indicative of “unmitigated risk and security control gaps (Beres et al., 2009)” in order to offer strategic decision makers insight into areas in need of mitigation. The best metrics “provide indications of trends and longer-term phenomena and enable the long-term assessment of security processes (Beres et al., 2009),” for strategic decision makers (Beres et al., 2009).

Past Qualitative Measurement Techniques

Past efforts relied on qualitative metrics that lacked a foundation for replication. Jansen explains “qualitative measures that reflect reasoned estimates of security by an evaluator are the norm. That is, measures of information system security properties are often based on an evaluator’s expertise, intuition, and insight to induce an ordering, which is then quantified (2009).” For many years, a qualitative evaluation resulted in a designation of a product’s security level. This process was qualitative because of the difficulty of quantifying an evaluator’s experience, evidence and evaluation criterion (Narang & Mehrotra, 2010).

Another common strategy for evaluating security involves subjective measurements through a process known as the Delphi Technique. The Delphi Technique allows a group of individuals to anonymously submit opinions until a consensus is formed through a funneling system (A. J. A. Wang, 2005; Linstone & Turoff, 2002). This research defines a metric as a quantitative measurement (C. Wang & Wulf, 1997; A. J. A. Wang, 2005; J. A. Wang et al., 2009; Chew et al., 2008).

Visibility into Systems

To measure cybersecurity efficiently and effectively, one must have visibility into systems. Visibility into computer networks and systems has traditionally occurred through security logs. Security logs are the logging of actions that a system or component undertakes. Most aspects of modern day computing and networking support logging functionality.

Security logs provide one of the best ways to collect and produce quantitative security measures. Security logs are ideal because they are a rich data source that can be coupled with automation. This rich data source provides the visibility to understand what is occurring on a system or network from the operating system to the network perimeter, and every protocol in between.

While security logs are ideal, security researchers have avoided them because of their large size and difficulty to parse (Vaarandi & Pihelgas, 2014). These challenges have kept researchers from pursuing security logs as a viable data source for metrics. While researchers have avoided security logs, industry practitioners have long relied on security logs as the foundation for visibility into their systems. The challenge that an organization often faces is visibility gaps. To effectively monitor every aspect of a computing infrastructure, numerous network sensors are needed. These sensors log information and store these logs in a centralized

logging environment. This infrastructure and management of it can be a significant overhead to an organization.

Because of this significant overhead, organizations make risk decisions around which sources to log, according to their risk appetite. Often times tradeoffs are made. Full packet capture at network gateways is an excellent logging source. The drawback to this approach is the vast amount of data to process and retain. PCAPs are also difficult to parse and maneuver. An alternative to full packet capture includes logging netflow data. Netflow is a less intensive capture that make it attractive to organizations. The drawback to this approach is valuable information is lost compared to full packet capture. The ability to determine what was communicated between network hosts can be critical in a security incident.

Along with choosing which systems to log, an organization has to determine how long to retain each data source. An organization that chooses to retain full packet capture for 30 days, will need terabytes, if not petabytes, to store the resulting PCAP files. This can be a significant overhead cost to an organization resulting in a need to reduce how long data is retained.

Changing Tactic, Techniques, and Procedures of Attackers

Another reason why measuring security is difficult is because of the shifting nature of attacker's tactics, techniques, and procedures (TTPs). An attacker is always seeking to exploit a systems vulnerabilities or visibility gaps. As an organization continually seeks to improve its network security, new security technologies and logging capabilities will likely be deployed. Because of this, attackers shift their TTP's to be successful. This cat and mouse game is not a new reality in security.

An example of this reality is the rise of DNS exfiltration over the last five years. Attackers became aware that many organizations do not monitor or filter their DNS traffic. This

visibility gap allowed attackers to develop techniques for the exfiltration of data over DNS.

Because of this, organizations have begun deploying a relatively new technology known as DNS firewalling.

Research Questions

A lack of consensus, the need for a standard taxonomy, a lack of implementation guides, past qualitative techniques, poor visibility into systems, and changing TTPs of attackers make measuring security a difficult task. Greater research and development is needed in these areas to move forward in NIST's push to drive organizations to measure security. This research hopes to play a role in that push.

This research will pursue two research questions. The first research question is: "How does data fusion of security logs help measure Critical Security Controls?" It is hypothesized that data fusion of security logs can provide an organization an automated, real time measurement of their compliance with Critical Security Controls. The second research question is "How do metrics contribute to stakeholder's situation awareness?" It is hypothesized that metrics will contribute to a CISO's situation awareness, as well as, a systems administrator.

The Structure of this Work

This thesis contains five chapters that lay out the problem through this research's contribution to solving the problem. This chapter has covered the need for measurement in cybersecurity and the difficulty associated with that proposition. Along with this, two research questions and two hypotheses are described.

Chapter two discusses the literature that has come before this research. This research is built off of the foundations of literature from three primary domains. These three domains include security metrics, situation awareness, and data fusion. These three domains and their literature are covered to provide context and others attempts at defining or solving this research's question.

Chapter three discusses the design and development of six metrics. These six metrics are sub controls to Critical Security Control 8: Malware Defenses. This CSC is briefly covered from a macro level including the role it plays in the larger group of 20 CSCs. Each sub control is described and how this research developed a metric to measure its recommendation. Most of the metrics developed are in the form of a percentage, derived from the division of a numerator measurement and a denominator measurement.

Chapter four discusses the implementation of two of the developed metrics. Metrics for CSC 8.1 and 8.2 are implemented to provide a proof of concept and context for feasibility. Accomplishing an implementation of metrics provides this research the ability to offer an implementation guide for organizations looking to implement CSC 8.1 and 8.2. This action pushes the metrics research domain to be practical and technical, a current shortfall.

Chapter five discusses why data fusion is important in measuring security and how metrics can contribute to a stakeholder's situation awareness. After this, this research's contributions, limitations and future work is described.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This review considers three domains: security metrics, situation awareness, particularly of the cyber subject area, and multisensor data fusion and the JDL Data Fusion Process Model. These three domains and their foundational literature are reviewed in isolation to evaluate their contributions to their respective fields.

Security Metrics

An organization cannot improve what it does not measure. This statement is true for policy, culture, processes, and projects. For an organization to measure success, it needs measurements on a continual basis with a clear conceptual definition of success (Narang & Mehrotra, 2010). This reality is no different in the security domain (Mellado et al., 2010; A. J. A. Wang, 2005). Security metrics are measurements of the performance of an organizational policy.

The topic of security metrics is often described using the similar terms of security measures, security performance indicators, and information assurance metrics. For this research, cybersecurity metrics is used, as well as, the broader term of security metrics.

Defining Security Metrics

As discussed last chapter, there are a number of challenges in defining security and security metrics. Beres et al. (2009) define security metrics as “meaningful measures that can be collected and reported to show whether security controls are working effectively or where risk is

emerging.” A 2003 report, published by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), defines security metrics as “tools designed to facilitate decision making and improve performance and accountability through collection, analysis, and reporting of relevant performance-related data (Brown & Robinson, 2003).” Wang defines software security metrics as “the quantitative measurements of trust indicating how well a system meets the security requirements (2005).” Chew et al. adds that security metrics “monitor the accomplishment of goals and objectives by quantifying the implementation, efficiency, and effectiveness of security controls (2008).”

While each definition differs, a common thread exists which considers a metric as a measurement collected to reveal insights into the state of a strategic goal for clarity in decision making and security requirements.

Types of Metrics

Keeney, outlines three different types of metrics including natural metrics, constructed metrics, and proxy metrics. A natural metric is a metric that is general in nature and has a common interpretation. These metrics are typically able to be physically measured or counted. An example of a natural metric is a reduction in cost (1992).

A proxy metric is similar, but does not directly measure the objective. A proxy metric can also be physically measured or counted, but is less informative because it is not the direct natural measurement. Keeney, uses the example of measuring the number of returns of a product in hopes of measuring the quality of a product (1992). These metrics are typically used when it is difficult to measure the natural metric (Keeney, 1992).

Constructed metrics are metrics that are created when it is impossible to measure an objective in a natural or proxy metric. Constructed metrics often involve a scale to quantify a

measurement. An example of a metric using a scale is measuring the fear in a local community around the development of a nuclear waste sight. Since it is impossible to measure fear of every individual and correctly measure the variance between individuals. Because of this challenge, a constructed scale or metric is created to bring some form of consistency across multiple measures (Keeney, 1992).

While Keeney offered these types of metrics, Chew et al. (2008), proposes three types of measurements: implementation metrics, effectiveness/efficiency metrics, and impact metrics. Implementation metrics measure implementation progress of a particular initiative or project. An example of such is the number of accounts that have been transitioned to multifactor authentication under a new security policy. Effectiveness metrics measure if an implemented control accomplishes what it set out to do. An example includes a metric providing evidence that a new email filter reduced spam by 50%. Efficiency metrics measure the amount of time it takes to accomplish a task or process. An example includes a metric providing evidence for the average number of days it takes for an organization to implement a vulnerability patch on all workstations. Impact metrics seek to capture the impact that information security has had on the larger business (Chew et al., 2008).

Jansen (2009) agrees with effectiveness measures but argues for the second component being correctness measures. Correctness measures are based on the assurance of the security mechanisms having been rightly implemented.

What Makes a Metric Good

Previous literature has outlined a number of characteristics of good metrics. Keeney & Gregory (2005), outline five desired properties of an attribute, or metric as defined here, suggesting that a metric be unambiguous, direct, operational, understandable, and comprehensive.

Unambiguous metrics possess a clear relationship to the consequences of an action and express a predefined purpose (Vaarandi & Pihelgas, 2014); they are not vague or imprecise. Direct metrics are clear and directly address the objective at hand. Operational metrics are “logistically and analytically achievable with available resources and capability (McKay, Linkov, Fischenich, Miller, & Valverde, 2012).” Understandable metrics can be grasped by anyone interested in the analysis (Keeney & Gregory, 2005). Comprehensive metrics cover a spectrum of possibilities of consequences.

McKay et al. add “relevant” as a criterion to Keeney and Gregory’s list. Relevant metrics measure “specified objectives and priorities of decision makers at appropriate spatial and temporal scales and resolution (McKay et al., 2012).”

A good metric is actionable (Marr, 2010). A metric is not simply a gathering of information without a purpose, but rather a measurement that aims to address a problem or key component of a system. Along with being actionable, a good metric should be aligned with organization’s strategic goals (Chew et al., 2008; Marr, 2010; Rathbun, 2009; Payne, 2006).

Vaarandi & Pihelgas (2014) describe a metric as being tailored to a specific audience. A senior level executive and a systems administrator would be interested in different types of metrics. In developing metrics practitioners should consider the intended audience in order to answer the right questions for the right audience (Rathbun, 2009). Within the CIS Critical Security Controls (Center for Internet Security, 2015), CIS classifies three types of metrics for their expected audience. Technical metrics are for security practitioners and management while operational metrics are designed for various levels of administration or executives.

For organizations that possess the requisite capabilities, a metrics dashboard should provide the ability to drill down in a metric (Vaarandi & Pihelgas, 2014; Black et al., 2008). Having the ability to drill down into the data that makes up a metric provides the ability to quickly find anomalous data; it also yields a metric that can be tailored to particular timeframes or

axis measures. A metric should not be cost intensive and should be able to be collected and maintained automatically through automation (Vaarandi & Pihelgas, 2014; J. A. Wang et al. 2009; Rathbun, 2009; Chew et al., 2008; Patriciu & Nicolaescu, 2006).

A good metric has a purpose and answers the question asked. If compliance is not the purpose, a metric should be tied to a particular business process where business impact is measured; an example is cost per incident (CPI) of a security incident. While this measurement is not a part of many compliance standards, it provides valuable insight into the business cost of a security incident. If measuring compliance is a requirement of a security metrics program, it needs to be tied to a larger taxonomy or model where compliance can be measured (A. J. A. Wang, 2005; Mellado et al., 2010; Jansen, 2009; Savola, 2007; Luna et al., 2011). These taxonomies or models need to be validated and verified before building a metrics program based on its requirements (A. J. A. Wang, 2005). A number of cybersecurity taxonomies/models exist today, most of which require measurement of requirements for compliance (Fidelis Cybersecurity, 2017).

In 2009, ISO/IEC 27001 required an organization hoping for certification to “measure the effectiveness of controls to verify that security requirements have been met” (International Organization for Standardization, 2013). This standard was criticized for its broad requirements that lacked guidance on how to accomplish the measurement it requires (“ISO 27004 - Information Security Metrics,” n.d.). In response, ISO 27004 was developed and it “provides guidelines intended to assist organizations in evaluating the information security performance and the effectiveness of an information security management system in order to fulfil the requirements of ISO/IEC 27001:2013” (International Organization for Standardization, 2016).

Along with ISO 27000 series, NIST SP 800 series provides numerous documents related to compliance and measurement of controls. NIST Special Publication 800-53 identifies information security controls for government systems (Joint Task Force Transformation

Initiative, 2013). NIST Special Publication 800-53A covers the “assessment methods and procedures for a minimum level due diligence for organizations assessing the security controls in their information systems (Savola, 2007) (Joint Task Force Transformation Initiative, 2014).” NIST Special Publication 800-55 covers the use of metrics for measuring security controls (Chew et al., 2008).

Beginning in 2018, the United States government requires any system containing Controlled Unclassified Information (CUI) “operated by contractors of federal agencies or other organizations on behalf of those agencies” to meet specific information safeguard criterion (Ross, Dempsey, Viscuso, Riddle, & Guissanie, 2015). Measurement of criterion is required to show compliance as described in NIST SP 800-171.

PCI DSS, the Payment Card Industry Data Security Standard, states that “organizations should quantify their ability to sustain security practices and PCI DSS compliance by developing a set of metrics that summarize the performance of their security controls and security program” (PCI DSS, 2014).

These taxonomies provide a valuable resource to organization looking for guidelines around security best practices. The challenge with these taxonomies is the lack of detailed guidance on how to carry out measurement of compliance. This problem is not well defined in any of the existing cybersecurity taxonomies today. Although this shortcoming is present, this research believes that a good metric is aligned to a security taxonomy. This research builds its metrics around the CIS Critical Security Controls.

CIS Critical Security Controls for Effective Cyber Defense

The Center for Internet Security (CIS) is a non-profit entity that seeks to “identify, develop, validate, promote, and sustain best practice solutions for cyber defense.” Its programs

include the CIS Critical Security Controls and CIS Benchmarks. These programs outline global standards for best practices in cyber defense.

