

# Budget Constrained Optimal Security Hardening of Control Networks for Critical Cyber-Infrastructures

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## Abstract

Competing schemes for security-hardening the Power Grid differ in their installation costs and the amount of coverage they provide against cyber attacks. Manually mapping schemes to vulnerable assets where each asset has a unique degree of criticality in an arbitrary power network configuration is a cumbersome process. Moreover finding an optimal scheme combination so as to maximum overall network security under a fixed budget constraint is an NP hard problem. In this paper we describe a dynamic programming solution to this problem and implement it along with logic-based models of the power grid, its control elements and best security practices as a tool-chain. The tool-chain takes as input a power network configuration, the budget constraints and security schemes described in logic, determines the critical assets and automatically selects an optimal scheme combination to apply to maximize security. We demonstrate the feasibility of the tool chain implementation by security hardening the IEEE power system 118-bus test case from a pool of four different best-practice schemes.

*Key words:* Security Hardening, Power Grid, IEEE 118 bus test, budget constraints

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## 1. Introduction

The Power Grid has been designed with the N-1 principal in mind, meaning that it is built to survive at least one failure. The redundant design is such that if a power asset such as a transmission line or generator were to fail the power would be routed from elsewhere without causing major blackouts. However, infrastructure that resists single points of random failure, may not survive

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malicious, intelligent attacks by disgruntled employees, terrorist networks, etc, especially if this redundancy is in the power network alone, without isolation in the control. Consider two redundant power lines, designed to handle the extra load if one or the other goes down, but essentially controlled by a common vulnerable relay.

Relays are a popular choice for protection and control in power utilities. They communicate to constantly monitor the status of equipment, and participate in real-time pilot protection schemes [18] that involve detecting and agreeing on presence of faults, de-energizing equipment to protect against short circuits and reclosing circuits automatically in an attempt to clear faults. Relays are programmed to send alarms to operational personnel in case faults cannot be cleared automatically. Despite their important role, relay configurations are generally set up with convenience and efficiency in mind rather than security. Their open accessibility from the enterprise and office LANs and sometimes even the Internet gives the adversary easy opportunities for attacks.

Various government and advisory agencies have published a substantial amount of literature [7, 8, 9] on best practices for increasing the protection (security hardening) of the Power Grid control networks against malicious cyber attacks. Unfortunately incidents keep reoccurring [19] due to nonconformance to these schemes resulting in loss of power, revenue and harm to consumers. These best practices can be implemented using security schemes that differ vastly in the kind of protection they provide against attacks. For instance firewalls may hinder DoS against control devices but will not prevent eavesdropping attacks. A link encrypter on the other hand may solve the latter attack but might prove ineffective against DoS. Additionally cost and effort to implement the two schemes will differ; consider just upgrading the firmware on a router to provide firewall services as apposed to buying special hardware to provide ‘bump in the wire’ encryption for the real-time traffic demands of control devices. Similarly cyber assets for controlling power system resources differ vastly in terms of criticality. For instance it would be be unwise to invest in an expensive security lock down of a substation that contributes less than 500 MW to the grid at the expense of cost saving on the security planning for a 50,000 MW powerplant.

Perfect security is ideal but in reality security administrators are usually faced with budget constraints and end up trying to balance cost and security. This kind of manual cyber-security planning for a network the size of the Power Grid can easily become intractable and is actually an NP hard problem. The contribution of this paper is that it recognizes the importance of spending more capital (more powerful security controls) on securing assets that are more critical. Security schemes are presented that use best practice guidelines from NIST [8] and other advisory agencies e.g. firewall, VLAN segregation, link encryption to isolate redundant power network assets in the control networks. Metrics have been proposed to evaluate the protection provided by security schemes, the cost to implement them, and determine the criticality of equipment in terms of revenue loss incurred in the event of their compromise. A pseudo-polynomial time automated solution is proposed that uses these metrics together to determine the optimal scheme selection to maximize security given a fixed budget allocated

for Power Grid security hardening.

In our previous work [1],[2] it was shown that logic-based models of the power grid, and its control elements can be used for automatic conformance checking for adherence to best security practice schemes. Similar to [2] this paper uses first order predicate logic to model power networks which consist of a set of devices such as buses, lines, loads, generators and the corresponding control network consisting of relays and their network connections. By extending, the logical model to include additional attributes such as *overloading violations*, *power flows* and *costs*, we can automatically evaluate for any arbitrary Power Grid control network, which combination of security schemes would best protect against a knowledgeable adversary who attempts to maximize his damage dealt by attacking relays that control the most critical equipment.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 provides related work on techniques for securing networks under certain constraints. Section 3 outlines the design of our security model and Section 4 shows our implementation via a tool chain based on Prolog. Section 5 describes the details of an evaluation case study of our model on the 118-bus test case to demonstrate the tool-chain functionality. We conclude the paper with a short discussion and future work in Section 6.

