A Stealth Approach to Usable Security: Helping IT Security Managers to Identify Workable Security Solutions

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ABSTRACT
Recent advances in the research of usable security have produced many new security mechanisms that improve usability. However, these mechanisms have not been widely adopted in practice. In most organisations, IT security managers decide on security policies and mechanisms, seemingly without considering usability. IT security managers consider risk reduction and the business impact of information security controls, but not the impact that controls have on users. Rather than trying to remind security managers of usability, we present a new paradigm – a stealth approach which incorporates the impact of security controls on users' productivity and willingness to comply into business impact and risk reduction. During two 2-hour sessions, 3 IT security managers discussed with us mock-up tool prototypes that embody these principles, alongside a range of potential usage scenarios (e.g. cloud-based password-cracking attacks and "hot-desking" initiatives). Our tool design process elicits findings to help develop mechanisms to visualise these tradeoffs.

Categories and Subject Descriptors
H.1.2 [**Models and Principles**]: Human/Machine Systems – *human factors, human information processing.* C.2.0 [**Computer Communication Networks**] General –*security and protection*

General Terms
Management, Security, Human Factors.

Keywords
Information security, usability, security policies, passwords

1. INTRODUCTION
Over the past 10 years, there has been a significant body of research focused on improving the usability of security mechanisms (e.g. [23], [24], [25]).

Some effort has been made to understand the nature of usability problems with existing authentication mechanisms, such as passwords. Adams & Sasse's "Users are not the Enemy" [6] detailed how users were struggling with the number and complexity of passwords, and the impact of these problems on their productivity and attitudes to security. Since then, significant effort has been dedicated to providing alternative, more usable authentication mechanisms. These range from graphical authentication mechanisms (e.g. [27], [29], [30]), to video authentication (e.g. [31]), to more unusual forms of authentication through brainwaves [32] and singing at the computer [33]. Commercially, there has been significant investment in biometrics to replace passwords with authentication via fingerprints.

However, most of this research effort and commercial investment has made little difference in practice. In a recent study on password use in organisations [34] it was found that, 10 years after the "Users Are Not the Enemy" paper, little has changed: single sign-on is at best partially implemented, there are short timeouts on services leading to a need for frequent re-authentication, and users are still required to generate complex passwords without regard to how it addresses the real threats.

Enforced password changes interrupt users at inconvenient times; they have to expend time and effort to generate and memorise new passwords. If single sign-on is not properly implemented they may also be 'locked out' while a new password is propagated [34].

Even where single-sign on mechanisms exist, legacy systems and increasing use of 3rd party services mean that individual users still have a high number of passwords to cope with. The consequence of this reality is that users are forced to organise their primary tasks around the password mechanism. With the increase in e-commerce, web-mail and other online services, users now have even more passwords in use than 10 years ago. Florencio & Herley [36] found that, considering only web-based services, the average user has an average of 25 web accounts – since users cope by re-using passwords across several accounts, they have an average of 6.5 passwords each.

Within organisations, interviews with security decision makers (conducted as part of the Trust Economics project [35]) confirmed that the usability of security mechanisms, and any resulting impact on end-user productivity, is generally not considered when security policies are decided and security mechanisms chosen [7]. Herley [28] argues that security decision-makers "*treat the user's attention and effort as an unlimited resource. ... Each piece of advice may carry benefit, but the burden is cumulative*". User effort is diverted from their primary, productive, activity –

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something that users are aware of and resent, leading them to circumvent security mechanisms whenever possible [6, 7].

So why are we not seeing the output from usable security research adopted in practice? Are those in charge of security in organisations still ignorant about the impact that security measures have on individuals? Do they know, but simply not care about the impact that security policies have on users? Our research with those who decide information security policies – generally referred to here as Chief Security Information Officers (CISOs) – has established that this is not necessarily the case. Rather, they do not know how to apply research findings on the usability and economic impact of security measures when making a decision about a specific security policy or measure.

This led us to consider CISOs as a user; rather than trying to educate them about usable security, we took the stealth approach of packaging and presenting knowledge of the impacts that security has upon users within a tool that CISOs can draw on during the security management decision-making process, to make more informed choices about the security mechanisms they deploy within their organisations.

CISOs need to justify policy decisions to senior managers and other stakeholders within the organisation and communicate their decisions in appropriate language. An example of a process modelling tool that provides an integrated treatment of usability and business process factors within information security management can be found in [10]. The modelling tool accounts for the risk mitigation achieved not only through a security policy, but also through consideration of usability and productivity. However, the model is an abstract trade-off of investment and operating costs vs. risk mitigation achieved. To effectively support CISOs in their decision-making:

- The model needs to be populated with data on the cost and benefit of specific security measures, and;
- There needs to be an interface that allows CISOs to explore the impact of security policies on their organisation, in an interactive fashion.

In this paper we describe, through the design of a graphical user interface (GUI), a prototype tool that provides an integrated security, usability and economic perspective of information security policy management for use by CISOs. The tool design exposes the human-behavioural and economic implications of observable, measurable information security policy decisions during policy review and management, while grounding information in terms that resonate with CISOs. To ensure that the design would deliver these fundamental aspects, we arranged for a small group of CISOs to participate in a user-centred design process.

The remainder of the paper is arranged as follows: Section 2 examines existing information security procedures and related work. Section 3 describes the methodology and notable results of our CISO consultations. Section 4 then details the design of the tool as applied to an example of password composition policy. Discussion of issues uncovered by the tool design follow in Section 5, with concluding remarks and thoughts on future work closing the paper in Section 6.

2. BACKGROUND

A number of areas of research and commercial interest offer insights that are pertinent to the work described here.

2.1 Usability and Compliance

The impact of usability problems with security on individual and organisational productivity has been highlighted previously. One of the first investigations into usability problems with passwords was prompted by the escalating cost of helpdesks for password resets [6], and established the number and complexity of password policies as a cause. This early investigation also found that the difficulty users experienced reduced their willingness to comply – a finding confirmed in a more recent study [7].

In [7] a more formalised model was developed, linking the effort required to comply with security mechanisms to the level of compliance achieved. Herley [28] investigated the link between effort required to comply and actual risk reduction achieved, concluding that the decision taken by most users – to not follow security advice – is rational from an economic point of view, because the effort required to follow those rules is not worth expending for the risk reduction achieved. Ignoring the real cost of users' attention and effort is a stance that does not work with external customers, and is even more untenable in a corporate context.

2.2 Human Aspects of Information Security

The use of checklists is generally no substitute for a thorough understanding of risk, as emphasised by the ISO 27001 standard **[**40**]**. Information security cannot be reduced to "box-ticking", and in particular, must take into account *perception* of risks by organisational members and their security-related *behaviour* [21].

It has long been recognised that security policies cannot be seen as simply technical measures; to achieve their business objectives, they must consider the organisational, cultural, technological, and human elements as a dynamically interconnected system [15]. Security mechanisms which fail to take into account the impact on the business processes or the users' primary tasks are potentially unusable, and are likely to be circumvented by users, thus creating new vulnerabilities [21], such as users writing passwords down insecurely to compensate for the increased cognitive workload of increasingly complex authentication credentials [44].

2.3 Usability of Security Interfaces

Usability is also central to the *interfaces* used to manage security. Whitten & Tygar [41] found that interfaces for security implementations are unusable, even by highly computer-literate users (based on a case study of PGP 5.0). Security mechanisms are therefore either unused, or worse still may be used incorrectly and so fail to provide the intended protection.

If this is so for tools aimed at users in general, it is no less so for tools intended for security professionals. The importance of the usability of tools for security practitioners has been recognised, for example by [12], [14], [42]. However, perhaps because they focus more on policy implementers such as system administrators alongside policy-makers, this earlier research concentrates on those aspects – primarily technical – which are of concern to practitioners.

Nohlberg & Backström [5] investigate delivery of information security policy information to an organisation's upper-level management. The need to tailor pertinent decision-making information to intended users was considered, by way of interviews of potential users and scenario-driven design that contributed to a staged interface design. The nature of the intended users served to frame security from a financial and strategic perspective. We concentrate here on using interface design as a means to elicit CISO perspectives on the relationships between security, usability and economic factors.