The CIS Critical Controls for Effective Cyber Defense are a list of twenty controls that provide the foundation for security in computer networks. Beginning in 2008, the Department of Defense asked the National Security Agency (NSA) to assist in the prioritization of security controls for combatting increasing cyber attacks. NSA played a key role in development because the consensus for this list was the belief that “offense must drive defense” (“CIS Critical Security Controls: Guidelines,” n.d.). The mandate from the State Department and the White House required that controls only be listed if they were effective at preventing or mitigating known attacks. This process and knowledge was not new to NSA.

While this control list started as “For Official Use Only,” in time NSA decided to engage in a private-public partnership to share this control list with CIS and SANS, the training arm of CIS. This partnership enabled the release and promotion of this material to civilian agencies and private organizations seeking to protect critical information and infrastructure as seen in **Table 1**. In time, more participants joined this partnership and offered comments on the initial draft of the document released in 2009.

Critical Security Controls’ Partners and Developers	
USA National Security Agency (NSA) Red Team & Blue Team	Center for Internet Security (CIS)
Office of the Secretary of Defense	SANS Institute
US Department of Energy nuclear energy labs	UK National Cyber Security Centre (formally CESG)
USA Central Intelligence Agency	UK Centre for the Protection of National Infrastructure (CPNI)
National Cyber Investigative Joint Task Force (NCIJTF)	Lockheed Martin
FireEye (Mandiant)	InGuardians
McAfee	Defense Cyber Crime Center

Table 1: Critical Security Controls’ Partners and Developers (“CIS Critical Security Controls: A Brief History,” n.d.)

The implementation of these controls at the State Department led to an 88% reduction in “vulnerability based risk (“CIS Critical Security Controls: A Brief History,” n.d.)” across their systems. Because of this, the State Department became a model for large organizations. In December 2011, the United Kingdom’s Centre for the Protection of National Infrastructure (CPNI) adopted the CIS Critical Security Controls as the framework for all government agencies and industries moving forward. The CIS Critical Security Controls for Effective Cyber Defense have become a leading example of the benefits of public-private partnership (“CIS Critical Security Controls: A Brief History,” n.d.).

Core Tenets of CSCs

There are five critical tenets that are at the foundation of each of the Critical Security Controls. These five tenets, as seen in **Table 2**, include 1) Offense Informs Defense 2) Prioritization 3) Metrics 4) Continuous Monitoring 5) Automation.

Five tenets	
Offense informs defense	Use knowledge of actual attacks that have compromised systems to provide the foundation to build effective, practical defenses. Include only those controls that can be shown to stop known real-world attacks.
Prioritization	Invest first in controls that will provide the greatest risk reduction and protection against the most dangerous threat actors, and that can be feasibly implemented in your computing environment.
Metrics	Establish common metrics to provide a shared language for executives, IT specialists, auditors, and security officials to measure the effectiveness of security measures within an organization so that required adjustments can be identified and implemented quickly.
Continuous monitoring	Carry out continuous monitoring to test and validate the effectiveness of current security measures.
Automation	Automate defenses so that organizations can achieve reliable, scalable, and continuous measurements of their adherence to the controls and related metrics

Table 2: 5 Core Tenets of CSC's (“CIS Critical Security Controls: Guidelines,” n.d.)

To effectively carry out the Critical Security Controls, a metrics program is a necessity. Continuous monitoring and automation are also keys that play a large role in accurate and

efficient metrics. However, little research has been done in developing metrics to measure each of the Critical Security Controls.

Benefits of Metrics

There are many benefits to using metrics. To determine success or make improvements to any process or policy, a measurement has to be at its foundation. Metrics are immensely valuable to an organization if configured properly and with sufficient data (Krautsevich et al., 2010). Metrics provide an organization quantifiable determinants of the strength of their security (A. J. A. Wang, 2005). As Narang & Mehrotra explain, “there is a need to measure this security to justify the performance of the system (2010).” It is extremely useful to compare and contrast system security across an organization or across industry (C. Wang & Wulf, 1997). Metrics can help identify vulnerabilities in a system and provide data to assist in the priority of corrective action based on risk mitigation techniques.

Along with these benefits, Wang highlights that metrics can raise the security awareness in an organization (A. J. A. Wang, 2005; J. A. Wang et al., 2009). Senior level management should utilize metrics as a way to spot trends within their organization and to predict potential new risk areas (Chew et al., 2008). The threat environment is constantly changing, as such a successful metric should have the ability to adapt as the environment changes (Beres et al., 2009). Chew et al. (2008) also offer a list of positive benefits of metrics which include the ability to: increase accountability, improve information security effectiveness, demonstrate compliance, and provide quantifiable inputs for resource allocation decisions. Rathbun (2009) highlights five more positive impacts of metrics: Security metrics can be used to facilitate benchmark comparisons; they will help you communicate performance; they will help drive performance improvement; they can help to diagnose problems; and they provide effective decision-making support.

Other Examples of Cyber Metrics

A number of publications in the past few years have sought to identify how to measure security in particular domains. In cloud security Luna et al (2011) discuss the challenges and importance of metrics in the cloud environment. Along with this, they offer a security metrics framework for cloud provider assessments. Jain & Ingle (2011) conduct a review of software development metrics. They conclude that of the developed metrics, there exists a greater need for quantitative metrics to assess the loopholes identified in the security life cycle.

In cybersecurity, Sandoval & Hassell (2010) offer metrics to assess systems and architectures for their dynamic solutions in network defense. This approach differs from the “defense in depth” mantra traditionally held in information security. Langweg (2006) offers metrics to measure the resistance of applications and systems to malware. L. Wang, Jajodia, Singhal, Cheng, & Noel (2014) develop a metric to measure applications for unknown zero day vulnerabilities. This metric seeks to quantify product security by providing a measure to the number of zero day attacks that would need to be accomplished to compromise network assets. Vaarandi & Pihelgas (2014) develop metrics derived from security logs of common log types. Along with this, an open source framework for collecting and reporting cybersecurity metrics is presented. Much of this research is built off of the work of Vaarandi and Pihelgas.

Numerous work have examined cybersecurity risk posture by seeking to measure cyber resiliency and cyber robustness. Cybenko (2018) develops a quantifiable metric to examine the cyber resiliency across an organization. This metric offer the ability to be tailored to an organization’s context and needs. Baiardi, Tonelli, Bertolini, & Montecucco (2016) propose three metrics to measure cyber robustness. This metric seeks to quantify the probability an attacker accomplishes their attack in a predetermined time window.

Situational Awareness

In its simplest definition, situation awareness (SA) “is knowing what is going on around you” (Endsley & Garland, 2000). It’s defined in operational terms relative to what is important. In a more thorough definition, Endsley (1988) defines SA as “the perception of the elements in the environment within a volume of time and space, the comprehension of their meaning and the projection of their status in the near future.” SA is gathered from various sources of information available to a human at any given time. This gathering can be subtle, overt, or subconscious cues that can be received through “visual, aural, tactile, olfactory, or taste receptors” (Endsley & Garland, 2000).

Endsley’s proposed theoretical model of situational awareness for dynamic human decision making has become a standard for the domain (Endsley, 1995). This model involves three levels of situation awareness as seen in **Figure 1**.

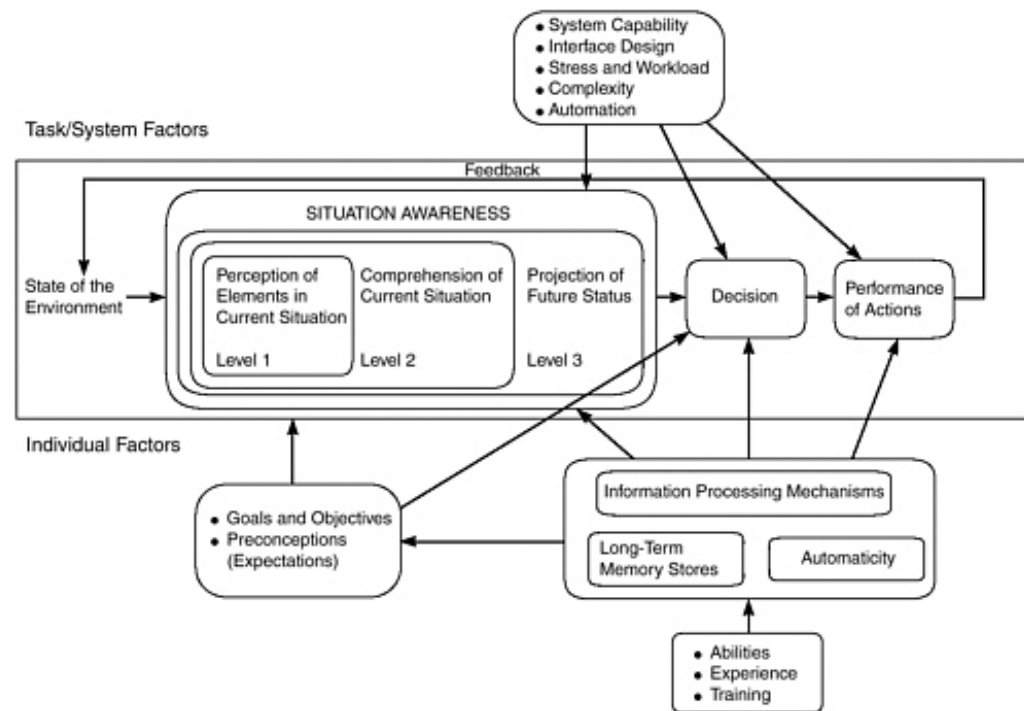


Figure 1: A Model for Situation Awareness from (Endsley, 1995)

Level 1: Perception

The first level of situation awareness involves the perception of cues. An understanding of important information involved in a situation is needed to form an image of the situation.

Without proper understandings of what is important, damaging decisions can occur. Jones and Endsley (1996) found that 76% of errors from aircraft pilots developed from problems in perceiving the information necessary for their situations.

Level 2: Comprehension

Level 2 builds on perception with the fusion of multiple streams of information to determine relevance. Furthermore, it “encompasses how people combine, interpret, store, and retain information (Endsley & Garland, 2000).” Meaning and significance are the primary end goal of this level of SA. According to Jones and Endsley (1996), 20% of aircraft pilot errors came from errors involving comprehension of their perceptions.

Level 3: Projection

Level 3 builds on comprehension with the ability to make projections of what will happen in the future based on the comprehension of perceptions. According to Endsley and Garland (2000), this is “the mark of a skilled expert.” Understanding the current state of reality and having the ability to make future projections is valuable and gives experts the upper hand against an adversary.

Cyber Situational Awareness

While adversaries have attacked computer networks since their inception, the need for situation awareness in cyberspace was made apparent with a rapid increase in computer network attacks against targets ranging from military operations, infrastructure, and private businesses (Ballora, Giacobe, McNeese, & Hall, 2011). In response to the emergence of advanced persistent threats (APT) security practitioners recognized the need for cyber situation awareness. Much of the literature in this subdomain was built off the foundational work by Endsley (Franke & Brynielsson, 2014). Cyber situation awareness has similar foundations to that of Endsley's work (1995), but adapts the model to cyber environments. Cyber situation awareness changes at a rate much faster than that of the physical world, with alerts, logs, and intelligence being the only insight an analyst has into their environment (Tyworth, Giacobe, Mancuso, & Dancy, 2012). Like Endsley's work, cyber situation awareness is a cognitive process primarily viewed as a mental state that an analyst possesses (Franke & Brynielsson, 2014; D'Amico, Whitley, Tesone, O'Brien, & Roth, 2005; Mancuso, Minotra, Giacobe, McNeese, & Tyworth, 2012). Cybersecurity analysts need to attain and maintain situation awareness through data from network sensors to defend a network (Giacobe, 2013). Along with network sensors, an analyst needs to understand the techniques, tactics, and procedures (TTPs) of adversaries (Ballora et al., 2011). Cyber situation awareness is not to be taken in isolation, but rather viewed as an aspect of overall situation awareness (Franke & Brynielsson, 2014).

Measuring situation awareness is difficult; this is no different in the cyber domain. Visual interfaces have been shown to be more effective than text interfaces at conveying situation awareness to an analyst (Giacobe, 2013).

Cyber situation awareness at its core is “compiling, processing, and fusing data” (Franke & Brynielsson, 2014). Data fusion is a primary function carried out to achieve cyber situation awareness.

JDL Data Fusion Process Model

Data fusion is a subject area that is not new but has received significant attention in the past 25 years with the information age. Simply put, “data fusion techniques combine data from multiple sensors” (D. L. Hall & Llinas, 1997). These processes “ultimately serve to help a decision-maker gain and further develop a high degree of situation awareness (Franke & Brynielsson, 2014).”

The JDL Data Fusion Process Model was developed in 1991 and describes the process of fusing multiple streams of data together to gain better situational awareness (Kessler et al., 1991). The model includes five levels of data fusion, in which the objective is to understand the current environment and future courses of action. The model was revised in 1999 and then again in 2002 to include a fifth level of HCI (Steinberg, Bowman, & White, 1999; Blasch & Plano, 2002).

In 2010, Giacobe evaluated the effectiveness of visual analytics in situational awareness scenarios. Along with this research, he reviewed the JDL Data Fusion Process Model and its impact on situation awareness within cybersecurity scenarios. His work can be seen in **Figures 2, 3, and 4**. Giacobe mapped the JDL Data Fusion Process Model to the cybersecurity domain. This work included evaluating tools and processes used in the cybersecurity field to determine where these tools and processes fall into the existing model, if at all. This section covers his work to provide a foundation of understanding for this research to build off of. His contribution has the potential to be foundational research in developing data fusion systems to protect systems ranging from critical infrastructure to organizational networks. According to Giacobe (2010), “it is

important to understand the relationship of the basic components of the fusion process in cybersecurity terms” before one can understand the cybersecurity functions and value of each level.