## 2. Related Work

Our research benefits from related work on formal analysis and model checking of the security of large scale safety critical systems as well as surveys of control systems.

A survey of a control system and the security controls in place [15] reveals a lack of authentication mechanisms, little or no patch updates, and numerous uncontrolled interconnects to the public Internet. The authors were able to break into oil and power production systems by using simple exploits such as SQL Injection. The paper argues that even with knowledge of individual vulnerabilities in the nodes of the system, there are no adequate tools for reasoning about the overall security of the system.

The SINTEF CORAS project [16] supports methodologies for risk analysis of security-critical systems by modelling threats to a system as unwanted features of the system in question. This allows users to model a system and its associated threats as Unified Modelling Language (UML) diagrams. With the UML diagrams the users can perform security risk assessment. It also provides an XML schema for exchanging the risk assessment data and a vulnerability assessment report format. This allows system designers and users to communicate in a more formal and standardized language.

Dewri et al. [3] use attack trees to model networks and employ evolutionary algorithms to solve the optimization problem of what subset of security measures to use so that the cost of implementing these measures and the cost of residual damage is minimized.

Salmeron et al. [12] use bilevel mathematical models to determine the most critical components in a power grid network i.e. those if taken down will cause

the most disruption in the network. Their model however does not include the use of any security schemes to protect against attacks.

In [10] the authors describe a set of security tools suitable for the stringent communication demands of power networks as well as meet the CIP security standards set by NERC and other government agencies. Merits of devices such as crypto modems, secure communication processors and firewall solutions are discussed along with their installation costs. While it is clear from this work that multiple competing tools and schemes exist for protecting power networks, how to map them to individual configurations is unclear. Certainly applying these controls in the entire network would be too cost prohibitive to be feasible.

### 3. Design

#### 3.1. Power System Model

A power system is an electric network consisting of a set of power devices  $D = \{B \cup E \cup F \cup G \cup L\}$  where

- $B$  buses;
- $E$  branches where  $E \subseteq B \times B$ ;
- $T$  transmission lines where  $T \subset E$ ;
- $F$  transformers where  $F \subset E$ ,  $E \setminus \{T \cup F\} = \emptyset$  and  $\{T \cap F\} = \emptyset$ ;
- $G$  generators;
- $L$  loads;

and a set of control devices called relays  $R$ , and substations  $S$  where  $S = \{S_i | S_i \subseteq B\}$ ,  $\bigcup_{i \neq j} S_i = B$  and  $\forall_{i,j} S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset$ ;

the relations:

- ConnectedTo*  $zCb$  where  $z \in E, G, L$  and  $b \in B$ ;
- Controls*  $rNd$  where  $r \in R$  and  $d \in D \setminus B$ ;

and a set of functions:

$$\text{linesin}(b_i) : b_i \rightarrow \mathbb{P}\{T\} \text{ bus to lines mapping where } b_i \in B; \quad (1)$$

$$\text{transin}(b_i) : b_i \rightarrow \mathbb{P}\{F\} \text{ bus to transformers mapping where } b_i \in B; \quad (2)$$

$$\text{gensin}(b_i) : b_i \rightarrow \mathbb{P}\{G\} \text{ bus to generators mapping where } b_i \in B \text{ and} \quad (3)$$

$$\forall_{\substack{b_1, b_2 \\ b_1 \neq b_2}} \text{gensin}(b_1) \cap \text{gensin}(b_2) = \emptyset;$$

$$\text{ldsin}(b_i) : b_i \rightarrow \mathbb{P}\{L\} \text{ bus to loads mapping where } b_i \in B \text{ and} \quad (4)$$

$$\forall_{\substack{b_1, b_2 \\ b_1 \neq b_2}} \text{ldsin}(b_1) \cap \text{ldsin}(b_2) = \emptyset;$$

$$\text{controls}(r_i) : r_i \rightarrow (d_i, b_i) \text{ relay to device and bus mapping where} \quad (5)$$

$$r_i \in R, d_i \in D \setminus B \text{ and } b_i \in B;$$

$$\text{power}(d_i) : d_i \rightarrow P \text{ device to power mapping where} \quad (6)$$

$$P \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \text{ and } d_i \in D;$$

A power system is typically depicted as a graph in one-line diagrams where nodes are buses and edges are branches. Branches can be either of type transmission lines or transformers, through which electrical energy is transmitted to

supply customers. Devices in a power network conduct power (lines, buses), generate (generators) or consume it (loads) as depicted in function 6. Power flow (energized or deenergized) in a device is controlled by breaker/relay combinations, henceforth called just relays at the point the device connects to a bus and can be queried by function 5.