Our aim is to go beyond providing a tool to support the ways that security professionals work *currently*, to encourage them to take a more holistic approach, considering the costs to users as well as the benefits of security policies. Any tool developed to achieve this must be usable for the CISO if it is to equally improve usability from the point of view of the people who are expected to *comply* with security policies.

2.4 Using Tools to Explore Options

In describing our interface as a *tool*, we emphasise that a tool places the user and their task at the centre: "*the tool itself seems to disappear*" [26] – the objects of interest are displayed such that the user remains in the "high level" semantic domain. The CISO acts *through* the interface on the objects of interest [39].

Although in a very different application area, our tool draws on visualisation as a way to enable exploration in a manner which is inspired by the Homefinder tool [11]. The interface, using sliders and graphical output, allows users to explore the impact of changing one or more parameters of their decision-making.

Visualisation enables the exploration and understanding of complex interactions of variables [16]. As in other complex decision-making processes, humans are prone to conceptual or execution errors and to forgetting key items of information. Visualisation can help to avoid these classes of human error. In this case, the objects of interest are themselves relatively abstract concepts relating to parameters of security policy, so another design aim is to use visualisation to concretise these concepts.

Finally, visualisations also support *communication* [16] of tool output, which is important for CISOs looking for support from other senior managers.

2.5 Modelling the Human Factor in Information Security within Organisations

A number of modelling tools have been developed to encourage information security professionals to articulate policies within their organisations and foster a holistic decision-making approach in light of the increasingly strategic role of the CISO.

An integrated approach to information security management incorporating human factors and economics principles has been demonstrated within previous research ([9], [10]), investigating the use of USB devices by employees. By characterising a user's working locations and the security threats to data on a USB device, the authors determined that improper use of USB devices can result in a mixture of increased business flexibility and potentially costly breaches.

Shay & Bertino [14] provide a simulation model for investigating trade-offs within the technical and human factors of password policies for users. The model is framed by an end-user's perception of an IT environment, modelling their interactions with various services and associated user accounts. This approach allows the authors to characterise users' attempts to memorise passwords for various accounts while they remain vigilant for signs of suspected attacks upon those accounts. Formalisation of password policy attributes and associated costs to the organisation – such as helpdesk support – expose the relationship between end-user password usage and the economic impacts of a particular password policy. The work exposes the need to balance security and usability for user passwords, for instance in terms of password character complexity.

Beresnevichiene et al [17] augment the CISO's decision-making process with mathematical modelling tools. A structured process of problem elicitation leads to identification of a CISO's policy preferences and utility, in terms of breach prevention, assurance, and business performance. This thereby characterises competing objectives, which in turn informs creation of a model to investigate policy trade-offs relating business processes, environmental factors and use of resources. A case study considers the activities of users in a scenario centred on the use of SLA-assured services by third party employees, including associated support services. Modelling results identify that CISOs can achieve comparable security outcomes by balancing a multitude of security and process controls.

The aim of the tool described in this paper is to build upon these research findings in the design of a tool to support security decision-making.

3. CONSULTATIONS

To effectively augment the process of deciding information security policies, we must first understand the CISO's goals and tasks, and how these influence their decision-making. To develop this understanding, we consulted three information security managers. Two of these CISOs (who we will refer to as *C1* and *C2*) have a wealth of experience working for large multi-national organisations in the financial sector. CISO *C3* is in an information security management position at a leading UK university.

Although this is a small group, the range of viewpoints represented provided us with sufficient insight into CISO goals, tasks and decision-making for us to inform a prototype interface.

3.1 Methodology

We structured the CISO consultations so that we could relate the insights of individual CISOs across similar points of discussion, comparing responses to build a more detailed picture of the policy management process and how it may be enhanced by an appropriate policy management tool. The consultation process was conducted in two stages, as described here.

Both stages centred on paper-printed "mock-ups" of prototype screens representing our proposed CISO interaction tool, created in drawing software [37]. We printed these in large scale and encouraged participants to interact with the mock-ups in describing how they might use our tool to investigate the implications of various information security events.

3.1.1 Semi-structured requirements analysis

This first stage constituted an informal walkthrough of a preliminary tool design. The interdependencies that we investigate in this work have rarely (if ever) been adequately

exposed before in a form with which CISOs can make policy decisions. With that, choosing to approach CISOs with a tool design provided something tangible to discuss with the CISOs, around which they could articulate their thoughts. The tool design was inspired by the functionality of a process model being developed in tandem within the Trust Economics project [35].

Within this initial consultation we also introduced some general decision-making scenarios within which CISOs could potentially use the tool, so as to identify appropriate functional boundaries and understand the environment that the tool could be used in.

3.1.2 Scenario-driven design

A second set of consultations with the same CISOs considered how a functioning instance of the tool would be applied. The initial meetings served to clarify how CISOs express the interdependencies that we consider in this work, and it was necessary to go further to examine how these interdependencies aligned with policy- and environment-specific attributes in well-defined usage scenarios (e.g. maintenance costs of IT systems, ease of changing existing policies).

At this stage we focused attention on the scenarios that were discussed with the CISOs. The intention was to expose interdependencies as they exist in practice, and examine how contributory factors may be formalised and quantified. Associated discussion facilitated investigation of how manipulating these factors could be seen to have both positive and negative impacts upon the functioning of the organisation in a given situation. This then provided insights into the effective exposure of these interdependencies to inform and augment existing CISO knowledge.

We structured pre- and in situ- prompts specific to each scenario, to (1) understand any existing thinking about the interdependencies, and (2) align exposure of the interdependencies within the tool with the policy decision-making process.

The scenarios we described to CISOs are specific to the management of password composition policies, and are included in Appendix A. A brief description and the main exploratory theme of each scenario are as follows:

1. "Password Cracking in the Cloud" (e.g. [22]): "How do policy choices affect the organisation?"
2. "Introduction of Hot-Desking": "How do working practices affect security?"
3. "Passwords vs. Fingerprints": "How are business cases formulated and supported?"

3.2 Analysis

The consultations with CISOs were voice- and video-recorded. The video recordings enabled us to capture interactions which CISOs were encouraged to make with the paper mockups.

The voice recordings were transcribed and analysed using a variation on Grounded Theory [19]. Initial line-by-line coding produced 349 basic open codes. These were gathered around 21 core codes; open codes and core codes were finally drawn together in groups of codes capturing thematic relationships.

For example, we developed three code groups on themes of: "About the CISO", "About Users", and "About Passwords" (since our initial study took password policy as its object of focus). "About the CISO" contained codes such as "CISO is not [mainly] technical" – the position of the CISO in an organisation – and "what matters to the CISO". "About Users" gathered codes which marked points in the consultations in which CISOs discussed our concept of classifying users into classes (see section 4.1).

Our analysis produced the following findings which have implications for the design of the tool.

3.2.1 The CISO's Concern is to Support the Business

Our CISOs were clear that their aim is not to impose security, but to support the business of the organisation. An important part of this role is in making arguments, or more formally "business cases", for senior managers in an organisation. Senior decision-makers are not interested in technical details, but in the business implications of security policies and the threats they aim to mitigate. The business case made by the CISO, therefore, draws on technical knowledge, but the essential point of interest is the financial implications of any security-related intervention.

Security may in some cases have a low priority for the organisation [13], yet information security failures can cause stakeholders to question a company's operations [38]. Ideally, there would be evidence to support any proposed expense, presented in terms that both IT professionals and financial representatives would understand. Decisions would then be set in a broader context, making security decision-making more inclusive.

In reaching a decision on an aspect of security policy, a CISO will weigh up the potential consequences, not just in terms of security, but the overall business impact: *C2*, referring to password policies:

> "*Because the security manager doesn't just do security, he's also there to support the business. So, he's trying to make it as easy for the business to do its job, and the way to do that is to sell the business case. If you make it easier for the users, we can make it easier for the users but we're going to have to increase the complexity, but, you know, if you explain the full picture, you're going to win out that way.*"

Our tool aims to encourage CISOs towards new ways of thinking about security. CISOs are highly experienced; they are aware of benchmarks and can make decisions based on their experience or discussions with other information security professionals. Our tool provides a sound evidence base, and, by encouraging exploration, enables CISOs to review their decisions: *C2*, referring to policy decisions: "*The journey is more important than the destination … you might actually find information that changes your mind*."