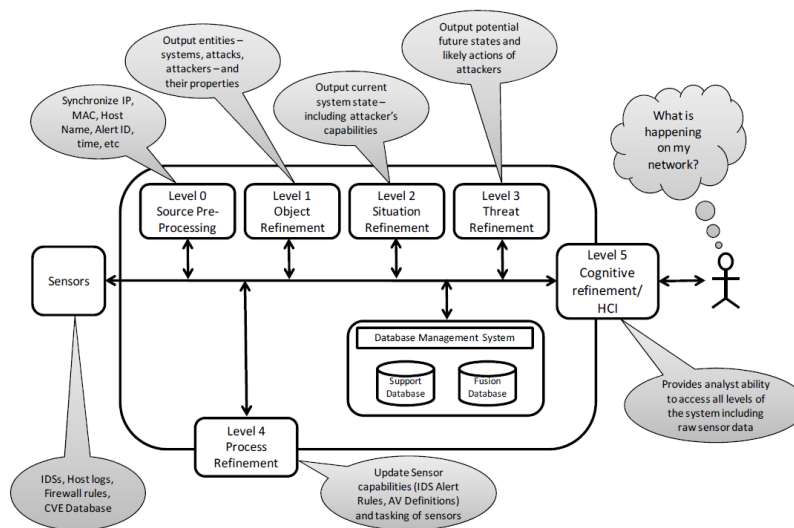


Figure 2: The JDL Data Fusion Process Model for Cybersecurity (Giacobe, 2010)

Sensors

The first component of the model includes sensors. Sensors are devices that report on the network system's security. Classic examples include firewalls, Network based Intrusion Detection Systems (NIDS), vulnerability scanners, and other network monitoring tools. All of these tools produce data. This data is in the form of firewall logs, NIDS alerts, vulnerability assessments, and other IT maintenance data. This sensor data feeds into the start of the fusion process. Many organizations have troves of sensor data that do not get analyzed because of the volume of data and the amount of work required to analyze it. This highlights the value and need for data fusion systems that can handle large amounts of different kinds of data. A common approach in information security has been to approach focus on adding cybersecurity tools where

perceived risk exists. These tools produce data to help prevent, combat, and respond to attacks on a network. The downfall to this approach is that these isolation, these tools produce a mountain of sensor data that adds no value to gaining a holistic understanding of what is occurring on a network (Rathbun, 2009). Methods to interpret the data from these sensors have been proposed but first they must be processed (Giacobe, 2012).

Level 0/1: Object Refinement

Level 0 is where source pre-processing occurs. In this low fusion level, data from different sources is synchronized. An example of this is the aligning of data to a common timestamp across different time zones. Level 1 is a continuation of Level 0 but focuses on outputting entities and their properties. To do this outputting, algorithms combine the Level 0 synchronized data from across the network. NIDS alerts report the source and destination IP address that can be synchronized with data from vulnerability assessments of the destination IP address. Firewall logs report the IP address, traffic type, and port numbers for each process. Server security logs provide information on successful and failed authentications that have occurred. The logs include the hostname and username that sought authentication. Synchronizing this data with IP address based data is the most common synchronization process in this level.

The major challenge in this level is to synchronize data that does not necessarily share a common timestamp or identifier. If the sensor data does not include some form of common identifier, the data can end up providing little value because it cannot be fused. Level 0/1 fusion research has largely focused on the fusion of data from IDS systems that have different detection capabilities (Giacobe, 2010).

Since then, Cerullo et al (2016) worked to enable the convergence of physical and logical security logs through event correlation. This Level 1 fusion aims to provide organizations an

integrated solution to monitor security holistically. A simulated environment is developed around protecting critical infrastructure. This simulation examines different attack patterns and how detection occurs through their converged correlation system.

Level 2: Situation Awareness

Level 2 fusion is focused on the development of situation awareness on the current state of a network. The main process is aggregating Level 1 entities to gain a holistic understanding of the current state. When a baseline understanding of normal network operations has been developed, an analyst is able to spot anomalies and/or prompt an investigation. Understanding the current posture of a network is half of the function in Level 2. Combining an understanding of a network's current state with the capabilities of attackers provides a true level of understanding and awareness.

Recent work by Timonen, Lääperi, Rummukainen, Puuska, & Vankka, (2014) has sought to develop a common operating picture for critical infrastructure. This has been approached by combining the JDL Data Fusion Process Model, with an agent-based brokered architecture. This system can improve situation awareness of the interdependencies within critical infrastructure networks.

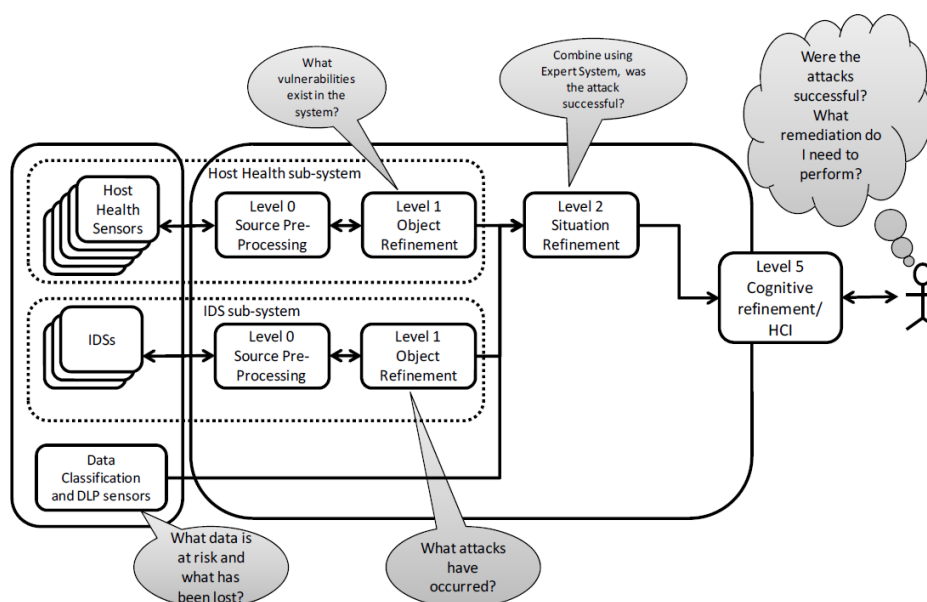


Figure 3: Level 2 - Situation Awareness Model (Giacobe, 2010)

Level 3: Threat Refinement

Level 3 fusion is focused on threat refinement in an effort to predict possible future courses of action by attackers. When the current state of the network is combined with possible vulnerabilities that an attacker can exploit, an analyst can be proactive in cybersecurity defense. A prime component of this level, as mapped by Giacobe, could include the CVE Database which provides information about current vulnerabilities that an attacker can use (Giacobe, 2010). The CVE database includes over 100,000 entries dating back to 1999.

Since knowing the current landscape of vulnerabilities is a laborious task for an analyst, the necessity creates a need for the development of automated tasks and algorithms that can harness Level 2 data in an ever-changing vulnerability landscape. Having an understanding of the tools to which an attacker has access to is another piece of valuable information that can aid an analyst in engaging in proactive behavior. Another important consideration regards knowledge about which data is at risk. Data science and data mining are emerging as promising subject areas

in relation to this concern (Bass, 2000). Buczak & Guven, (2016) conducted a systematic literature review of machine learning and data mining methods for cybersecurity. This review offers numerous methods for using machine learning to drive threat prediction within a network.

Understanding the location of data and the shared infrastructure on which data sits informs decisions about controls in certain locations to prevent exploitation that allows for lateral movement on shared infrastructure. When the value of particular data is known, risk assessments can be used to determine which attacks an organization needs to mitigate, avoid, transfer, or accept according to the defined risk appetite of the organization. Accepting certain attacks occurs when the impact from the loss of that particular low value data is not worth the cost of protecting it. In evaluating the risk of a distributed denial of service (DDoS) attack, many organizations choose to transfer this risk to the internet service provider. It is these types of business decisions that Level 3 threat refinement offers an organization.

When an analyst is able to understand the current state of his or her network, the attacker's capabilities, and the location and value in the data that an organization possesses, the analyst is able to guide policy and be proactive, not merely reactive, in combating cyber attacks. This research believes that achieving this level of fusion provides the best possibility of combating an APT actor with long-term resources.

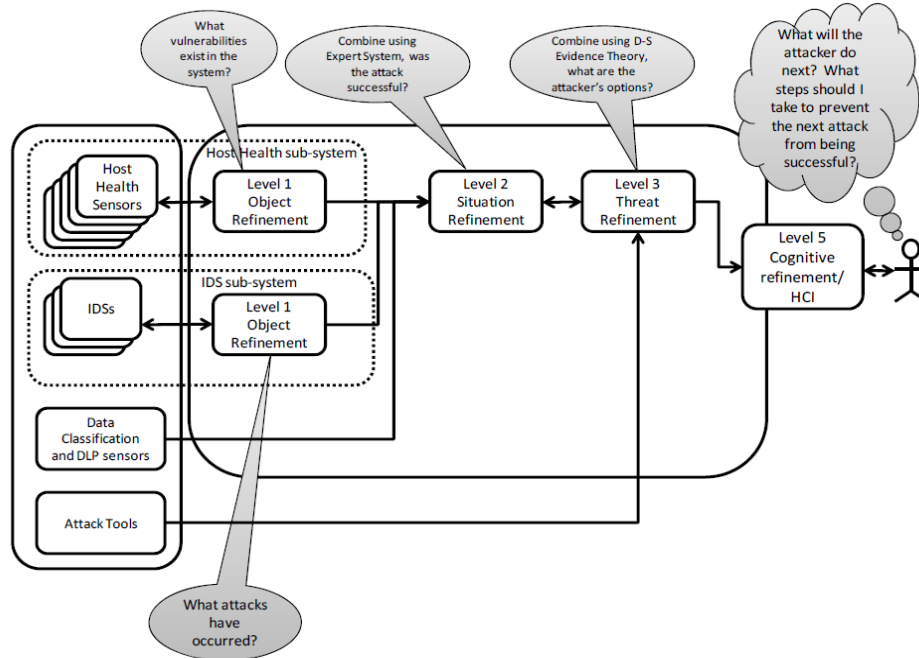


Figure 4: Level 3 - Fusion for Projection (Giacobe, 2010)

Level 4: Process Refinement

Level 4 fusion aims to step back, look at the fusion process, and examine the system as it takes input from outside sources. Updating and selecting the right sensors and tools in one's fusion system is necessary for long term success. In Blasch and Plano's proposed modification of JDL, Level 4 is divided into two levels - one level for machine process refinement and another level for user refinement. Blasch and Plano (2002) explain that the limitation of having both processes in the same level is the lack of purpose conveyed. Machine process refinement includes updating tools like NIDS for the latest capabilities and patch management such as anti-virus definitions. Much of the data fusion research deals with machine process refinement (Blasch & Plano, 2002).

Level 5: User Refinement

Blasch & Plano (2002) label sensor fusion as incomplete without user refinement. Level 5 fusion is focuses on human computer interaction (HCI) and cognitive refinement (Blasch & Plano, 2002). The goal of Level 5 is to provide the analyst with a visual understanding of each level of the fusion system. The challenging aspect that has plagued many cybersecurity analysts is the vast amount of data provided to the analyst with high false positive rates (Giacobe, 2010). This amount of data can be overwhelming to an analyst. Another challenge of this level is the lack of a mental model. Giacobe (2010) discusses the challenge of not having a common understanding of a cyber terrain. Cyber terrain is the “physical and logical infrastructure and mission data” (Bodeau, Graubart, & Heinbockel, 2013). Often, the knowledge of cyber terrain is different for analysts and the designers of cybersecurity fusion systems. It is unlikely that one common “terrain” will be developed (Giacobe, 2010).

D. L. Hall, McMullen, & Hall, (2015) conducted a review of the advances to Level 5 information fusion. This research offers numerous advances in technology that have affected this level of fusion including new sensing technologies, increased computing capabilities, increased bandwidth and connectivity, and intelligent interconnections.

The Gap

As this literature outlines, cyber situation awareness is “compiling, processing, and fusing data” (Franke & Brynielsson, 2014). There are many different sources of data used for gaining situation awareness, including firewall logs, server logs, or patch management data. The literature of cybersecurity metrics has highlighted the value of gathering this same data while also creating metrics to track over time.

Many authors take these data sources and move directly to situation awareness. This work suggests these authors are underestimating the value of a layer in between data sources and cyber situation awareness. This layer that is being underestimated is cybersecurity metrics. Currently, the literature does not explore how cybersecurity metrics can help increase situation awareness.

On top of this, much of cybersecurity metrics work is isolated to one data stream. Data fusion of multiple, cross functional metrics provides an opportunity to increase situation awareness compared to metrics focused on one data stream because of the scope of data collection in an environment. This layer 2 JDL fusion can help assist cybersecurity analysts develop a fuller, more streamlined view of situation awareness in their cyber environments. Gaining greater situation awareness will likely produce analysts who can mitigate and defend networks from attacks with greater effectiveness and aid in developing Level 3 Prediction. This is of great value as cyber campaigns continue to increase with a growing number of nation states and rogue actors participating.

Conclusion

This section has outlined the current literature on security metrics, data fusion, and situation awareness. Along with reviewing this literature, the current deficiencies are outlined and how these domains present an opportunity to complement each other with a rationale for why the subject area needs more research and how this research could help solve the deficiencies that are present in the current state of the research.

Chapter 3

Metric Design and Development

This research seeks to develop measurements for Critical Security Control 8: Malware Defenses. This section covers an overview of CSC 8 and briefly describes each sub control, as well as, measurements for the six sub CSC's.

Critical Security Control 8 Overview

CSC 8: Malware Defenses has a total of six sub controls aimed at controlling the “installation, spread, and execution of malicious code (Center for Internet Security, 2015).” Of all twenty CSC's, this research is pursuing developing measurements for this CSC to start for a number of reasons. One of these reasons includes the enterprise readiness to measure anti-virus/malware, through tools such as Symantec Endpoint Protection or McAfee Endpoint Security. Most all organizations deploy some form of anti-virus protection for their workstations; along with this, most organizations maintain log data related to these systems. These two characteristics make CSC 8 attractive as a starting spot for developing a metrics program. Another reason for pursuing this CSC is the stable and consistent threat malware has posed to the cybersecurity domain for over two decades. An organization must have security controls to defend against malware infections. **Table 3** lists the six sub controls of CSC 8: Malware Defenses. In this research, an asset is defined as a known and managed network host. A host is used to denote a system that is not managed or known but resides on a network.