A set of buses are functionally grouped together to form substations. We distinguish between three types of substations as shown by the predicates 7-10. (1) A **power plant** is characterized by one or more generators connected to atleast one of the buses. (2) A **distribution substation** has no generators and is characterized by one or more loads connected to one of the buses. (3) A **transmission substation** has no generators and loads, connects two or more transmission lines and may have transformers to convert between two transmission voltages.

$$powerplant(s_i) = s_i \in S \wedge \exists b_i [b_i \in s_i \wedge gensin(b_i) \neq \emptyset]; \quad (7)$$

$$dist\_substation(s_i) = s_i \in S \wedge \forall b_i [b_i \in s_i \wedge gensin(b_i) = \emptyset] \wedge \quad (8)$$

$$\exists b_j [b_j \in s_i \wedge ldsin(b_j) \neq \emptyset];$$

$$trans\_substation(s_i) = s_i \in S \wedge \forall b_i [b_i \in s_i \wedge \quad (9)$$

$$gensin(b_i) \cup ldsin(b_i) = \emptyset \wedge$$

$$\exists t_i, \exists t_j [t_i, t_j \in linesin(b_i) \wedge t_i \neq t_j];$$

$$substation(s_i) = s_i \in S \wedge \quad (10)$$

$$(trans\_substation(s_i) \vee dist\_substation(s_i))$$

For instance the left part of Figure 1 shows an example of a simple power system consisting of 4 substations. The buses represent powerplants (Bus 1 and 2), transmission (Bus 4 and Bus 5), and distribution substations (Bus 3).

Relays belonging to the same substation (pred 17) communicate in real-time pilot protection schemes[18] via multicast protocols (for example 61850 GOOSE [5] messages) using the publish-subscribe paradigm over a broadcast medium such as Ethernet (pred 11). Relays across different substations can communicate if there is a wide area network (WAN) connection via modem lines between the two substations (pred 12). A WAN network access usually exists between an unmanned substation and a control center for purposes of remote engineering access, monitoring and alarms. Unless otherwise indicated on the power network schematic, we assume that a substation's control center is the powerplant with the largest generation connected to it via transmission lines (pred 15). The logical predicates below dictate when network access exist between two relays. Note that network access for instance for TCP/IP communication should not be confused with electrical power connections.

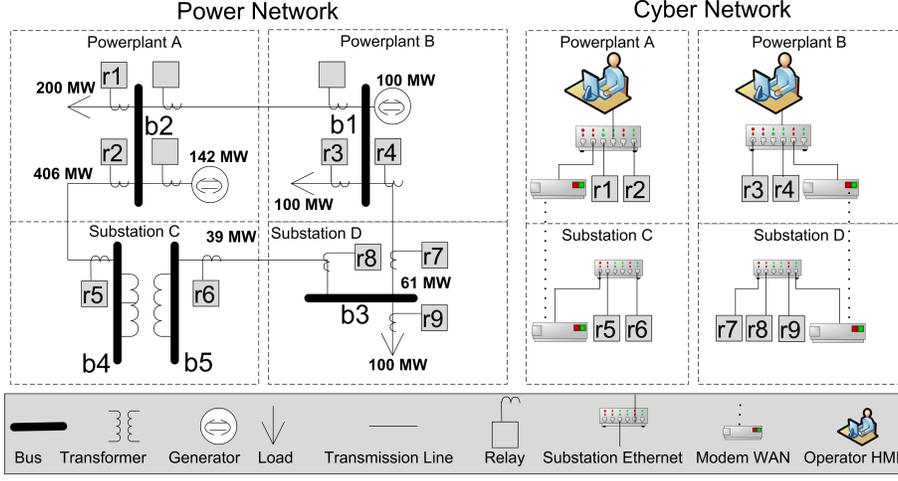


Figure 1: A simple One-line Diagram representing a Power Network and its corresponding Control Network

$$ethernetlink(r_i, r_j) = r_i, r_j \in R \wedge \exists s \in S \quad (11)$$

$$[s \in belongsto(r_i) \wedge s \in belongsto(r_j)];$$

$$modemlink(r_i, r_j) = r_i, r_j \in R \wedge (modem(r_i, r_j) \vee modem(r_j, r_i)) \quad (12)$$

$$netaccess(r_i, r_j) = r_i, r_j \in R \wedge (ethernetlink(r_i, r_j) \vee modemlink(r_i, r_j)); \quad (13)$$

where we have the helper functions:

$$modem(r_i, r_j) = r_i, r_j \in R \wedge \exists s_i \in S [s_i \in belongsto(r_i) \wedge \quad (14)$$

$$substation(s_i) \wedge \exists s_j \in S [s_j \in controlctr(s_i) \wedge s_j \in belongsto(r_j)];$$