In being able to navigate through the decision-making process with supporting evidence, it is possible that CISOs may begin to question the wisdom of "best practice" in terms of the balance of costs and benefits that it provides. Individual CISOs may then feel that they have the impetus to diverge from sector-wide views on usable IT-security towards an attempt to more appropriately serve the specific needs of their organisation. However, CISOs may not have such room for manoeuvre with regards to industry standards or sector regulations:

> *C3: "[At the city council] we had to have a [password] reset policy where you could do it by answering 20-odd*

questions. Why did we have to put that in place? Because Government Connect mandated it … we needed it to exchange … pension records, and stuff like that and [National Health Service] stuff; … you couldn't just reset someone's password over the phone."

Until usability is better-understood on a per-sector scale, CISOs would likely respect these mandates, not least because compliance is necessary to permit the business to operate.

3.2.2 Trade-offs

Decision-making invariably includes trade-offs between various costs and benefits. In the specific case of password policy, trade-offs mentioned by our interviewees include:

- If required passwords are too long or too complex, this makes them more secure from cracking, but conversely might force users to write them down as the only reliable coping mechanism (this point is supported by [34]).
- Users' ability to recall passwords – and therefore, to be less likely to write them down – is related to the expiry time of a password; users must have a meaningful length of time to learn the password before expiry.

Thus there are trade-offs between frequency of use, expiry time, password length, and complexity. Our interviewees spoke, for example, of increasing the length and complexity of passwords, but at the same time – to "give something back" to the password user – increasing the password expiry time.

3.2.3 Risk Management

Another clear finding from our interviews is that CISOs are engaged in risk management, rather than risk prevention at all costs ("*it's not the Crown Jewels*").

One participant argued that in consumer web applications, passwords are often used to protect low-value information, for example when accessing a newspaper or crossword. He said there are similar situations in commercial organisations – giving an example where he replaced password authentication to a company intranet with cookies on users' machines.

However, our interviewees were clear that for employees of an organisation, unlike the situation in e-commerce, different balances of costs and benefits apply in different contexts. There are cases in which a breach could lead to serious loss of reputation, or involve external legal or regulatory authorities, thereby incurring high costs for incident management. Moreover, in principle, employees can be required to conform to the organisation's policies. Enforcement carries costs in terms of employee goodwill, however, and overly strong policies impact on productivity – for example, in time taken to reset passwords.

There is always uncertainty around the level of risk; in practice, it is never possible to identify the full implications of all security risks:

C1: "*So, if we could come up with a number for how secure are you, [because] that's the Nirvana, isn't it? If, you know, every manager says, "how secure are we"? "Do we need to be more secure?", if we could come up with what that number was, what the individual components were, then, we'd have almost solved world hunger, in security terms* ".

The best that can be attempted is to make reasonable estimates of key factors such as Annualised Loss Expectancy (ALE) [4].

3.2.4 Managing the Employees' Security Practices

A core aim of our tool is to ensure that an organisation's security policies are usable from the point of view of *those employees who are expected to conform to them*. For this reason, the CISO's view of organisation members and their security practices was of particular interest to us.

As we detail in sections 4.1.2 and 4.3.2, the underlying process model incorporates the concept of user *categories*, which vary primarily in terms of the amount of time spent working in different locations, with associated security risks. Participants were generally favourable to this concept, but expressed the need to be able to parameterise the numbers and types of user classes. We discussed with them other possible properties of users, beyond location, in particular the different levels of access to valuable assets. However, we concluded from responses by CISOs that it would be impractical to link user classes to assets at this level of granularity; besides, it is rarely easy to identify the cause of a breach:

C2: **"***in [a privacy breach around personal information] the ICO [Information Commissioner's Office] can impose up to £0.5million fine … and most fines that have been imposed have been nothing like that. In banking, fines have no real limits, 'cos the FSA [Financial Services Authority] can impose what they like. The difficulty you've got, though, is, any incident that causes a fine of that sort of magnitude is going to be impossible to attribute back to a weakness in a password policy that you're trying to model … Most breaches are due to stupidity.*"

Yet different kinds of employee do have different levels of access: in a university for example *C3*, referring to the potential for loss of a university's intellectual property, states:

"*our biggest risk, is round the staff area. Our students have a limited access to other bits and pieces, so. For example, they have no access to any of our financial information systems, or anything like that … you could say the likelihood might be greater. However, the impact's much less. On the other hand, the likelihood is more.*"

Employees also have differing levels of motivation and commitment to the organisation. Our participants were divided on the question of the impact in productivity losses resulting from difficulties in conforming to password policies. For one participant, this productivity loss is not a real cost to the organisation, since motivated employees will simply work longer, if necessary, or reorganise their time to accommodate the delay:

C1: "If you're in a large retail organisation, with, you know, tens of thousands of call centre operators, then productivity is something that really would affect you on average, whereas if you're in an organisation of knowledge workers, where, actually they'll just add an extra five minutes on the day if they've forgotten their password, … you'd be less interested in the productivity elements for those types of organisation."

Based on previous literature [15, 21] we argue that attempts to enforce secure behaviour in employees must be balanced against

loss of employee time and goodwill. A key part of the CISO's role is to encourage secure practices by all sectors of the workforce and promote a security culture. Enforcing unusable policies antagonises users and exhausts their willingness to comply, ultimately leading to rejection of security practices. We demonstrate through the tool design that there is a balance between compliance management [7] and enforcement, and that paradoxically getting this balance wrong reduces effective security. Our tool is a useful addition to the CISO's armoury in achieving this balance.

3.2.5 Supporting CISO Decision-making

In supporting CISOs in making the kinds of decisions and choices that face them – by illuminating possible trade-offs, helping them to manage risk, and supporting a security culture – our tool aims to support decision-making, rather than to be prescriptive. This is in keeping with the essentially exploratory nature of the underlying model; it is heuristic, not in the sense of "rule of thumb", but in the stricter sense of being a technique for problem-solving.

By providing an evidence base to support CISO decision-making, the wider aim, in our new paradigm, is to raise awareness of the costs as well as the benefits of security practices. The following short exchange in one of our CISO consultations illustrates our thinking as we discuss these aims with a participant:

> *Simon: "[Our tool] says to … naive security managers, "it's not just security, you need to balance productivity and cost, here's an idea of how that works", and then it gets them thinking, and … start to get them to educate themselves, as they try and make these decisions, …"*
>
> *Philip: "It's almost like a sort of didactic tool, from that point of view, isn't it? In the sense that, … in small organisations … there's probably some general manager who has this as part of their [responsibilities], probably hasn't actually thought all these things through at all, and is completely unaware of these implications"*
>
> *CISO: "Actually giving them a menu of things that they can tweak would actually prompt that thinking"*

So we want to raise awareness, not only among dedicated CISOs but also for "part-time" security managers in smaller organisations, that security requirements which are unusable incur hidden costs which are borne directly by end-users and indirectly by the organisation [34]. Our aim is to expose these costs and to show how they impact on the achievement of organisational goals.

3.3 Requirements

Based on our consultations with CISOs and a review of related work, the following requirements have been identified as necessary to improve policy decision-making in information security management:

- *Expose Interdependencies:* there is a need to represent the dependencies that exist between information security policies, human factors, and economic/business concerns:
    - Relationships between concepts must be captured in a more precise, quantitative manner to facilitate exposure of their interdependencies;
    - The relationships between well-defined human factors, economic factors and information security metrics should be related to the remit of the CISO.
- *Exploit Familiarity:* presentation of interdependent security, usability and economic expectations should be related to concerns that CISOs are familiar with.
- *Personalise Implications:* Each organisation is unique. Potential implications of policy decisions should be made relevant to the individual organisation or they will not resonate with the CISO, who would in turn be unable to take suitably proportioned action.
- *Augment Experience:* any additional information for the purposes of decision-support should be presented to CISOs in a way that supports, but does not presume, the outcome of information security management decisions. CISOs should be encouraged to explore their policy options in a way that augments their existing body of knowledge.
- *Provide Clarity:* CISOs should only be presented with decision support technologies that they can readily understand.
- *Empower Communication:* CISOs should be able to generate evidence that can be communicated to other stakeholders (e.g. Human Resources, legal, IT) to gain support or facilitate negotiation of their proposed policy decisions.