Family	Control	Control Description
System	8.1	Employ automated tools to continuously monitor workstations, servers, and mobile devices with anti-virus, anti-spyware, personal firewalls, and host-based IPS functionality. All malware detection events should be sent to enterprise anti-malware administration tools and event log servers.
System	8.2	Employ anti-malware software that offers a centralized infrastructure that compiles information on file reputations or have administrators manually push updates to all machines. After applying an update, automated systems should verify that each system has received its signature update.
System	8.3	Limit use of external devices to those with an approved, documented business need. Monitor for use and attempted use of external devices. Configure laptops, workstations, and servers so that they will not auto-run content from removable media, like USB tokens (i.e., “thumb drives”), USB hard drives, CDs/DVDs, FireWire devices, external serial advanced technology attachment devices, and mounted network shares. Configure systems so that they automatically conduct an anti-malware scan of removable media when inserted.
System	8.4	Enable anti-exploitation features such as Data Execution Prevention (DEP), Address Space Layout Randomization (ASLR), virtualization/containerization, etc. For increased protection, deploy capabilities such as Enhanced Mitigation Experience Toolkit (EMET) that can be configured to apply these protections to a broader set of applications and executables.
System	8.5	Use network-based anti-malware tools to identify executables in all network traffic and use techniques other than signature-based detection to identify and filter out malicious content before it arrives at the endpoint.
System	8.6	Enable domain name system (DNS) query logging to detect hostname lookup for known malicious C2 domains.

Table 3: Critical Security Control 8 (Center for Internet Security, 2015)

Critical Security Control 8.1 Metric

Critical Security Control 8.1 requires systems to possess an endpoint security tool where centralized logging occurs. To measure this control, a percentage based metric was created. A percentage based metric is determined through the division of a numerator and denominator in a fraction. This metric quantifies the number of assets that are sending logging information to the centralized logging manager as the numerator. The denominator is the total number of assets on a network. The division of these two number, over a specified time period, provide a metric to measure CSC 8.1, as seen in **Equation 1**. Two measurements make up this metric with a percentage measurement as the desired outcome of measuring CSC 8.1 and CSC 8.2. This percentage will denote the percentage of network assets that possess the control description vs those not in compliance.

This metric is an effectiveness measure as it seeks to quantify if a specified policy is accomplishing what it set out to do. That policy would be a requirement that all organizational assets possess an anti-malware tool. This metric is designed with a strategic level leader or executive in mind. This metric presents a high level picture of the saturation of anti-malware tools that exist on an organizations network. The intended audience for this metric is a strategic level executive as a resource to monitor overall network saturation of anti-virus/anti-malware tools. This metric offers a broad stroke in quantifying a part of network security, across an organization.

CSC 8.1 Metric Numerator

The measurement for the numerator is based on the logging from the centralized logging server that collects all logs for the enterprise host based suite. Automated indexing of these logs allows for the ability to quickly determine the number of unique hosts that are communicating with the centralized management and logging server. The number of unique hosts is the numerator in the measurement of this control.

CSC 8.1 Metric Denominator

The measurement for the denominator is drawn from the number of unique clients that are operating on the network. Because of this, measurement for the denominator is best drawn from the physical layer on layer one of the OSI model. An ARP (Address Resolution Protocol) cache is the ideal location to look for the number of clients communicating on layer one. The ARP cache is a list that maintains when an IP address is correlated to a physical network address.

For this to be automated, a tool would need to be deployed to monitor the ARP Cache and record changes. An example of this includes arpwatch which was developed by the Lawrence

Berkeley National Laboratory (Leres, n.d.). For this research, an ARP cache was exported to a text file and then uploaded to Splunk.

$$\frac{\text{Assets Reporting a Scan}}{\text{Total \# of Network Hosts}} * 100 = \text{Top Level Metric Percentage}$$

Equation 1: Measuring CSC 8.1

Alternative Options for Denominator

There are a number of other potential logging sources that could be used to determine the number of clients on a network. Logging of DNS would provide the number of hosts that have contacted the internal DNS server for domain name resolution. The drawback to this approach is the failure to capture a node that is seeking to traverse straight to an IP address, bypassing DNS entirely. A similar drawback is present in using DHCP as the data source to the denominator. A host that manually sets a static IP address will not communicate with DHCP. Another possible data source includes the extraction of indicators from netflow data. The challenge with netflow is that not all environments possess the needed proprietary equipment to capture netflow data.

While these logging sources are network based determinants, this does not necessarily have to be the case. Organizations can choose to use a denominator that is based on their systems inventory. There are a number of drawbacks to this type of implementation. There is often a challenge to keep an organizations inventory up to date. Along with being difficult to maintain, not every asset that is inventoried is an active network asset. Using a retentively static data source can mislead measurements.

Critical Security Control 8.2 Metric

Critical Security Control 8.2 outlines the need for systems to receive anti-virus/anti-malware updates and an automated way to ensure that a system has received updates. Symantec Endpoint Protection currently provides the ability to automatically or manually push anti-malware update, or definitions, to all clients connected to the manager. To measure this control, a percentage based metric was created to show the number of assets that received the most recent update divided by the total number of assets on a network over a specified time period. Two measurements make up this metric, as seen in **Equation 2**.

This metric is an effectiveness measure as it seeks to measure if a specified policy is accomplishing what it set out to do. That policy would be a requirement that all organizational assets receive regular anti-malware updates. This metric is designed with a systems administrator in mind. This metric presents the ability for an administrator to determine which systems did not receive an update as it should have. Regular anti-malware updates occurring when an anti-malware tool is installed is synonymous to most strategic level executives.

CSC 8.2 Metric Numerator

The measurement for the numerator is based on the logging from the centralized logging server that collects all logs for the enterprise host based suite. Automated indexing of these logs allows for the ability to quickly determine the number of unique hosts that have reported an update being received.

$$\frac{\text{Assets Reporting an Update}}{\text{Total \# of Network Hosts}} * 100 = \text{Top Level Metric Percentage}$$

Equation 2: Measuring CSC 8.2

CSC 8.2 Metric Denominator

CSC 8.2 utilizes the same measurement technique outlined in CSC 8.1 metric denominator.

Critical Security Control 8.3 Metric

Critical Security Control 8.3 outlines four main controls, as seen in **Table 4**. The first part of the control recommends limiting the use of external devices to those that have a documented business need and then monitoring for rogue external devices, such as removable media. The second part of the control recommends configuring hosts to prevent auto running of content from removable media and then conducting an anti-virus/anti-malware scan when such drives are inserted into a host.

This group of metrics are effectiveness and implementation measures as it seeks to measure if policies around removable media are implemented and effective in attaining their desired result. These metrics are designed with a systems administrator in mind. This metric presents the ability for an administrator to investigate systems that are non-compliant with organizational policy.

Limiting the use of removable media to those with a documented business need is a foundational control within CSC 8.3. Windows Active Directory provides the ability to implement group policy objects, such as denying all USB removable storage access. In any organization, business need exceptions will be required. These exceptions can be documented in a database that maintains systems information of systems where the policy has not been implemented.

When a removable storage device is connected to a Windows operating machine, event codes are generated in the Windows Event Logs. These event ID codes include 2003, 2004, 2005, 2010, 2100, 2105 (Hale, 2014). Monitoring these logs allows for an organization to determine who is attempting to use removable storage devices. A list of systems where a removable storage Event ID was found can be compared to the database of systems with a documented business need. This strategy can be messy, but provides a starting spot if no other tools are available. Most anti-virus vendors provide the ability to monitor for removable storage devices in their endpoint tool suite.

Another feature present in some endpoint tools, such as Symantec Endpoint Protection, includes the ability to monitor the registry. Systems can be prevented from auto running content by changing a registry value of NoDriveAutoRun to 0x00000005 in HKEY_LOCAL_MACHINE\Software\Microsoft\Windows\CurrentVersion\Policies\Explorer\ (“Enabling and Disabling AutoRun,” n.d.). An endpoint tool suite could then monitor this registry value for any changes.

The final recommendation in CSC 8.3 is to configure systems to automatically conduct an anti-virus/anti-malware scan upon insertion of a removable storage device. Several endpoint tools provide this functionality. These scan logs can be correlated to a systems event logs, providing the ability to measure the effectiveness of conducting an anti-virus/anti-malware scan when a USB removable storage device is inserted. Another source of correlation is the business use case database. This correlation could highlight systems that are conducting scans that do not have a business use case for removable media.

Control	Measurement
Limit use of external devices to those with an approved, documented business need.	Database of documented business needs
Monitor for use and attempted use of external devices.	Windows Event Codes
Configure laptops, workstations, and servers so that they will not auto-run content from removable media	Anti Virus tools and registry editing can prevent auto-run. They can also monitor the registry for the disabled auto-run key.
Configure systems so that they automatically conduct an anti-malware scan of removable media when inserted.	Anti Virus scan logs compared to the Windows Event logs

Table 4: CSC 8.3 Measurements

Critical Security Control 8.4 Metric

Critical Security Control 8.4 recommends the enabling of anti-exploitation systems level security features such as Data Execution Prevention (DEP), Address Space Layout Randomization (ASLR) or virtualization/containerization. There are a number of automated ways to determine if these security features are enabled on a system. Windows Management Instrumentation (WMI) allows for the ability to run tasks on remote hosts. The WMI object, `DataExecutionPrevention_SupportPolicy`, can be executed on a machine to determine if DEP is enabled. The result will be a value from zero to three as referenced in **Table 5**. The total number of responses for each code returned is the CSC 8.4 Top Level Metric, as seen in **Equation 3**.

Response Code	Policy Level	Description
2	OptIn (default configuration)	Only Windows system components and services have DEP applied
3	OptOut	DEP is enabled for all processes. Administrators can manually create a list of specific applications which do not have DEP applied
1	AlwaysOn	DEP is enabled for all processes
0	AlwaysOff	DEP is not enabled for any processes

Table 5: DataExecutionPrevention_SupportPolicy Response Codes (“How to determine that hardware DEP is available and configured on your computer,” n.d.)

$$CSC\ 8.3\ Top\ Level\ Metric = \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{matrix} System\ with\ DEP \\ not\ enabled \end{matrix}$$

Equation 3: Measuring CSC 8.4

This metric is an implementation measure as it seeks to measure if a policy requiring DEP to be enable has been implemented on each system in an organization. This metrics is designed for a manager or project lead to determine if the success of implementation of a particular security feature.

Critical Security Control 8.5 Metric

Critical Security Control 8.5 recommends the use of network based tools to identify executables in traffic. Traditional signature based detection and anomaly behavioral detection are the two most common network tool detection types. This focus of this control and metric is towards ensuring the presence of these tools on a network, rather than their accuracy. This focus makes an uptime metric ideal, as seen in **Equation 4**. An uptime metric measures the percentage of time that these tools were operating and actively carrying out their intended purpose.

Snort and Laika BOSS™ are two network based tools that use signature based detection. Snort is a network based intrusion detection and prevention system (Roesch, 1999). Laika BOSS™ is a “file-centric intrusion detection system and malware analysis platform,” developed by the Lockheed Martin Computer Incident Response Team who also released the seminal whitepaper known as the Cyber Kill Chain (Arnao, Smutz, Zollman, Richardson, & Hutchins, 2015) (Hutchins, Cloppert, & Amin, 2011). Bro is an intrusion detection system with anomaly detection capabilities (Sommer, 2003).

A systems administrator who is monitoring a network's security tool health would be the ideal candidate for this effectiveness measure. This measure provides the ability to monitor network tool health and functionality over a period of time.

$$\frac{\text{Sensor uptime}}{\text{Total time}} * 100 = \text{Top Level Metric Percentage}$$

Equation 4: Measuring CSC 8.5

Critical Security Control 8.6 Metric

Critical Security Control 8.6 recommends logging all domain name system (DNS) queries to detect known malicious C2 domains. For a device to connect to the Internet, it needs a DNS host to convert top level domains into IP addresses. This lookup process can be logged, allowing for monitoring and measurement. In mature environments, DNS firewalls provide the ability to detect and mitigate against known malicious domains. In less mature environments that lack DNS mitigation capability, logging DNS queries allows for the ability to retroactively respond to visiting of known malicious C2 domains.

Regardless of the maturity of an organizations DNS capabilities, meaningful measurements can be developed and implemented. To measure this control, traffic to known malicious domains is divided by total traffic, as seen in **Equation 5**. This effectiveness measurement yields a percent that can be tracked over time. This measurement allows for strategic decision makers to be informed in security resource allocation and security control purchasing.

$$\frac{\text{Malicious C2 Traffic}}{\text{Total Traffic}} * 100 = \text{Top Level Metric Percentage}$$

Equation 5: Measuring CSC 8.

Chapter 4

Metric Implementation

The following section discusses the results of implementing CSC 8.1 and 8.2 in the simulated network setup and the benefits that are present in the current implementation. A simulated and scaled computer network was developed to provide a proof of concept for two of the metrics that this research developed. Along with being a proof of concept, implementing these measurements allows for the creation of detailed guidelines on how to implement measurement in an organization.

This network and its associated tools were used for data creation. The data was created, and fused together to create metrics. This scaled environment was designed to reflect current industry trends in network defense best practices, including cutting edge tools. This scaled environment was intended to be reflective of a small business with approximately a dozen employees. While the size of the network is scaled, the design of the metrics allow for scaling up to a global enterprise network of hundreds of thousands of network assets.

Implementation of CSC 8.1 and 8.2 were scope for this research, while CSC 8.3-8.6 are out of scope because of the limitation to the network infrastructure and accompanying capabilities as the system currently exists.

For this scale world environment, a fictitious company was used to simulate the network naming structure and provide a sense of legitimacy. ABC Company is a small paper sales company with 12 employees in different departments. Each of these employees received a workstation and individual network account on the domain “ABC.local” to accomplish their duties. **Table 6** references the employees below.

Name	Network Logon	Computer Name	Company division
James Halpert	james.halpert	Workstation 1	Sales
Pam Beesly	pam.beesly	Workstation 2	Administrative
Dwight Schrute	dwight.schrute	Workstation 3	Sales
Michael Scott	michael.scott	Workstation 4	Management
Stanley Hudson	stanley.hudson	Workstation 5	Sales
Andy Bernard	andy.bernard	Workstation 6	Sales
Phylliss Vance	phylliss.vance	Workstation 7	Sales
Creed Braton	creed.braton	Workstation 8	Quality Control
Meredith Palmer	meredith.palmer	Workstation 9	Supplier Relations
Kevin Malone	kevin.malone	Workstation 10	Accounting
Toby Flenderson	toby.flenderson	Workstation 11	Human Resources
Darryl Philbin	darryl.philbin	Workstation 12	Distribution

Table 6: ABC.local Workstations

The scaled world was hosted on a Dell PowerEdge R900 using virtualization. The R900 ran Windows Server 2012 and Microsoft Hyper-V. Hyper-V operated a virtual network switch and managed all virtualization for the environment. A total of 12 workstations that ran Windows 10 were deployed in Hyper V and acted as employee workstations. Two servers running Windows Server 2012 were also deployed. The first server acted as the domain controller and the second as an anti-virus enterprise manager.