The design of a policy composition tool should aim to address all of these requirements.

4. DESIGN

To satisfy the requirements identified in Section 3.3 we designed the Password Policy Composition Tool (PPCT), a prototype tool focusing on the management of password composition policies as applied to all of the end-users within an organisation holding centralised IT system accounts. It is envisaged that such a tool could be used by CISOs to support them as they make decisions regarding information security policies. This interface tool envisages an internal systems modelling process, analogous to that detailed in [10], that must be communicated to CISOs in an appropriate manner. It also builds on previous attempts to integrate security and human factors into the policy implementation decision-making process [2].

The PPCT allows CISOs to configure core aspects of a provisional password policy to their own requirements, and to observe the quantified consequences of the policy management decisions that they may potentially commit to.

4.1 Environment Assumptions

If the PPCT is to be useful to CISOs, it must allow them to configure relevant aspects of password composition policy and provide an informative representation of the potential consequences, with which they can make more informed policy management decisions.

We make assumptions about the organisation environment that CISOs operate in. This representation of the environment was informed by a model built with the Gnosis modelling toolset [20][43], which aims to represent the security, usability and economic tradeoffs inherent in password composition policy, modelling policy implications projected over a fixed time-span. The behaviour of the model was informed by a combination of empirical data, existing literature, and expert knowledge. It is envisaged that such a model may be integrated into an implemented version of the PPCT.

CISOs might not necessarily consider how to articulate and communicate these interdependencies, and so a tangible representation proved useful for focusing discussion during the requirements-gathering and design consultation stages (Section 3).

For the purposes of our new paradigm, the implementation of the tool is considered to be a further piece of work. This in itself would present challenges, including how best to integrate the tool with existing decision-support tools already at the CISO's disposal, and ultimately how to promote use of such a tool in the wider IT-security community.

We focus here on developing a tool interface that can help to articulate usability issues in organisations in a way that relates them to the business and risk management concerns of CISOs. Within this brief we do not consider functional aspects such as providing guarantees of accuracy for the potential outputs of the tool (where those outputs may be produced by an underlying model similar to the Gnosis model we describe here). Model outputs may differ naturally between organisations and across sectors with differing threat environments. It would be necessary to capture these differentiating qualities when modelling the subject organisation in order to provide the CISO with information that they can act upon appropriately.

4.1.1 Environment Behaviour

It is anticipated that users move between different working locations over a predefined period of time, accessing password authentication systems at intervals to gain access to the organisation's IT systems and facilitate working with electronic information assets. Password authentication systems and the associated policy decisions are intended to limit a wide array of perceived information security threats within these various locations, whether they are instigated deliberately by malicious outsiders or colleagues. Interactions with the password authentication systems have the potential to secure or exacerbate access to IT systems. The organisation's IT systems and the associated authentication mechanisms are regarded as a single, centralised entity for simplicity.

Here we limit the range of password-related security threats to password cracking (e.g. dictionary, brute-force) and guessing ("shoulder-surfing", speculating). Whenever these threats manifest it is assumed that there is a probability of either of two distinct security breach events occurring:

- Complete Password Capture (results in an unanticipated and fully-exploited breach)
- Partial Password Capture (where successive captures of the same password will eventually result in a Complete Capture, depending upon the attributes of the password policy)

Whenever a user authenticates to the centralised IT system, the outcome of the authentication process is assumed to be in one of five defined states: "Authenticated"; "Unauthenticated"; "Failed" (due to e.g. forgetting a complex password); "Resetting password", or; "Locked out of account" (successive failed attempts).

4.1.2 Environment Parameters

A limited (but representative) set of policy attributes and employee attributes are considered. These properties are exposed in the PPCT design:

- Four password policy controls:
    - Mandated minimum password length
    - Mandated password character-set composition
    - Mandated password frequency of change
    - Period of notification for employees before mandated password change
    - Number of permitted authentication attempts before account lockout
- Three (default) classes of employee using passwords to access organisation IT systems:
    - Executive: works mostly in the office, but also at home, with access to highly valuable information assets.
    - Road Warrior (i.e. consultant): typically in transit between locations, but also works in potentially insecure public places.
    - Office Worker: works only in an office environment, making up the majority of the organisation's workforce. May be subject to attacks by industrial spies etc.
- For each class of employee we represent 4 working locations from which authentication systems can be accessed (Office, Public, Home, In Transit).

These parameters inform IT security management decisions by providing a simple representation of the balance between account breaches, end-user productivity loss and running costs (e.g. salaried time lost to security administration activities such as resetting a locked account) resulting from enacted policies within the defined threat environment.

4.2 Overview of the PPCT Interface

Configuration of the PPCT must not put undue expectations upon a CISO to interact directly with unfamiliar model technology and terminology. We herein examine the usability requirements of CISOs in terms of:

- Communicating to a CISO a range of security, productivity and economic factors and how they are interlinked.
- Supporting a CISO in making decisions about potential password policies, using the configuration properties and output of any underlying model as evidence in policy decision-making.

Consultations with CISOs encouraged the need to support CISOs during the policy decision-making process, e.g. *C1: "giving them*

a menu of things that they can tweak would actually prompt that thinking";

> *C2: "Isn't really what's going to happen here, that the decision is not going to be taken by the software. What's going to happen really is the thinking, of the security manager, is going to be shaped by the process of going through this."*

The Password Policy Composition Tool (PPCT) design exposes policy-relevant details to CISOs, supporting exploration of the consequences of decisions within a limited view of information security specific to password policy management.

The PPCT would be driven by configurable controls that correspond to policy management decisions. In practice manipulation of these controls within an implemented version of the tool would give direct feedback on the security, productivity and economic effectiveness of policy changes over a projected period of time.

4.3 Configuration Properties

Within the PPCT design it is envisaged that three distinct and interdependent groups of properties can be configured (as in the lower portion of Figure 1), each with their own separate tab in the configuration section of the interface:

- *(Security) Policy Properties:* identifiable, quantified password policy controls (Section 4.3.1).
- *User Properties:* different classes of employees come into contact with an organisation's IT systems within a range of working locations as part of their typical working patterns. Configuring representative properties can help to generate results that inform how a prospective security policy would affect a real working environment (Section 4.3.2).
- *Support Properties:* these represent services within the organisation that support working patterns and policy associated with use of password authentication systems (Section 4.3.3).

Note that here "Policy Properties" group aspects of information security policy that a CISO typically has the authority to change (within reason). "User Properties" and "Support Properties" are not necessarily under the control of the CISO, but are nonetheless characteristics of the organisation that can have an effect upon its security posture.

Separating properties of the organisation into these distinct groups helps a CISO to understand the stakeholders affecting and affected by the security policy decisions they make. By changing interface controls in each of these groups and observing the results, a CISO can begin to relate observable changes in their provisional policies with the organisation around them.

By presenting quantifiable values for the various controls and model outputs (Section 4.4), the PPCT design promotes evidence-based information security policy decisions and accountability. With the tool design we also propose the capability to export model configuration parameters and output results to an external file, facilitating the provision of supporting evidence when discussing potential decisions with other stakeholders in the organisation. That is not to exclude the possibility that many stakeholders including the CISO could operate the interface directly at the same time in a workshop-style setting.

4.3.1 Policy properties

CISO-defined "Policy Properties" may come in many forms (e.g. changes in variable controls, application or removal of "active or inactive" controls). Here we focus on quantifiable properties of information assets or security devices that can be varied across a discrete range of values, e.g. the "minimum password length" for end-user passwords across the organisation.

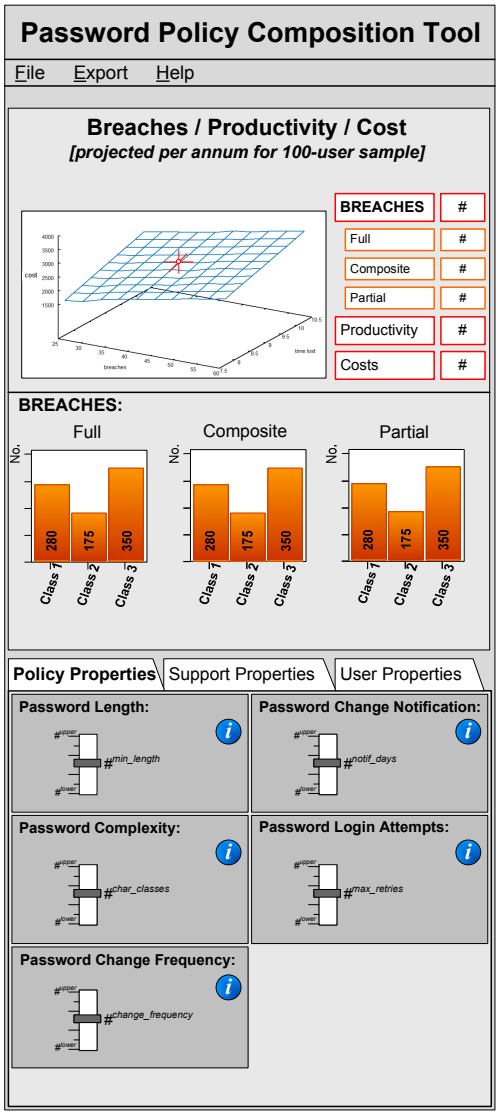

Figure 1. CISO Password Policy Composition Tool (PPCT) Interface (showing the "Policy Properties" view and "Breaches" output).

The policy controls are presented as "sliders" (as seen in Figure 1). This simple mechanism promotes investigation of policy measures across perceived scales of increasing or decreasing security along different components of policy (e.g. "minimum password length", "password complexity"). This approach also

encourages CISOs to consider the manner in which individual policy controls can effect changes to security. Associating related controls in the same panel also conveys that policy controls are at times co-dependent or may be altered in tandem to achieve varying effects. For instance, given a particular PPCT configuration a user of the interface may find that a one-character increase in "minimum password length" contributes more to the potential loss of end-user productivity than a 30-day decrease in the "password change frequency".

Note that in the case of "password complexity", we make the limiting assumption that there are a fixed number of character sets (e.g. lower case letters, special characters) from which passwords can be composed. As such the slider for this control indicates how many character sets must be represented in user passwords, and not necessarily what these character sets are. In reality the use of different character sets may result in varying usability for end-users (e.g. if they are mandated to include numbers in their passwords, rather than special characters, to provide additional security).

"Additional Information" accompanying each "Policy Property" control (the round blue "*i*" icons) can be used to provide information about the threats and vulnerabilities that each "Policy Property" should be used to address. These hints can also indicate any specific procedural guidelines or regulations that the control addresses (e.g. "ISO 11.3.1d").

Additional information then serves to educate novice CISOs as to the situations within which to use a given policy control. It can also be used to structure the accountability process, highlighting where a control applies to a specific industry mandate or recommendation (e.g. minimum required password length). Such information may be stored in an ontology (e.g. [1]), populated either by representatives of the industry or internally within individual organisations using external tools (e.g. [2], [3]).

4.3.2 User properties

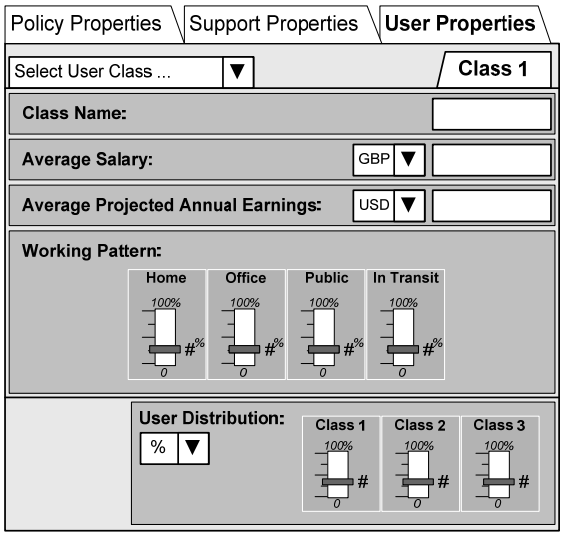

Figure 2. The PPCT Interface "User Properties" view.

The "User Properties" tab (Figure 2) facilitates definition of organisation properties that relate to a proportioned sample of the different classes of end-user interacting with centralised authentication systems within an organisation.

Some of the content described in Figure 2 is highly sensitive (e.g. salary information). This highlights the need to ensure that any tool that gathers and processes organisation data to aid policy decision-making does not itself create a security vulnerability. As such the tool prompts the CISO for relative "proxy" salaries for each user class, making it unnecessary to retain sensitive information about actual salaries:

> *C2: "because you can't estimate salary, you'd be better putting that on a sliding scale to indicate, and reflect, the fact that you know it's not going to be accurate. So, by design, what I'd want, is, where you think you can get accurate data, ... then you have numbers, and where you don't think you can get accurate data, then, recognise that, demonstrate to the user that this is going to be an approximation."*

Proxy salaries could also be based upon market averages in the "default" configuration, providing representative values that a CISO can use to form decisions in the first instance (before perhaps considering making any changes to more accurately reflect their own organisation). Salaries may be "banded" relative to each other, to remove the need to disclose salary information. Definition of projected earnings is optional, dependent upon the perceived value and working behaviour of individuals within a particular user class.

In turn data such as actual salaries may only be accessible to e.g. the organisation's human resources function. This then demonstrates that a tool to aid CISOs should ideally operate only with data that the CISO can gain access to (either directly or through legitimate channels within the organisation).

A similar approach of switching between absolute and relative numbers can be used, where appropriate, to define the distribution of users within the modelled system.

Finally, recall that we recognise different user behaviour patterns – which we characterise by proportions of time working in differing locations, namely "office", "home", a "public space", or "in transit". Each such location has a different risk profile, an insight which resonated with our CISO participants. Different organisations take different views about the risks of, for example, mobile working:

> *C3: "the in transit stuff's interesting. ... the city council in [city A] and the city council in [city B] had two very different views. We had a proper [Virtual Private Network (VPN)], SSL VPNs configured in [city A], and if you wanted to work on the train on the way down, you could do. You just logged on. That was banned in [city B], we didn't allow that. But, what's the balancing act, between loss of productivity of a senior officer not being able to do anything for three and a half hours? ... and the higher up the organisation you go, the more they tend to travel.*"

Thus, two different views of the risks, costs and benefits lead these two similar organisations to adopt different policies. Our tool would account for the risks of allowing mobile working, but there are also productivity costs associated with not allowing it. A CISO would not necessarily need to configure the associated User Properties, and could rely on calibrated default controls within the underlying model. This model should represent a consensus view

of a generic organisation as agreed by human factors, information security and systems modelling experts:

> *C1: "a lot of the value here would be if ... the average for most organisations is pre-populated, because this sort of tool would be very useful for the head of security who's not doing it as a full-time role, ... who's not a long-in-the-tooth who's been doing it for twenty years and therefore has a lot of the gut feel for what these sorts of variables are anyway, so, a lot of the value would be capturing the experience of people, or through experimentation, what the averages are, having a database of all of that."*

However, if the CISO wishes to see tool output that is more applicable to their organisation, the tool design implicitly encourages CISOs to gather the relevant information (likely by communicating with relevant stakeholders in other departments).