Symantec Endpoint Protection is an endpoint security suite of tools developed by Symantec. Symantec Endpoint Protection currently provides a suite of anti-virus, anti-spyware, personal firewalls, and host- based IPS functionality to workstations, servers, and mobile devices, along with other cutting edge endpoint technologies as referenced in **Figure 5** (Symantec, 2017). According to Gartner's 2017 Endpoint Protection Platform review, Symantec Endpoint Protection possesses the largest market share and revenue of any endpoint protection vendor (Gartner, Ouellet, McShane, & Litan, 2017).

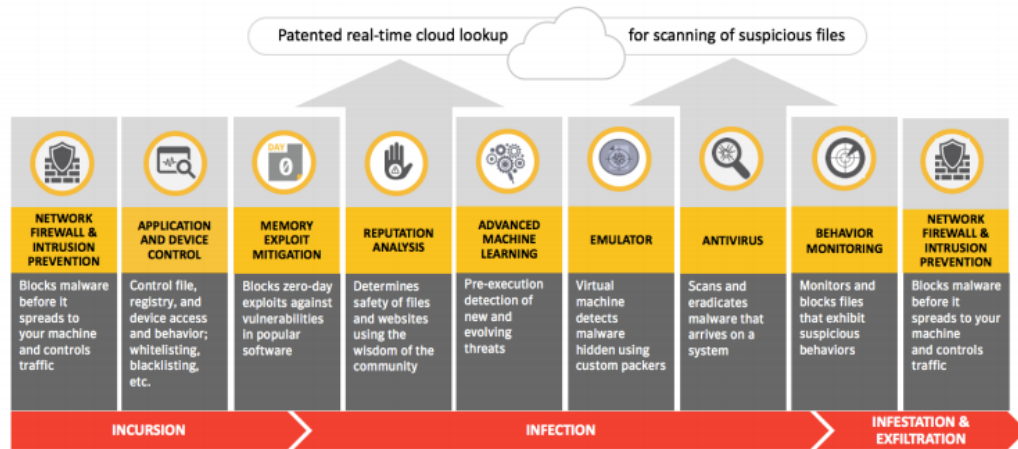


Figure 5: Symantec Endpoint Protection Features (Symantec, 2017)

Each of the 12 deployed employee workstation on “ABC.local” ran Windows 10 Education and had Symantec Endpoint Protection client installed. Symantec Endpoint Protection would run daily antivirus scans and log the findings. The log files for each workstation would be sent to the local client manager known as Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager that was hosted on the second server on the network.

The first server, known as server1 and as seen in **Table 7**, acted as the domain controller and managed Active Directory. The second server, known as server2, housed Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager. Each of the servers have an instance of Splunk Universal Forwarder installed. This forwarder monitored log dump locations and uploaded logs into Splunk Cloud.

Server Name	Server OS	Server Role
server1	Windows Server 2012	Domain Controller, Active Directory
server2	Windows Server 2012	Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager

Table 7: ABC.local Servers

Splunk acted a log aggregator and SEIM for this network. Splunk is a software tool for managing machine event logs and indexing them for easy access to searching and manipulation for visualizations. Once logs were created on the local servers, SplunkCloud would receive the

log files from the Universal Forwarder. Once the log files were received, Splunk would index the log for easy searching and manipulation. Within Splunk, Symantec log files had field extraction applied manually because of a bug within the Splunk-Symantec Log add on. An ARP Cache from the network was imported into a log file and uploaded to the Splunk manually.

Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager allows for the customization of policies for assets that the Manager oversees. A standard policy was implemented to ensure that every managed asset would automatically run an anti-virus/anti-malware scan every 24 hours. This typically occurred in the early morning each day. This policy seeks to accomplish what Critical Security Control 8.1 outlines.

Another implemented policy required assets to check for system definitions or updates from the Manager or the external Symantec LiveUpdate server. This action is a routine process and allows the client to be up to date with the most recent malware detections that the vendor has encountered. This policy seeks to accomplish what Critical Security Control 8.2 outlines.

The actions related to both of these policies were logged on each of the clients and sent to the centralized Manager. Each client would forward their logs to the Manager. The Manager was configured to continually dump all logs to a local file directory. This local file directory was monitored for any new file dumps by the Splunk Universal Forwarder. When this local directory had a change, the Universal Forwarder would upload the log entries to an instance of Splunk Cloud. Splunk Cloud provides for drill down ability to examine the data that is underlying the metric. This allows a systems administrator to investigate network assets that do not possess any anti-malware tools.

Implementing Critical Security Control 8.1

To implement Critical Security Control 8.1 two data sources were needed. The first was SEPM which provided the log data for the anti-virus/anti-malware scan activity. The second data source was a created by a manual process of exporting the local network's ARP cache to a text file and then uploading it to Splunk Cloud where it could be indexed.

Numerator Measurement of Anti-Virus/Anti-Malware Scan Logs

Every scan that was conducted by the client software was logged. These logs provided a number of valuable fields that could be measured. The fields primarily used for identification and correlation were the user fields, the IP Address, and the computer name. A sample log depicting a completed anti-virus/anti-malware scan is seen in **Figure 6**.

```
2018-02-20 16:36:04,Scan ID: 1518991661,Begin: 2018-02-20 15:20:54,End: 2018-02-20 16:31:54,Completed,Duration
(seconds): 4260,User1: james.halpert,User2: james.halpert,'Scan started on all drives and all extensions.','Scan Complete: Risks: 0
Scanned: 166225 Files/Folders/Drives Omitted: 0 Trusted Files Skipped: 41377',Command: Not a command scan (),Threats:
0,Infected: 0,Total files: 166225,Omitted: 0,Computer: Computer1,IP Address: 192.168.1.11,Domain: Default,Group: My
Company\Default Group,Server: Server2
```

Figure 6: A Sample Symantec Endpoint Protection Client Log Entry

Manual field extraction occurred on the log `agt_scan.tmp`. Typically vendors or Splunk provide an add on to Splunk that automatically handles field extraction. This is typically the case for Symantec Endpoint Protection but a bug within Splunk Cloud currently exists preventing the add on from being installed. **Table 8** lists each indexed field and the correlating identifier in the raw log.

Indexed Field Name	Raw Log Field
computer_name	Computer
description	(event message not titled in raw log)

src_ip	IP Address
status	(event status not titled in raw log)
scan_id	Scan ID
user1	User1
user2	User2

Table 8: Field Extractions for Symantec Endpoint Protection Client Scan Logs

Once these logs were ingested and indexed, searching and dashboard development was able to take place. A table was built to easily showcase the information relevant for situation awareness. The default timeframe chosen was 7 days with deduplication. This was chosen because of the high fidelity results for this implementation. Ideally, a timeframe closer to 24 hours is ideal. Attempts to reduce the timeframe highlighted bugs in the logging or failed activity that should have occurred, as described later. The following query in **Figure 7** was built in Splunk to produce the results shown in **Table 9**.

```
index=arp type=dynamic | table src_ip, MAC_addr | join src_ip [search index=sepm
source="C:\Program Files (x86)\Symantec\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\data\dump\agt_scan.tmp" AND status="Completed" | dedup src_ip | table src_ip, status,
scan_id, user2, computer_name] | sort src_ip | rename user2 AS "User", computer_name AS "Computer
Name", scan_id AS "Scan ID", src_ip AS "Source IP", status as "Status"
```

Figure 7: Splunk Query to Produce Table 9

Source IP	Scan ID	Status	User	Computer Name
192.168.1.11	1518991657	Completed	james.halpert	Computer1
192.168.1.12	1518924041	Completed	pam.beesly	Computer2
192.168.1.13	1518918507	Completed	dwight.schrute	Computer3
192.168.1.14	1518915930	Completed	michael.scott	Computer4
192.168.1.15	1519017388	Completed	stanley.hudson	Computer5
192.168.1.16	1519046028	Completed	andy.bernard	Computer6
192.168.1.17	1518907704	Completed	phyllis.vance	Computer7
192.168.1.18	1519046205	Completed	creed.bratton	Computer8
192.168.1.19	1518818787	Completed	meredith.palmer	Computer9
192.168.1.20	1518923753	Completed	kevin.malone	Computer10

Table 9: Numerator Table for CSC 8.1

After development of **Table 9**, a total count of hosts reporting a scan could be totaled. This total would be the integer for the numerator of CSC 8.1 metric. **Figure 8** lists the query in Splunk to determine the total count.

```
(index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR (index=main) | dedup src_ip | stats dc(src_ip) | rename
dc(src_ip) AS "Total number of hosts with a completed scan"
```

Figure 8: Splunk Query to Determine Numerator Total

Denominator Measurement of ARP Cache

An ARP Cache is a “collection of ARP entries (mostly dynamic) that are created when a hostname is resolved to an IP address and then an IP address is resolved to a MAC address (Wallen, 2011).” Arpwatch is an automated open source tool developed by Craig Leres, of the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory Network Research Group, which keeps track of the ARP Cache by monitoring a .pcap for ARP calls (Leres, n.d.).

```
C:\Users\Administrator> arp -a > ARP_output.txt
```

Figure 9: Retrieving the ARP Cache

For this implementation, a manual process was used for simplicity. An ARP cache was exported to a text file using the command seen in

Figure 9. Dynamic type entries in the text file can be seen in **Table 10**.

IP Address	MAC Address	Type
192.168.1.1	00-06-25-78-e3-fd	dynamic
192.168.1.6	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0d	dynamic
192.168.1.7	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0e	dynamic
192.168.1.11	00-15-5d-ef-cd-02	dynamic
192.168.1.12	00-15-5d-ef-cd-03	dynamic
192.168.1.13	00-15-5d-ef-cd-04	dynamic
192.168.1.14	00-15-5d-ef-cd-05	dynamic
192.168.1.15	00-15-5d-ef-cd-08	dynamic
192.168.1.16	00-15-5d-ef-cd-07	dynamic
192.168.1.17	00-15-5d-ef-cd-09	dynamic

192.168.1.18	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0a	dynamic
192.168.1.19	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0b	dynamic
192.168.1.20	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0c	dynamic
192.168.1.70	5c-f9-dd-6e-31-0f	dynamic

Table 10: ARP Cache from Local Network

Once this text file was uploaded into Splunk Cloud, manual field extraction occurred.

Each entry contains three fields that were indexed as seen in **Table 11**.

ARP Cache Raw Log Field	Indexed Field
Internet Address	src_ip
Physical Address	MAC_addr
Type	type

Table 11: Field Extractions for ARP Cache

Once the ARP cache log was indexed, the integer for the denominator could be determined. The denominator is the total number of dynamic network src_ip's in the ARP Cache. The "dc" function is a distinct or unique count on all the source IPs, as seen in **Figure 10**.

index=arp type=dynamic stats dc(src_ip) rename dc(src_ip) AS "Total Number of Network Assets"

Figure 10: Splunk Query to Determine Denominator Total

CSC 8.1 Metric Result

Once the integers of the numerator and denominator had been determined, the percentage of clients on the network that conducted an antivirus scan could be measured, as seen in **Figure 11**. The numerator data provided the total number of hosts having conducted an anti-virus/anti-malware scan. The denominator provided us with a total number of assets on the network. The division of these two integers provides the percentage, or the top level metric to measure Critical Security Control 8.1, as seen in **Equation 6**.

```

index=arp type=dynamic | stats dc(src_ip) AS total_denominator | table total_denominator | table
total_numerator, total_denominator | join src_ip [search (index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files
(x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR
(index=main) | dedup src_ip | stats dc(src_ip) AS total_numerator | table total_numerator] | eval
metric_percentage=total_numerator / total_denominator | eval metric_percentage
=round(metric_percentage*100) | table metric_percentage | rename metric_percentage AS "8.1 Metric"

```

Figure 11: Splunk Query to Determine Top Level Measurement

$$\frac{\text{Hosts Reporting an Update}}{\text{Total \# of Network Assets}} * 100 = \text{Top Level Metric Percentage}$$

$$\frac{11}{14} * 100 = 79\%$$

Equation 6: Metric Result from Implementation of CSC 8.1

Splunk Dashboard

One of the benefits of Splunk is the ability to create customizable dashboards. In this instance, a dashboard provided quick access to the data and the accompanying measurements, as seen in **Figure 12**. Each panel in the dashboard provides that ability to drill down into the data that makes up the panel, which features a time picker for queries. This functionality provides the ability to change the time on each of the panels. The dashboard features three panels across the top with the numerator metric, the denominator metric, and the top level percentage measurement. Below that table is a fused table of the metric numerator and denominator data. Below that table are the individual tables of each metric's numerator or denominator's data. These tables are not fused. The **Appendix** features source code for each dashboard.