4.3.3 Support properties

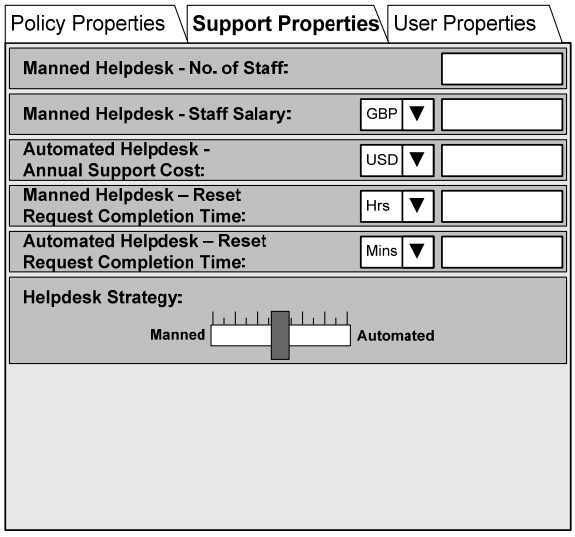

Figure 3. The PPCT Interface "Support Properties" view.

"Support Properties" (Figure 3) capture qualities of the organisation's support services which, although external to the password policy, may nonetheless impact upon its effectiveness. These "Support Properties" are primarily related to the one-off and ongoing costs of IT security policy decisions.

Specific to password policy, an organisation would ideally have helpdesk facilities of some description to address those instances where end-users need to activate, reset or unlock passwords/accounts. We make the simplifying assumption that there are helpdesk staff dedicated solely to answering password-related requests from end-users within the organisation. From our CISO consultations, the cost of running a helpdesk function to serve password resets would be one of the major security expenses:

> *C2: "when we were trying to reduce costs, we've always taken a very serious look at the cost of running a helpdesk to support forgotten passwords, and ... depending on the price of the product, it's generally much more economical, to get rid of that helpdesk department of support, and move to automated password resets. ... you can cost [the staff] in the call centre, and you can cost out the software that you're going to replace it with, and then you've got the implementation fees, and then you're still stuck with that small residue of 5 – 10% of people who just can't figure out the online system, and will call the helpdesk anyway, and, there's quite a lot of business cases that have been done around this that I've seen."*

Escalating helpdesk costs were the motivation for the study conducted by Adams & Sasse [6]. But, as Adams & Sasse found, these costs result from aspects of password policy; our tool will model these costs and expose them in ways that are clear to CISOs.

Organisations are increasingly moving to the use of automated password resets, typically using pre-registered secret words; where such systems are in place, password users are encouraged to reset their passwords without the intervention of the staffed helpdesk. We model both automated and manual password resets, where the relative proportions can be adjusted by a slider on the interface.

Grouping "Support Properties" in this way gives a CISO a sense of how the infrastructure provisions within their organisation can ensure or threaten the success of both an IT security policy and the end-users within the organisation. Conversely the CISO should appreciate that an effective security policy does not overburden other functions within the organisation without good reason (or in this context, good business sense).

4.4 PPCT Output

The tool design presents the results of projected policy deployment as dictated by the controls described in Section 4.3. The output of the interface consists of:

- *Breaches:* the number of breaches that would occur as a result of the policy being deployed over a period of a year (the upper portion of Figure 1).
- *Productivity:* the total number of working hours lost over the simulated year across all the varieties of user defined as working within the organisation (Figure 4).
- *Costs:* a breakdown of the support costs (e.g. helpdesk staff) and projected losses of salary and potential earnings over the defined user classes (Figure 5).

The output of the tool would be arranged in such a way that a CISO could "drill down" from high-level results to more granular results (an approach encouraged by other investigations into IT security management tools [8]). Where results pertain to user behaviour, output data can be examined at a level specific to a particular user class. With this, a CISO is encouraged to consider that different groups of users may have particular usability needs or may experience varying difficulties as a result of security policies.

Varying levels of detail facilitate communication with other stakeholders according to levels of comprehension, but primarily support the CISO looking for particular categories of evidence to support their decisions:

> *C2: "What people do, in business, is they tend to have a gut feel for the right thing to do, just from experience, and*

then they look for the information and the data to support the decision."

The manner in which output is presented in the PPCT design also promotes exploration of the "decision space". The top-level is an integrated treatment of breaches, productivity and costs, represented as a 3D plane. It is envisaged that a CISO would be able to examine output datasets across this plane to support speculative policy decision-making, rather than having the tool provide an approximated "optimal" answer. This approach supports the preference towards augmenting CISO knowledge and experience rather than replacing it.

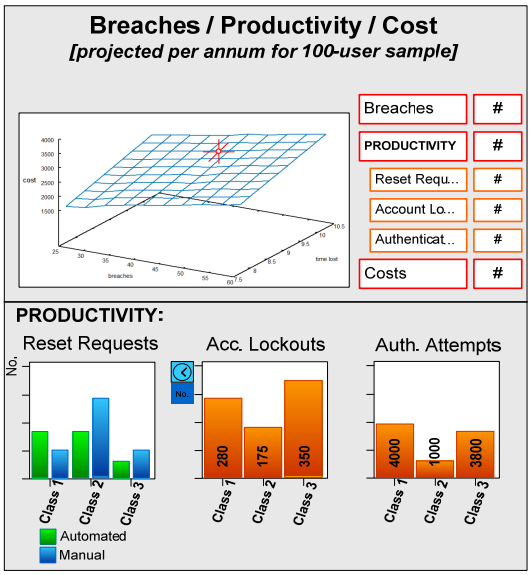

Figure 4. The PPCT Interface "productivity" modelling output.

The consulted CISOs all suggested that the tool could support a business case, wherein the tool's output is used to justify expenditure for further security programmes.

The intuitive correlation of the quantified properties of a provisional policy (properties represented in the control panels) to the quantifiable and identifiable consequences of that same policy (the tool output) promotes an approach of proportional security, and of articulating the effects of policy decisions:

C3: "I'll tell you why [I would use the sliders]. Because mine is only gut feel. Mine is non empirical evidence there, I have nothing other than my experience. And I'm only one person, who's, admittedly, worked in IT for a long time, but, you know, I don't know."

The effects of those decisions are communicated to a CISO with even sharper clarity with the potential to personalise many of the PPCT controls to a specific organisation. This would encourage individual CISOs to build on what the tool can offer so as to understand the organisation around them, in terms of security but also with respect to the usability and economic impacts:

C1: "Well, you probably want a starter for 10[1]*, which is somebody's view, that you can tweak, ... so that the naïve user can just use it, ... and the sophisticated user can amend it and tweak it."*

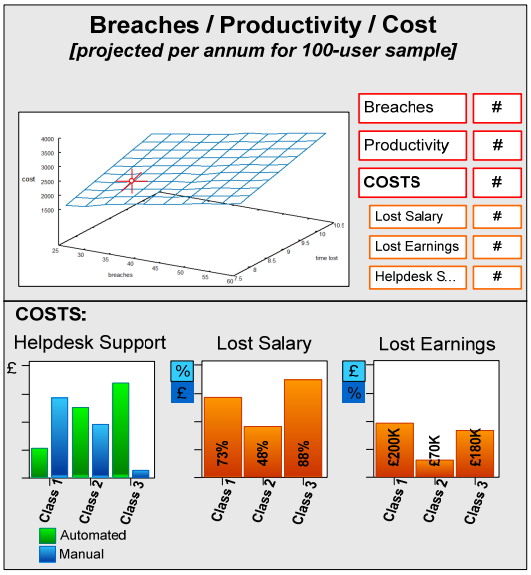

Figure 5. The PPCT Interface "costs" modelling output.

5. DISCUSSION

There are aspects of the tool design and the design process that warrant further discussion. In the previous section we detailed the functionality and interfaces of our proposed tool. In section 3 we described the results of consultations which we undertook, using scenarios and paper prototypes of our proposed tool. Here we present implications of our findings for the design of the tool.

5.1 Tool Design

CISOs lack the appropriate tools to consider end-user concerns as part of the policy decision-making process. Our consultations with individual CISOs suggest that they are keen for guidance and tools to rectify this, and that they see our tool design as an encouragement to consolidate usability and organisational security so as to support the goals of their organisation.

Broadly, the participating CISOs were very much in agreement that the functionality of the tool was adequate to expose the interdependencies between security provision, end-user capabilities, and the continuation of business processes. We do however accept that this was a small group of CISOs, and are open to reporting extensions or revisions to the tool and associated model both for and from further CISO consultations.

In particular all three CISOs were interested in the potential of the tool to make a business case – which they expressed as a major requirement (recall section 3.2.1). However, there were different approaches to decision-making, ranging from focused to more

[1] A reference to the British TV programme "University Challenge"; the idea is that this is a starting point, which more sophisticated users could build upon and refine

serendipitous. Our participants differed in how open they were to revising their initial decision in response to insights gained through exploration of the tool.

It is possible that in being able to explore the solution space, a CISO is free to selectively use only evidence which supports decisions that they have essentially already made in advance, knowingly or otherwise, according to their "gut feel". However, by willingly using a tool such as the one proposed here to elicit evidence that supports their "gut feel", a CISO must at the same time accept that they become accountable for the evidence that they use to support their decisions.

Concerning the capacity to search for supporting evidence, participants particularly liked our suggestion of enabling a CISO to "drill down" into the results (Section 4.4), as a way of catering for different granularity requirements. CISOs in different sectors and different organisations have specific security and usability concerns, which may be served by additional levels of detail that assist in refining and understanding specific policy decisions.

Participants made a number of specific suggestions about how the interface could handle both data which is known with a high degree of accuracy and other input data known only in gross terms. For example, sliders, perhaps measuring simply percentiles, could be used to register approximate values, or actual numbers could be used where these are available.

5.2 Stakeholders

The representation of policy and environment attributes is key to the success of the tool in facilitating communication with other stakeholders in the organisation. The tool is designed so as to formally represent and relate these attributes, which serves to remove ambiguity. This may prove useful when presenting a business case for IT security investment:

> *C3: "You need to make it business, and this is what you've done, you've made it some that somebody with business acumen can understand what the impacts are. [Because] a lot of this stuff, you're actually pitching at the chief financial officer ... that's what they'll be looking at",*

> *C2: "So, a [good] security manager's not going to ever just ... go and say, "right, we're going to increase it, and you worry about the usability, and then we'll have a conversation about it", you try and present the options, and the business, just like you're doing here."*

CISOs must communicate policies to other stakeholders (including department managers and employees) to achieve actionable security measures. It is also necessary to relay policies to external auditors, regulators and perhaps even shareholders. Thus, a CISO needs to be able to communicate both with technical implementers and with budget-holders and other decision-makers who do not understand the technical language of IT and security [38].

In Section 4.3 it is suggested that the CISO may consider changes to "user" and "support" properties of policies. It is envisaged that, should a CISO decide that these properties need to be changed to effect better security, that they will contact the appropriate stakeholder(s). In doing so they would need to adopt a suitable method for articulating and justifying the need for any such changes (one that uses language that these stakeholders are also competent in using). The language used to communicate decisions across organisations should then be explored in relation to IT-security and usability.

There may be a need to approach these other stakeholders within the design process to assess their expectations of security. For instance, potential breaches may result in per-event or per-record breach conditions which legal representatives would need to evaluate, as well as costs incurred for investigating particular kinds of breaches:

> *C1: "the impact isn't only in relation to the value of the asset, though, it's also the reputation impact, and legal impact, and ... regulatory impact, so... you know, one of the impacts of failure could be that we lose our licence."*

and in large, tightly regulated organisations, as C3 put it;

> *"your cost of breach can go through the roof. [Because] if you're talking to three accountants, your external financial advisor, and your company secretary, normally those people are only one or two levels below the board, and their time is, their time is big money."*

Our tool does not as yet model breaches with this level of granularity, as the "complete picture" of breach costs is informed by many parties, not just CISOs.

5.3 Decision-making Process

The tool design, and indeed the underlying model, may implicitly incorporate assumptions about how CISOs actually make policy decisions. Appropriate decision-making strategies should be supported, and doing so should also limit the cognitive effort required by users of the tool to analyse complex information [18]. In this sense our consultations identified factors in the CISO's decision-making process which we made efforts to support rather than supplant.

The output of the tool may be more useful if exposed in different ways, depending upon the background of the tool user. For instance, breach results displayed over the projected lifetime of the policy would allow CISOs to identify temporal trends in user or system behaviour which are likely to impact upon the effectiveness of the organisation depending on when they are expected to occur. Exposing characteristics of the output throughout the model lifetime would add to the ability to "drill down" into the output to reveal further levels of detail.

5.4 Organisational Culture

We make no assumptions in the design of the tool about the working culture of the organisation that a CISO works in. For instance we do not consider application to specific industries:

> *C1: "In utilities, in some bits of it, there's not a lot of data that's worth stealing, ... cos, you know, there's nothing secret about it ... but in investment banking there's a huge amount of data worth stealing, cos you can, you know, you can make money out of data but, the other risk of somebody maliciously tampering with data in investment banking is probably a lot lower. The impact of maliciously tampering with data in [utilities] is that you cut off the [service]. So, that's two very different sets of probabilities for motivations for why people would want to steal passwords."*

However, this could potentially be exposed through further analysis of the utility of security mechanisms, as embodied by a CISO's preferences for security, productivity or cost information.

The balance between the benefits (in terms of breaches avoided), support costs, and productivity losses arising from security policy decisions is made, in the suggested underlying model (described further in Section 4.1), towards the end of the mathematical process when the output from the model is applied to a utility function – see [10] for an explanation of how this is implemented in a similar model. The culture of the organisation, such as its risk aversion, the value of its assets, and the appetite for expenditure on security, could be reflected in our tool by adjusting coefficients of this utility function. This is noted as a possible future refinement for a working version of the tool. Such coefficients would have to be presented to the CISO in an approachable manner that enables rather than confuses them.

The tool and the underlying model also make no assumptions about how people react to security mechanisms. For instance:

> *C1: "In investment banking, where people are highly motivated, and they'll get in at 7 in the morning and they'll be there at 11 o'clock at night, it might irritate them, but, actually, you're not going to employ an extra investment banker because 5000 investment bankers have to change their password"*;
>
> *C3: "the more complex the passwords, the more people write them down. So there's a balancing act somewhere in between"*;
>
> *C3: "our engineers, or, our environmental health officers, these folk, many of them are keen on IT, they're also very, very bright, they've got an interest, and they've done workarounds, you know, ... they've done it for the best purposes, but they don't realise it's just blown a hole in our security"*.

Also, for simplicity we assume that if a user is e.g. locked out of their IT system account due to a failed login, they are unable to do any work until the account is reinstated. This leads to discussion of reliance on IT systems, and end-users' technical capabilities and respect for policy (as further discussed in [7]).

5.5 Instrumentation

Many of the parameters in the tool assume that the organisation's infrastructure has been instrumented to provide the necessary values (e.g. helpdesk call duration, etc.). However at present the activities of end-users and security mechanisms as represented by the tool are informed by a mixture of CISO opinion and unexposed model constants. We envisage that should a CISO use an implemented version of our proposed tool, they would configure the parameters to better suit their organisation. With this, they may go one step further and seek more accurate data (for instance to support more accurate, evidence-based business cases), in turn instrumenting their organisation to obtain real monitoring data from relevant sources within the organisation.

Concerning data breach information, it would currently be difficult to estimate the number of breaches for a given IT-security environment configuration (concerning the implications of IT-security decisions and the root causes of security events, as mentioned in Sections 3.2.3 and 3.2.4 respectively). However, as it stands the tool design acts to make explicit the link between the usability constraints placed on end-users and the security of the organisation's information assets. Foremost, it may be necessary to explore how data breach information, be it simulated or evidential, can be articulated in such a way that CISOs can adopt it – both objectively and practically – as being realistic enough to support and justify policy decisions.