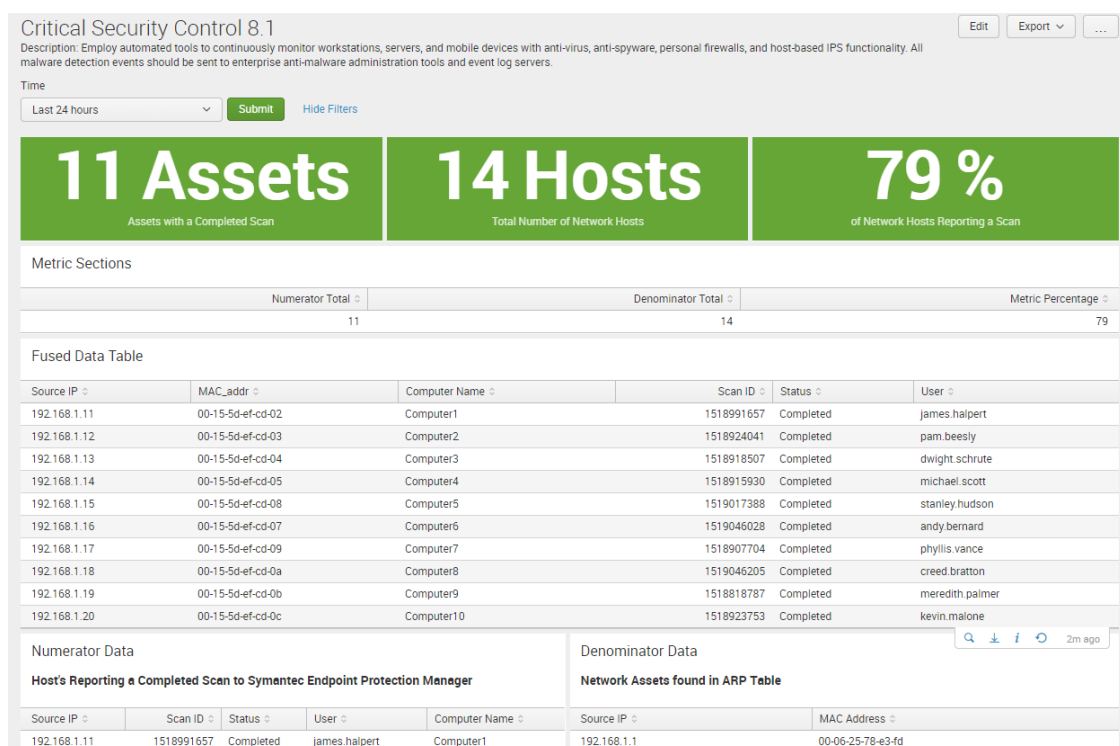


Figure 12: CSC 8.1 Splunk Dashboard

Fused Data Table

One challenge in data fusion is correlating unrelated data sources. In cybersecurity, this correlation often happens on the IP address or MAC Address of an asset. These identifiers are commonly found in logs, making them ideal correlation fields. MAC Address offers better correlation reliability because of its static nature. IP Addresses frequently change if an organization is utilizing DHCP. Nevertheless, IP address correlation can exist if the timestamps of the log events are relative in their proximity. For this dashboard, the fused data table, shown in **Table 12**, is correlated based on IP address in **Figure 13**. Because the MAC Address is present in the ARP table, data fusion techniques provide the ability to include that information with the SEP log data. The result is a data table that includes data from two sources correlated on a unified identifier.

```
index=arp type=dynamic | table src_ip, MAC_addr | join src_ip [search index=sepm
source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp" AND status="Completed" | dedup src_ip | table src_ip, status,
scan_id, user2, computer_name] | sort src_ip | rename user2 AS "User", computer_name AS "Computer
Name", scan_id AS "Scan ID", src_ip AS "Source IP", status AS "Status"
```

Figure 13: CSC 8.1 Data Correlation Query

Source IP	MAC Address	Scan ID	Status	User	Computer Name
192.168.1.11	00-15-5d-ef-cd-02	1518991657	Completed	james.halpert	Computer1
192.168.1.12	00-15-5d-ef-cd-03	1518924041	Completed	pam.beesly	Computer2
192.168.1.13	00-15-5d-ef-cd-04	1518918507	Completed	dwight.schrute	Computer3
192.168.1.14	00-15-5d-ef-cd-05	1518915930	Completed	michael.scott	Computer4
192.168.1.15	00-15-5d-ef-cd-08	1519017388	Completed	stanley.hudson	Computer5
192.168.1.16	00-15-5d-ef-cd-07	1519046028	Completed	andy.bernard	Computer6
192.168.1.17	00-15-5d-ef-cd-09	1518907704	Completed	phyllis.vance	Computer7
192.168.1.18	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0a	1519046205	Completed	creed.bratton	Computer8
192.168.1.19	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0b	1518818787	Completed	meredith.palmer	Computer9
192.168.1.20	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0c	1518923753	Completed	kevin.malone	Computer10

Table 12: CSC 8.1 Fused Data Table

Dashboard Value to Stakeholder

As discussed, this dashboard is built to offer a high level overview of anti-virus/anti-malware policy effectiveness. The primary banner in the dashboard covers the integers that make up the numerator and the denominator, while providing the top level percentage measurement. This would provide an executive or a manager the ability to quickly monitor the continued effectiveness of a policy. Having this knowledge, a strategic decision maker is better informed to make risk decisions. These decisions shape the technologies and resources invested into information security. While this dashboard intended for at a strategic decision maker, it is not without value to a systems administrator. A fused data table is also present in a panel. This

provides a systems administrator greater situation awareness into his or her assets because a MAC address is not present in anti-virus/anti-malware logs.

Implementing Critical Security Control 8.2

To implement Critical Security Control 8.2 two primary data sources were needed, identical to Critical Security Control 8.1. The first was SEPM which provided the log data for the anti-virus/anti-malware update activity. The second data source was the local network's ARP cache.

Numerator Measurement of Anti-Virus/Anti-Malware Update Logs

When the client software looks for a malware definitions update, that activity is logged. These logs provided a number of valuable fields that could be measured. The computer name was the primary field used for identification and correlation. A sample log depicting a completed anti-virus/anti-malware update is seen in **Figure 14**.

2018-02-20 21:59:13,Info,Computer1,Category: 2,LiveUpdate Manager,An update for Virus and Spyware Definitions SDS Win32 (Reduced) was successfully installed. The new sequence number is 180220009.

Figure 14: A Sample Symantec Endpoint Protection Client Update Log Entry

Manual field extraction occurred on the log agt_system.tmp. **Table 13** lists each indexed field and the correlating identifier in the raw log.

Indexed Field Name	Raw Log Field
computer_name	(event host name not titled in log)
description	(log message not titled in raw log)
category	Category

Table 13: Field Extractions for Symantec Endpoint Protection Client Update Logs

Once these logs were ingested and indexed, searching and dashboard development was able to take place. A table was built to easily showcase the information relevant for situation awareness. The following query in **Figure 15** was built in Splunk to produce the results shown in **Table 14**. **Table 14** is only a portion of the table, the remainder of the table is very similar for the other hosts.

```
index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_system.tmp" | table computer_name, description | stats values(description)
AS Updates BY computer_name | sort computer_name
```

Figure 15: Splunk Query to Produce

Computer Name	Updates
Computer1	"Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager is available to provide updates, so the scheduled LiveUpdate was skipped A LiveUpdate session ran successfully An update for Intrusion Prevention Signatures was An update for Revocation Data from LiveUpdate An update for Revocation Data was successfully An update for SONAR Definitions was successfully An update for Virus and Spyware Definitions Downloaded new content update from the management server successfully.
Computer10	"Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager is available to provide updates, so the scheduled LiveUpdate was skipped A LiveUpdate session ran successfully An update for Intrusion Prevention Signatures was An update for Revocation Data from LiveUpdate An update for Revocation Data was successfully An update for SONAR Definitions from LiveUpdate An update for SONAR Definitions was successfully An update for Virus and Spyware Definitions Downloaded new content update from the management server successfully.

Table 14: Numerator Table for CSC 8.2

After development of **Table 14**, a total count of hosts reporting a scan could be totaled. This total would be the integer for the numerator of CSC 8.1 metric. **Figure 16** lists the query in Splunk to determine the total count.

```
(index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR (index=main) | dedup src_ip | stats dc(src_ip) | rename
dc(src_ip) AS "Total number of hosts with a completed scan"
```

Figure 16: Splunk Query to Determine Numerator Total

Denominator Measurement of ARP Cache

The measurement for the denominator of CSC 8.2 is identical to that of CSC 8.1 denominator.

CSC 8.2 Metric Result

Similarly to the CSC 8.1 metric, the percentage of clients on the network that conducted an antivirus definition update could be measured, as seen in **Figure 17**. The numerator data provided us with a total number of hosts having conducted an anti-virus/anti-malware definitions update. The denominator provided us with a total number of assets on the network. The division of these two integers provides the percentage, or the top level metric to measure Critical Security Control 8.2, as seen in **Equation 7**.

```
index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_system.tmp" | stats dc(computer_name) AS total_numerator
| appendcols [search index=arp type=dynamic | stats dc(src_ip) AS total_denominator] | eval
metric_percentage=total_numerator / total_denominator | eval metric_percentage
=round(metric_percentage*100) | table metric_percentage | rename metric_percentage AS "8.2 Metric"
```

Figure 17: Splunk Query to Determine Top Level Measurement

$$\frac{\text{Numerator Integer}}{\text{Denominator Integer}} * 100 = \text{Top Level Metric Percentage}$$

$$\frac{11}{14} * 100 = 79\%$$

Equation 7: Metric Result from Implementation of CSC 8.2

Splunk Dashboard

As done with CSC 8.1, a Splunk dashboard was created that shared many of the same features including a time picker and metric banners. The metric banner features three panels

across the top of the numerator metric, the denominator metric, and the top level percentage measurement shown in **Figure 18**. Unique to this dashboard is another banner below these three; this additional banner presents the top level metric differently. Instead of a percentage, it displays the actual number of machines not reporting an update to the Manager. This provides a systems administrator increased situational awareness to the tasks relevant to his or her job. Below that table is a fused table of the metric numerator and denominator data. Below that table are the individual tables of each metric that have not been fused. Images and source code are found in Appendix A.

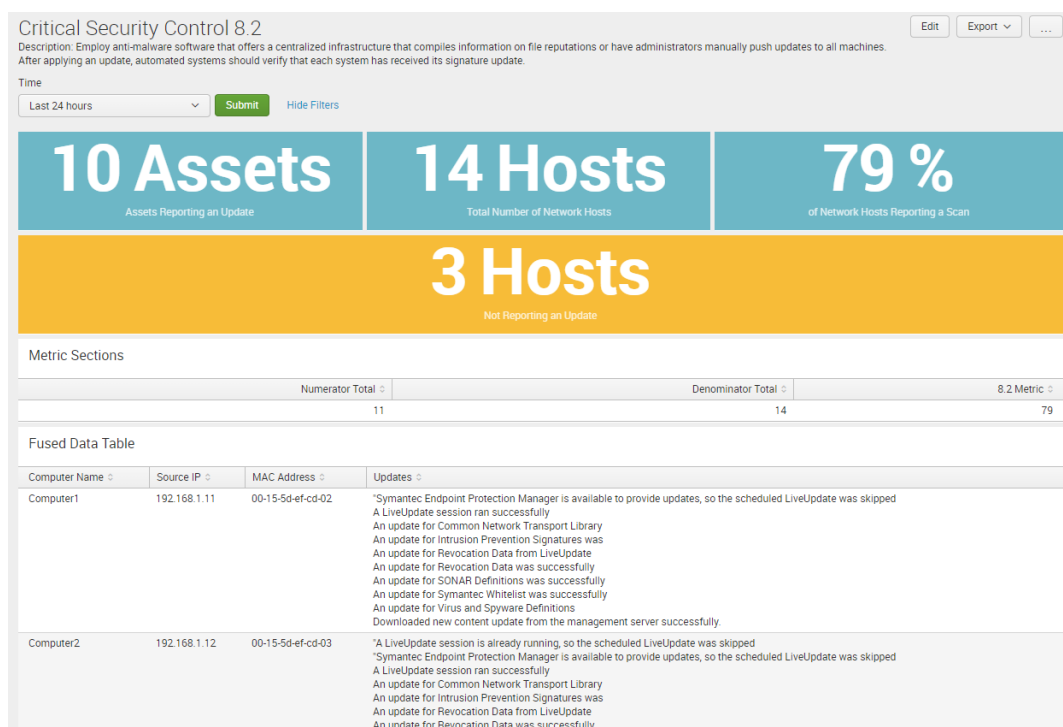


Figure 18: CSC 8.2 Splunk Dashboard

Fused Data Table

As discussed, data fusion correlation can be a difficult challenge when logs do not share a unique identifier. This is the case in the implementation of CSC 8.2. The SEPM update logs

provide a computer name and the update that occurred. The ARP table features IP and MAC addresses identifiers. To accomplish level one JDL data correlation, another log source is needed. While the SEPM update logs do not identify an IP Address or MAC Address, they do provide a computer name. The SEPM scan logs also provide the computer name of a host, along with the IP address and MAC address. These logs provide the ability to correlate the computer name to IP address and MAC address. Once that correlation occurs, it can be integrated into the SEPM update logs, providing greater situation awareness. **Figure 19** lists the query that accomplishes this data correlation by using two sub searches within the outer search. **Table 15** shows a partial result of from the query described. The remainder of the table is highly similar.

```
index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_system.tmp" | table computer_name, description | stats values(description)
AS Updates by computer_name | join computer_name [search index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files
(x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp" | dedup src_ip |
table src_ip, computer_name] | join src_ip [search index=arp type=dynamic | table src_ip, MAC_addr] |
table computer_name, src_ip, MAC_addr, Updates | sort src_ip | rename computer_name AS
"Computer Name", src_ip AS "Source IP", MAC_addr AS "MAC Address"
```

Figure 19: CSC 8.2 Data Correlation Query

Computer Name	Source IP	MAC Address	Updates
Computer1	192.168.1.11	00-15-5d-ef-cd-02	"Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager is available to provide updates, so the scheduled LiveUpdate was skipped A LiveUpdate session ran successfully An update for Intrusion Prevention Signatures was An update for Revocation Data from LiveUpdate An update for Revocation Data was successfully An update for SONAR Definitions was successfully An update for Virus and Spyware Definitions Downloaded new content update from the management server successfully.
Computer10	192.168.1.12	00-15-5d-ef-cd-03	"Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager is available to provide updates, so the scheduled LiveUpdate was skipped A LiveUpdate session ran successfully An update for Intrusion Prevention Signatures was An update for Revocation Data from LiveUpdate An update for Revocation Data was successfully An update for SONAR Definitions from LiveUpdate An update for SONAR Definitions was successfully An update for Virus and Spyware Definitions Downloaded new content update from the management server successfully.

Table 15: CSC 8.2 Fused Data Table

Dashboard Value to Stakeholder

While the dashboard for CSC 8.1 was built for a strategic decision maker, the dashboard for CSC 8.2 was built for a systems administrator. As mentioned, the blue banner features contextualized, actionable information to a systems administrator, rather than simply a percentage. A simple query could be developed to determine the MAC addresses that are not present in the fused data table (i.e. not reporting an update to SEPM). This would allow a systems administrator to know which machines need troubleshooting. The next section will cover two scenarios where actionable information is presented to a systems administrator.