5.6 How the Tool might be used in Small and Large Organisations

We do not presume where the CISO is positioned within the organisation. However, in most large organisations CISOs have rapidly become part of senior management. In contrast, within small and medium-sized enterprises there are no dedicated positions for an information security specialist. For such organisations, the tool might be a repository of evidence which can partially overcome the lack of specialist skills. Conversely, larger organisations, with a dedicated CISO, might use the tool as a base which could be parameterised to reflect their actual situation. For organisations of any size, the tool can be populated with accurate figures for parameters in the underlying model where they are available within the organisation, or where this proves difficult the default model values can be relied on to provide output that still informs the policy decision-making process.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Chief Information Security Officers (CISOs) and other IT security managers are usually not aware of the effects that their security policies might have on the abilities of end-users within the organisation to use IT mechanisms effectively. These security managers must cultivate an awareness of how usability enters into the interdependencies between security provision, productivity and business process requirements within their organisation. We investigate the capacity to actively inform CISOs of these factors during IT security policy composition, by way of a prototype Password Policy Composition Tool (PPCT) user interface design.

This tool facilitates exploration of changes to quantified password construction policy mandates, associated supporting services and end-user working patterns, providing feedback as to the impacts of these changes upon each other and the security posture of the organisation as a whole. The usability of the tool is also considered, as it must support exploration of policy choices, provide clarity, and facilitate communication with other stakeholders within the organisation.

Discussion and qualitative evaluation of the tool design by consulted CISOs demonstrate that it intuitively conveys elements of end-user usability, security and economic concerns within the information security policy decision-making process.

We intend to consult with additional CISOs to progress an implemented version of the tool. Any prospective implementation of the tool could be repackaged to be generic beyond password policy, so as to cover other aspects of information security with human and economic factors, e.g. endpoint protection policies.

It may also be conceivable to change the focus of the tool from CISO-oriented policy composition towards guiding and engaging end-users during password creation and password use, thereby shifting the emphasis of the tool to security awareness and education.

7. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Appendix A

A1. Scenario 1: Password Cracking in the Cloud

“A senior manager of your organisation has come to you having read an article claiming that password cracking attempts can be run within “cloud” computing environments, making it easier to find the financial and computational resources to brute-force attack a password.

The senior manager does not trust the precautions you have taken to protect the central password tables or passwords in transit between user workstations and the authentication systems. The senior manager then demands that you take action to strengthen the organisation’s employee account passwords from the threat of exposure through this “cloud cracking” method (with the assumption that such an attack can be tailored to target enterprise authentication systems).

From reading the article, you believe that in order to keep passwords safe from cracking using the “cloud” (at least for the foreseeable future), there are three password options available to protect your organisation from such an attack.

- If mandated passwords contain both lower-case letters and numerical characters, maintain a minimum mandated password length of 12 characters.
- If mandated passwords contain lower-case letters, upper-case letters and numerical characters, maintain a minimum mandated password length of 11 characters.
- If mandated passwords contain lower-case letters, upper-case letters, numerical characters and special characters, maintain a minimum mandated password length of 10 characters.

Your organisation currently mandates 8-character passwords consisting of lower-case letters and numerical characters, so any one of these suggested mitigations represents a potentially disruptive increase in security effort for staff.

Further information associated with the original article suggests that using cloud technologies, an 8-character password consisting of lower-case letters, upper-case letters and numerical characters may be cracked within 100 days. With this you may also wish to explore your options for the frequency with which staff have to change the passwords they use to access accounts on your organisation's IT systems.

You must investigate the options available to you, while considering the effects upon staff productivity and supporting costs of increasing the effort they must expend to maintain the level of security you believe is appropriate."

A2. Scenario 2: Effects of a Hot-Desking Policy on Password Policy

"The lease on your organisation's HQ in Central London is coming to an end, and the leaseholder wants to significantly increase the rent. This has prompted your CEO to hire a Space Utilisation Consultancy to assess how well the available space is used. The consultancy's report states that on average 37% of desks are not occupied during the hours of 9am-5pm.

Your CEO has calculated that your company can give up 3 of its 6 floors, saving the company £1.5 Million in rent p.a., and is determined that the company should achieve this through "hot desking" and by abolishing all meeting rooms (except for the board room). At the moment, the company has a traditional perimeter security, with no remote access to systems, except for sales staff, who are able to enter their sales into the company's systems from home via a dedicated web service. A review conducted by the head of departments in HQ reveals that to achieve this, the company has to make the following changes:

- All sales staff (20) will no longer have any desk space in HQ. They will now exclusively work from home or access systems on-the-road. Apart from entering orders, this involves access to inventory and price information, quotations, customer databases.
- 75 employees who previously only could access systems from within HQ will now have to hot-desk and work from home. For informal meetings and/or when they need to be close to the office but no desks are available, they will have to use coffee shops close to HQ, using remote access systems. They will now have to share computers, instead of each having their own. 30% of the previously office-bound staff have said that they will not be able to work from home and so they will have to use coffee shops or other public places near to their home or the office.
- The 5 board members will have to book space in meeting rooms for formal meetings in commercial centre, and access systems remotely to present relevant information.

Major stakeholders have been given a limited amount time to lodge any objections to the "hot desking" initiative. You are in a prime position to inform the CEO of any serious security implications that this initiative may introduce. As such you should be able to explore the security implications of these new working conditions and report to the CEO any findings that you think may influence their final decision."

A3. Scenario 3: "Password Authentication vs. Fingerprint Readers"

"A new fingerprint-reading technology has become available that is cheaper to purchase than previous incarnations. It may be worthwhile investigating the possibility of replacing your organisation's password authentication systems with this new biometric-based authentication system.

The cost of each fingerprint reader is still being negotiated, so you do not need to consider it in the model. The manufacturers have also mentioned the possibility of being able to negotiate discounts if the central fingerprinting system and associated employee fingerprint readers are bought in bulk for use across your entire organisation.

However, there are a number of issues to consider in deciding whether to purchase a completely new fingerprint authentication system for your organisation:

- There would be no requirement for staff to recall a password when authenticating to the IT systems. This might result in fewer helpdesk calls.
- Systems staff will have to visit every desktop computer in the organisation to install the fingerprint readers and associated software. You plan to do this on a rolling programme over 6 months. There are 2000 desktop computers in your organisation; assuming 2 staff people work weekends, each could do 5 per hour or 35 per day, 70 per weekend, equivalent to work spanning 28 weekends.
- All employees will have to enrol their fingerprints with the system. Existing staff will do this on the first working day following installation of a reader on their desktop computer. New staff will enrol on their first day of employment. This can usually be done by the employees on their own, but you expect that 25% of them will have problems doing this, requiring a visit from a member of the helpdesk staff.
- The fingerprint readers you are considering have a typical false negative rate of around 5%, and a failure rate of 10% per year, related to how accurately people were enrolled initially. This is analogous to the problem of users re-typing or forgetting their account password. If a password reader has failed and a member of staff cannot authenticate, that would require intervention by support staff to resolve any such issues. However, with fingerprint readers, all such faults are likely to require physical intervention by support staff, resulting in longer fault resolution times. There are then typical support costs and procedures associated with biometrics, just as there are for password authentication systems (in the form of automated or manned helpdesks).
- Fingerprint readers can suffer from false positives, where an operator of a fingerprint reader may be authenticated as someone else; these readers have a typical rate of around 1%. However, a targeted attack, for example using a silicone copy of a genuine fingerprint, could have a success rate of 5%. This is analogous to the threat of passwords being guessed, in

that the authentication system believes the operator and the owner of the authenticated identity are one and the same (much like when someone else knows the "something you know" that constitutes a user's password).

- Employees with no one fixed working location will have to guarantee that any portable fingerprint readers they use (for instance as found in some makes of laptop) function correctly outside of the organisation's premises. Faults in authentication systems for biometrics have much greater implications than problems of passwords being forgotten. However the security benefits of using biometric authentication in public places over password authentication are obvious.

It is your responsibility to investigate whether your organisation should introduce a completely new fingerprint authentication system for all employees' IT accounts, replacing the existing password authentication system.

As part of this investigation it is worthwhile to consider whether the existing password authentication policy can be altered to give comparable security, productivity and cost advantages to those offered by the fingerprint system."