Metric Use Case Examples

Authorized & Unauthorized Machines

The fused data table can easily be modified to present log entries that did not find a match between the anti-virus update logs and the ARP cache log. This would indicate an asset that is not compliant with the organizational policy of receiving daily anti-virus updates. This query, shown in **Figure 20**, produces a table, shown in **Table 16**, that highlights four noncompliant network assets. With this information, a systems administrator would now have a list of assets for investigation. This investigation, which would identify that of the four noncompliant devices, one is a router that needs to be whitelisted, two are authorized servers that are noncompliant with the anti-virus update policy, and one is a rogue unauthorized network device. This metric implementation provided actionable information to a systems administrator looking to secure the network.

```
index=arp type=dynamic | table src_ip, MAC_addr | join type=outer src_ip [search index=sepm
source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp" AND status="Completed" | dedup src_ip] | sort src_ip | where
isnull(computer_name) | table src_ip, MAC_addr | rename src_ip AS "Source IP", MAC_addr AS
"MAC Address"
```

Figure 20: Noncompliant Network Assets Query

Source IP	MAC Address
192.168.1.1	00-06-25-78-e3-fd
192.168.1.6	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0d
192.168.1.7	00-15-5d-ef-cd-0e
192.168.1.70	5c-f9-dd-6e-31-0f

Table 16: Noncompliant Network Assets

Network Outage

When an organization is able to measure its defenses, the ability to spot major anomalies or outages can occur. Splunk provides the ability to do real-time indexing and searching. This provides the ability to monitor for network or application outages. An example of the dashboard in an outage can be seen in **Figure 21**.

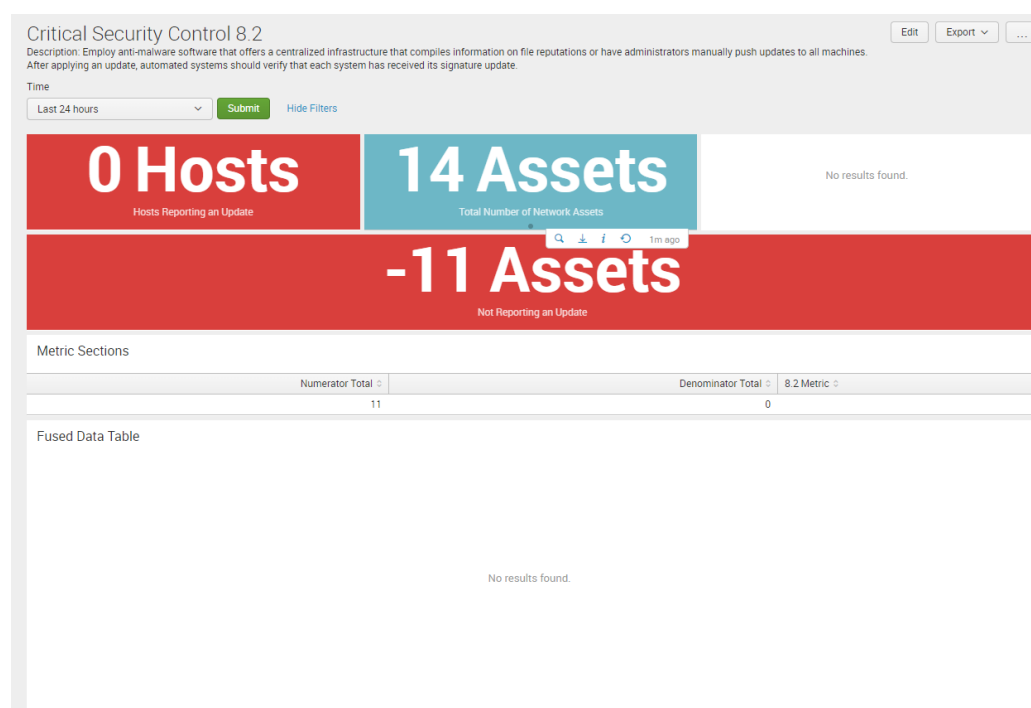


Figure 21: Splunk Dashboard during a Network Outage

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

The following chapter will review the research question and the methodology around creating metrics. Then this chapter will discuss the value derived from the implementation of these metrics in the ABC.local network. Upon reviewing this, this research's contribution and limitations and future work will be discussed.

Discussion

This research sought to advance the literature on how to measure Critical Security Controls. A host of reasons make this a difficult challenge and one that has not been well studied. This research presented six metrics to measure each of the sub controls in Critical Security Control 8: Malware Defenses. Each of these metrics offered quantitative measurements to validate and track compliance with the best practices outlined in the CSCs. Each of these metrics were described in detail around the potential data sources needed to effectively measure the control.

There is a current need in the cybersecurity industry and research space for quantitative measurements of our security taxonomies. While this research does not seek to define why the Critical Security Controls should be the standard, it none the less uses it a basis to build measurement into the output of the taxonomy. The hope is that a standard measurement taxonomy grows out of this work. A standard measurement taxonomy would allow industry and researchers to work to integrate measurement into our collective understanding of cybersecurity.

Why Data Fusion is Important

This work offers an implementation of metrics from cross silo data sources. For an organization to effectively measure security, numerous data sources are needed. Often, these data sources do not share ubiquitous fields in every log type. Firewall logs may offer an IP address as the major event correlator, while host based IPS logs may only provide a hostname. To use multiple different data sources, a firm grasp in data fusion technologies are needed. Data fusion techniques had traditionally been utilized in the RF environments and signal analysis. Within the past ten years, new data fusion techniques have been developed for the cyber domain that allow for correlation of cross silo data sources. A silo represents a common application or security tool such as firewall, proxy, or IDS/IPS. Cross silo data correlation increases potential to holistically understand what is occurring on a network.

Seeking to measure security using single silo or data in isolation will produce misleading or inaccurate results. This is because of the limited view of a single silo of data. While firewall logs may offer insight into the delivery of a malicious file, it cannot identify if a malicious file was opened and installed on a host. This same logic applies to determining the number of hosts on a network who received an antivirus/anti-malware scan. If an organization seeks to measure compliance against the number of known and accounted for hosts in the anti-virus management tool, it is misled in its calculation. A host can be present on a network and not connected to the anti-virus management tool. This highlights the importance of data fusion of cross silo data sources from security logs and the dangers of relying on a single source of data in measuring cybersecurity in an organization.

Potential to Increase Situation Awareness

Metrics that are built from cross silo data sources provide the potential to increase situation awareness to strategic decision makers, as well as, systems administrators. Metrics offer value to a wide array of stakeholders. Few initiatives in an organization offer the potential to increase situation awareness in a strategic decision maker and a systems administrator. As is previously mentioned, a good metric is geared toward a particular audience and provides actionable information.

A Chief Information Security Officer (CISO) is better informed when his/her organization has implemented metrics that are tracked over time. As attacks change and new products hit the market every month, a strategic decision maker who is informed by metrics is able to more clearly determine gaps or weaknesses in their environment. If the backend infrastructure to an anti-virus/anti-malware tool is struggling to communicate with the number of hosts required by an organization, a metric such as CSC 8.2 provides for the ability to spot a trend in declining number of host with an update 24 hours after it was released. Having the ability to spot trends is the mark of an expert according to Endsley & Garland (2000). While metrics do not create experts, they provide the data for an expert to be well informed.

Metrics provide a systems administrator the ability to measure, in real time, the compliance of their network. This is a valuable resource that can help increase the situation awareness of a systems administrator. The real time status of compliance is a not the only value from metrics. Metrics are able to offer actionable information for investigation. As seen in the Splunk dashboard implementation of CSC 8.2, the number of hosts that have not received an update is clearly presented to a systems administrator. This actionable information allows a systems administrator to investigate and resolve any outstanding issues. This in turn increases security across their organizations network.

A Guide to Help Implement Measurement

Vaarandi & Pihelgas (2014) and Narang & Mehrotra (2010) highlight that much of the work in security metrics fails to offer detailed implementation guides to assist researchers and security practitioners. A primary objective of this research was to develop six metrics to measure Critical Security Controls and offer a proof of concept on how to implement two of these metrics that were created.

Chapter 4 provides a detailed process on the implementation of CSC 8.1 and 8.2. This implementation provides the policies required in the centralized anti-virus manager and the collection and manipulation of the anti-virus/anti-malware logging data. This work offers an organization a starting point on how to implement metrics in their organization. This work is a valuable resource to organizations and the security research community who can build on this work with the development of other metrics that are accompanied by a detailed implementation guide.

Contributions

This research has practical and theoretical implications. This research contributions theoretically to the discussion around measuring security within a security taxonomy. Further contribution includes, six new metrics for Critical Security Controls. This research can help the theoretical development of data fusion best practices in the cybersecurity subject area and the development of integrating measurement into the output of data fusion. Each of the implemented metrics featured a dashboard and a fused data table in Splunk. The queries for these tables can be found in **Figure 13** and **Figure 19**. The source code for each of the dashboards can be found in **Appendix: Source Code for Splunk Dashboards**.

On a practical level, this research serves as a proof of concept on how to measure the success of an organization at meeting cybersecurity standards. This research offers insight into measuring controls in a taxonomy, while other taxonomies can be used, this research used the CIS Critical Security Controls as the standard taxonomy.

This research pushes the security metrics domain to be practical and technical, a current shortfall in the existing research. The hope is that offering research that is practical and technical will drive other researchers to develop metrics that quantifiably measure security and express, in technical detail, how to accomplish the implementation of their metric design.

Limitations

There are a number of limitations to this research. The first limitation in the implementation is the size of the network. Implementation of the developed metrics occurred in a network with 10 workstations and two servers, in a virtualized environment. This would mirror a small business. In a Fortune 100 computer network, with potentially a few hundred thousand networking assets, the ease of implementation will vary greatly.

Another limitation in this research is the assumption that an organization will possess the desired and required logging data sources, with an ability to index and manipulate the log information. This is relatively easy in a network with less than 15 assets, but a significantly larger challenge financially to store and index such large amounts of data.

When measuring the number of hosts on a network through the ARP cache a limitation exists. An ARP cache only has visibility into traffic crossing the router. There is the possibility that a network host is operating on a network but does not cross a routing device. This is largely dependent on a network's architecture.

Future Work

This work is a starting point for measuring the Critical Security Controls, as only one of the twenty controls are created/implemented. Other researchers can build on this research by developing and implementing metrics for each of the remaining critical security controls, as seen in **Figure 22**. While all of the controls are important, CSC 1 is an ideal starting spot moving forward. CSC 1 covers inventory of authorized and unauthorized devices. It is of vital importance that security practitioners have an answer to the question of “who is on my network?” This research offers techniques that can be utilized for determining the number of clients active on a network.

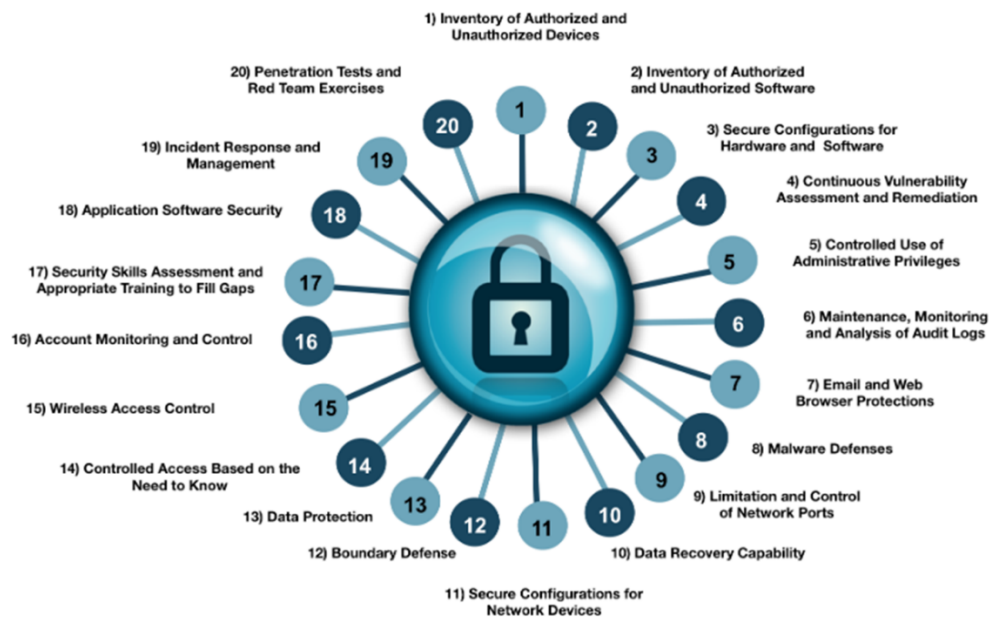


Figure 22: All Twenty of the Critical Security Controls

Conclusion

Chapter one examined the reasoning behind why measuring security is hard. A lack of consensus in defining security and a standard taxonomy to use in measurement are discussed. Along with this, discussion around human limitations in cybersecurity, visibility into systems, and changing techniques of attackers occur. These aspects play a role in the lack of advancement made to measuring cybersecurity over the last decade.

Chapter two reviewed literature from three domains; security metrics, situation awareness, particularly of the cyber subject area, and multisensor data fusion and the JDL Data Fusion Process Model. This review outlines how each of these domains assist each other in this work.

Chapter three explains the creation of six metrics within the CIS Critical Security Controls. The six metrics are members of CSC 8: Malware Defenses. This CSC is a set of controls to combat malware on systems. Provided are description of each of the controls and a corresponding measurement.

Chapter four cover the implementation of metrics for CSC 8.1 and 8.2. This research developed a computer network with Symantec Endpoint Protection and Splunk deployed on the network. Collection and measurement of the data from Symantec Endpoint Protection occurred in Splunk, where dashboards displayed each metric. Along with this, a discussion around the value of metric dashboards to strategic decision makers and systems administrators was highlighted.

Chapter five outlines the discoveries and benefits from this research. This research provides theoretical and practical contributions to the ongoing discussion around measuring security. The small scale these metrics were implemented in limits this research. Future work highlights the need to provide metrics and implementations for each of the twenty Critical Security Controls.

In conclusion, this research seeks to explore how measuring Critical Security Controls, through data fusion of security logs, have the potential to increase situation awareness to strategic decision makers, and systems administrators. Metrics are created for each of the sub controls for Critical Security Control 8: Malware Defenses. An implementation of CSC 8.1 and 8.2 provides a proof of concept for the feasibility and benefits of implementing measuring into security.

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Appendix: Source Code for Splunk Dashboards

Critical Security Control 8.1 Dashboard Source Code

```

<form>
  <label>Critical Security Control 8.1</label>
  <description>Description: Employ automated tools to continuously monitor workstations, servers, and mobile devices with anti-virus, anti-spyware, personal firewalls, and host-based IPS functionality. All malware detection events should be sent to enterprise anti-malware administration tools and event log servers.</description>
  <fieldset submitButton="true">
    <input type="time" token="varTime" searchWhenChanged="true">
      <label>Time</label>
      <default>
        <earliest>-24h@h</earliest>
        <latest>now</latest>
      </default>
    </input>
  </fieldset>
  <row>
    <panel>
      <single>
        <search>
          <query>(index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR (index=main) | dedup src_ip | stats dc(src_ip) | rename dc(src_ip) as "Total number of hosts with a completed scan"</query>
          <earliest>$varTime.earliest</earliest>
          <latest>$varTime.latest</latest>
          <sampleRatio>1</sampleRatio>
        </search>
        <option name="colorBy">value</option>
        <option name="colorMode">block</option>
        <option name="drilldown">none</option>
        <option name="numberPrecision">0</option>
        <option name="rangeColors">["0xd93f3c","0xf7bc38","0x65a637"]</option>
        <option name="rangeValues">[5,7]</option>
        <option name="showSparkline">1</option>
        <option name="showTrendIndicator">1</option>
        <option name="trellis.enabled">0</option>
        <option name="trellis.scales.shared">1</option>
        <option name="trellis.size">large</option>
        <option name="trendColorInterpretation">standard</option>
        <option name="trendDisplayMode">absolute</option>
        <option name="underLabel">Hosts with a Completed Scan</option>
        <option name="unit">Hosts</option>
        <option name="unitPosition">after</option>
        <option name="useColors">1</option>
        <option name="useThousandSeparators">1</option>
      </single>
    </panel>
    <panel>
      <single>
        <search>
          <query>index=arp type=dynamic | stats dc(src_ip) | rename dc(src_ip) as "Total Number of Network Assets"</query>

```

```

    <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
    <latest>now</latest>
  </search>
  <option name="colorMode">block</option>
  <option name="drilldown">none</option>
  <option name="rangeColors">["0x65a637","0x65a637"]</option>
  <option name="rangeValues">[0]</option>
  <option name="trellis.enabled">0</option>
  <option name="trellis.size">large</option>
  <option name="underLabel">Total Number of Network Assets</option>
  <option name="unit">Assets</option>
  <option name="useColors">1</option>
</single>
</panel>
<panel>
  <single>
    <search>
      <query>index=arp type=dynamic | stats dc(src_ip) as total_denominator | table total_denominator | table
total_numerator, total_denominator | join src_ip [search (index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files
(x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR (index=main) | dedup
src_ip| where src_ip!="IP Address" | stats dc(src_ip) as total_numerator | table total_numerator] | eval
metric_percentage=total_numerator / total_denominator | eval metric_percentage =round(metric_percentage*100) |
table metric_percentage | rename metric_percentage as "8.1 Metric"</query>
      <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
      <latest>now</latest>
    </search>
    <option name="colorMode">block</option>
    <option name="drilldown">none</option>
    <option name="rangeColors">["0x65a637","0x65a637","0x65a637"]</option>
    <option name="rangeValues">[50,75]</option>
    <option name="trellis.enabled">0</option>
    <option name="trellis.size">large</option>
    <option name="underLabel">of Network Assets Reporting a Scan</option>
    <option name="unit">%</option>
    <option name="useColors">1</option>
  </single>
</panel>
</row>
<row>
  <panel>
    <title>Metric Sections</title>
    <table>
      <search>
        <query>index=arp type=dynamic | stats dc(src_ip) as total_denominator | table total_denominator | table
total_numerator, total_denominator | join src_ip [search (index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files
(x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR (index=main)| dedup
src_ip| where src_ip!="IP Address" | stats dc(src_ip) as total_numerator | table total_numerator] | table
total_numerator, total_denominator | eval metric_percentage=total_numerator / total_denominator | eval
metric_percentage =round(metric_percentage*100) | rename total_numerator as "Numerator Total",
total_denominator as "Denominator Total", metric_percentage as "Metric Percentage"</query>
        <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
        <latest>now</latest>
      </search>
      <option name="drilldown">none</option>
    </table>
  </panel>
</row>
<row>
  <panel>
    <title>Fused Data Table</title>

```

```

<table>
  <search>
    <query>index=arp type=dynamic | table src_ip, MAC_addr | join src_ip [search index=sepm
source="C:\Program Files (x86)\Symantec\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\data\dump\agt_scan.tmp"
AND status="Completed" | dedup src_ip | table src_ip, status, scan_id, user2, computer_name] | sort src_ip | rename
user2 as "User", computer_name as "Computer Name", scan_id as "Scan ID", src_ip as "Source IP", status as
"Status"</query>
    <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
    <latest>now</latest>
    <sampleRatio>1</sampleRatio>
  </search>
  <option name="count">20</option>
  <option name="dataOverlayMode">none</option>
  <option name="drilldown">none</option>
  <option name="percentagesRow">>false</option>
  <option name="rowNumbers">>false</option>
  <option name="totalsRow">>false</option>
  <option name="wrap">>true</option>
</table>
</panel>
</row>
<row>
  <panel>
    <title>Numerator Data</title>
    <table>
      <title>Host's Reporting a Completed Scan to Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager</title>
      <search>
        <query>index=sepm source="C:\Program Files (x86)\Symantec\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\data\dump\agt_scan.tmp" AND status="Completed" | dedup src_ip | table src_ip, scan_id, status,
user2, computer_name | where src_ip!="IP Address" | sort src_ip | rename user2 as "User", computer_name as
"Computer Name", scan_id as "Scan ID", src_ip as "Source IP", status as "Status"</query>
        <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
        <latest>now</latest>
        <sampleRatio>1</sampleRatio>
      </search>
      <option name="count">20</option>
      <option name="dataOverlayMode">none</option>
      <option name="drilldown">none</option>
      <option name="percentagesRow">>false</option>
      <option name="rowNumbers">>false</option>
      <option name="totalsRow">>false</option>
      <option name="wrap">>true</option>
    </table>
  </panel>
  <panel>
    <title>Denominator Data</title>
    <table>
      <title>Network Assets found in ARP Table</title>
      <search>
        <query>index=arp type=dynamic | table src_ip, MAC_addr | sort src_ip | rename src_ip as "Source IP",
MAC_addr as "MAC Address"</query>
        <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
        <latest>now</latest>
        <sampleRatio>1</sampleRatio>
      </search>
      <option name="count">20</option>
      <option name="dataOverlayMode">none</option>
      <option name="drilldown">none</option>
      <option name="percentagesRow">>false</option>
      <option name="rowNumbers">>false</option>
    </table>
  </panel>

```

```

    <option name="totalsRow">false</option>
    <option name="wrap">true</option>
  </table>
</panel>
</row>
</form>

```

Critical Security Control 8.2 Dashboard Source Code

```

<form>
<label>Critical Security Control 8.1</label>
<description>Description: Employ automated tools to continuously monitor workstations, servers, and mobile
devices with anti-virus, anti-spyware, personal firewalls, and host-based IPS functionality. All malware detection
events should be sent to enterprise anti-malware administration tools and event log servers.</description>
<fieldset submitButton="true">
  <input type="time" token="varTime" searchWhenChanged="true">
    <label>Time</label>
    <default>
      <earliest>-24h@h</earliest>
      <latest>now</latest>
    </default>
  </input>
</fieldset>
<row>
  <panel>
    <single>
      <search>
        <query>(index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files (x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR (index=main) | dedup src_ip | stats dc(src_ip) | rename dc(src_ip) as "Total
number of hosts with a completed scan"</query>
        <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
        <latest>now</latest>
        <sampleRatio>1</sampleRatio>
      </search>
      <option name="colorBy">value</option>
      <option name="colorMode">block</option>
      <option name="drilldown">none</option>
      <option name="numberPrecision">0</option>
      <option name="rangeColors">["0xd93f3c","0xf7bc38","0x65a637"]</option>
      <option name="rangeValues">[5,7]</option>
      <option name="showSparkline">1</option>
      <option name="showTrendIndicator">1</option>
      <option name="trellis.enabled">0</option>
      <option name="trellis.scales.shared">1</option>
      <option name="trellis.size">large</option>
      <option name="trendColorInterpretation">standard</option>
      <option name="trendDisplayMode">absolute</option>
      <option name="underLabel">Assets with a Completed Scan</option>
      <option name="unit">Assets</option>
      <option name="unitPosition">after</option>
      <option name="useColors">1</option>
      <option name="useThousandSeparators">1</option>
    </single>
  </panel>
</row>

```

```

</panel>
<panel>
  <single>
    <search>
      <query>index=arp type=dynamic | stats dc(src_ip) | rename dc(src_ip) as "Total Number of Network
Hosts"</query>
      <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
      <latest>now</latest>
    </search>
    <option name="colorMode">block</option>
    <option name="drilldown">none</option>
    <option name="rangeColors">["0x65a637","0x65a637"]</option>
    <option name="rangeValues">[0]</option>
    <option name="trellis.enabled">0</option>
    <option name="trellis.size">large</option>
    <option name="underLabel">Total Number of Network Hosts</option>
    <option name="unit">Hosts</option>
    <option name="useColors">1</option>
  </single>
</panel>
<panel>
  <single>
    <search>
      <query>index=arp type=dynamic | stats dc(src_ip) as total_denominator | table total_denominator | table
total_numerator, total_denominator | join src_ip [search (index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files
(x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR (index=main) | dedup
src_ip| where src_ip!="IP Address" | stats dc(src_ip) as total_numerator | table total_numerator] | eval
metric_percentage=total_numerator / total_denominator | eval metric_percentage =round(metric_percentage*100) |
table metric_percentage | rename metric_percentage as "8.1 Metric"</query>
      <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
      <latest>now</latest>
    </search>
    <option name="colorMode">block</option>
    <option name="drilldown">none</option>
    <option name="rangeColors">["0x65a637","0x65a637","0x65a637"]</option>
    <option name="rangeValues">[50,75]</option>
    <option name="trellis.enabled">0</option>
    <option name="trellis.size">large</option>
    <option name="underLabel">of Network Hosts Reporting a Scan</option>
    <option name="unit">%</option>
    <option name="useColors">1</option>
  </single>
</panel>
</row>
<row>
  <panel>
    <title>Metric Sections</title>
    <table>
      <search>
        <query>index=arp type=dynamic | stats dc(src_ip) as total_denominator | table total_denominator | table
total_numerator, total_denominator | join src_ip [search (index=sepm source="C:\\Program Files
(x86)\\Symantec\\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\\data\\dump\\agt_scan.tmp") OR (index=main)| dedup
src_ip| where src_ip!="IP Address" | stats dc(src_ip) as total_numerator | table total_numerator] | table
total_numerator, total_denominator | eval metric_percentage=total_numerator / total_denominator | eval
metric_percentage =round(metric_percentage*100) | rename total_numerator as "Numerator Total",
total_denominator as "Denominator Total", metric_percentage as "Metric Percentage"</query>
        <earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
        <latest>now</latest>
      </search>
      <option name="drilldown">none</option>

```



```

</table>
</panel>
</row>
<row>
<panel>
<title>Fused Data Table</title>
<table>
<search>
<query>index=arp type=dynamic | table src_ip, MAC_addr | join src_ip [search index=sepm
source="C:\Program Files (x86)\Symantec\Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager\data\dump\agt_scan.tmp"
AND status="Completed" | dedup src_ip | table src_ip, status, scan_id, user2, computer_name] | sort src_ip | rename
user2 as "User", computer_name as "Computer Name", scan_id as "Scan ID", src_ip as "Source IP", status as
"Status"</query>
<earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
<latest>now</latest>
<sampleRatio>1</sampleRatio>
</search>
<option name="count">20</option>
<option name="dataOverlayMode">none</option>
<option name="drilldown">none</option>
<option name="percentagesRow">>false</option>
<option name="rowNumbers">>false</option>
<option name="totalsRow">>false</option>
<option name="wrap">>true</option>
</table>
</panel>
</row>
<row>
<panel>
<title>Numerator Data</title>
<table>
<title>Host's Reporting a Completed Scan to Symantec Endpoint Protection Manager</title>
<search>
<query>index=sepm source="C:\Program Files (x86)\Symantec\Symantec Endpoint Protection
Manager\data\dump\agt_scan.tmp" AND status="Completed" | dedup src_ip | table src_ip, scan_id, status,
user2, computer_name | where src_ip!="IP Address" | sort src_ip | rename user2 as "User", computer_name as
"Computer Name", scan_id as "Scan ID", src_ip as "Source IP", status as "Status"</query>
<earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
<latest>now</latest>
<sampleRatio>1</sampleRatio>
</search>
<option name="count">20</option>
<option name="dataOverlayMode">none</option>
<option name="drilldown">none</option>
<option name="percentagesRow">>false</option>
<option name="rowNumbers">>false</option>
<option name="totalsRow">>false</option>
<option name="wrap">>true</option>
</table>
</panel>
<panel>
<title>Denominator Data</title>
<table>
<title>Network Assets found in ARP Table</title>
<search>
<query>index=arp type=dynamic | table src_ip, MAC_addr | sort src_ip | rename src_ip as "Source IP",
MAC_addr as "MAC Address"</query>
<earliest>-7d@h</earliest>
<latest>now</latest>
<sampleRatio>1</sampleRatio>

```

```
</search>
<option name="count">20</option>
<option name="dataOverlayMode">none</option>
<option name="drilldown">none</option>
<option name="percentagesRow">>false</option>
<option name="rowNumbers">>false</option>
<option name="totalsRow">>false</option>
<option name="wrap">>true</option>
</table>
</panel>
</row>
</form>
```

ACADEMIC VITA

Academic Vita of Matthew Kennedy
mkennedy@psu.edu

Education

M.S. in Information Sciences and Technology

B.S. in Security and Risk Analysis

Honors: Security and Risk Analysis

Thesis Title: Data Fusion of Security Logs to Measure Critical Security Controls to Increase Situation Awareness

Thesis Supervisor: Dr. Nicklaus Giacobe

Work Experience

May 2017- August 2017

Cyber Intelligence Analyst

Analyst in the LM-CIRT conducting incident response with experience in command line tools, Splunk, and building detections to actively defend one of the world's largest computer networks Institution/Company.
Lockheed Martin

Awards:

RSA Security Scholar

National Cyber Analyst Challenge Gold Award Professional Memberships:

Professional Memberships:

RSA

Community Service Involvement:

President, the Penn State Navigators, a Christian Campus Ministry