$$controlctr(s_i) = \{s_j \in S | s_j \in adjacentplants(s_i) \wedge \forall s_k \in S \quad (15)$$

$$[s_k \in adjacentplants(s_i) \wedge (power(s_j) \geq power(s_k))];$$

$$adjacentplants(s_i) = \{s_j \in S | powerplant(s_j) \wedge \exists b_i \in s_i, \exists b_j \in s_j \quad (16)$$

$$[linesin(b_i) \cap linesin(b_j) \neq \emptyset];$$

$$belongsto(r_i) = \{s_i \in S | \exists d_i \exists b_i [(d_i, b_i) \in controls(r_i) \wedge b_i \in s_i]; \quad (17)$$

**Definition 1.** A contingency is a condition where a set of devices  $D_i$  are taken out of service during power system operation by misconfiguration of their controlling relays  $R_i$  that causes a violation in a set of other devices  $D_j$  where  $D_i \cup D_j = \emptyset$  i.e. the set of devices  $D_j$  exceed their maximum operating limits.

In any electric network, current and voltage are governed by Kirchhoff's current and voltage law and the current flow through the branches is governed by a generalization of Ohm's resistive law. Therefore there is a current limit on each line. If one line is not operational due to some contingency, the current flow will take a different path in the network. This may cause a current in a branch to increase to a dangerous level and might cause a heating and melting of the wires. Similarly if a transformer or a generator is forced to operate beyond its intended capacity violations may occur causing malfunctioning, for instance burnt insulation and wiring. Since relays can be operated remotely, the ability to cause contingencies offers the malicious adversary an excellent avenue of attack. Function 18 returns the device violations which occur when a set of devices have a contingency.

$$conting(R_i) : R_i \rightarrow D_j \text{ where } R_i \subset R, D_j \subset D; \quad (18)$$

**Definition 2.** *Loss is a metric to estimate the extent of the damage caused by violations and is directly proportional to the product of the cost (per hr) of unmet demand  $cost_{umd}$ , the load shed (per hr) and the time (per hr) to repair the violations of all  $n$  devices under violation:*

$$loss(D') = \sum_{\substack{D' \subset D \\ d_i \in D'}} power(d_i).cost_{umd}.time_{repair}(d_i); \quad (19)$$

### 3.2. Threat Model

We assume a non-global, partial adversary who does not monitor all links. He is limited to one tap which can be put on any substation ethernet and between modem-to-modem links but not powerplants. He is familiar with the power network schematics and knows the exact contingencies that will cause the maximum loss, which is also his objective. He is however limited by a cost that he has to pay every time he compromises a relay needed for a contingency and this cost is deducted from the number of resources he has available. He must have network access to all relays needed to cause contingencies. Finally we assume that he has two kinds of attacks at his disposal- DoS and Masquerade attacks. The former can be protected against by firewalls and traffic segregation and latter via encryption. We assume the attacker has 2 resources and each relay compromise has a cost of 1. Under these assumptions predicate 21 returns all the pairs of relays possible to attack for an unprotected substation while predicate 20 determines the contingency relay pair with the maximum loss.

$$\begin{aligned} max_{s \in S} attack(s) = & \{(r_k, r_l) \in attack(s) | \forall (r_i, r_j) \in attack(s) \\ & [\exists D_n \in conting(r_k, r_l) [\forall D_m \in conting(r_i, r_j) \\ & [loss(D_n) \geq loss(D_m)]]]]\}; \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

where we have the helper predicate

$$\begin{aligned}
attack(s) = \{ & (r_1, r_2) \in R \times R | netaccess(r_1, r_2) \wedge \\
& \exists_{s \in S} (d_1, b_1) \in controls(r_1) [\exists (d_2, b_2) \in controls(r_2) \\
& [((b_1 \in s \wedge b_2 \in s) \vee \\
& (b_1 \in s \wedge b_2 \in controlctr(s)) \vee \\
& (b_1 \in controlctr(s) \wedge b_2 \in s))] \}];
\end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

We will now present a short discussion on why such an adversary model is realistic. Substations are unmanned, with little or no enclosure because of their large size. Modems relay substation messages across large distances mostly using telephone cables or the public internet infrastructure. Taping into either one is trivial for a determined attacker. Powerplants on the other hand are harder to infiltrate because they are usually manned with physical security in place to protect generators and the fuel. Pilot protection schemes used by relays have stringent demands such as low-latency communication and high susceptibility to replay and error propagation (small blocks of data transmitted in real-time) so traffic manipulation attacks can severely impact system reliability. Once the adversary taps into a substation he only employs cyber-attacks as apposed to physical because a) cyber attacks have the potential to cause considerably more damage (as will be evident later in the paper) and b) they are more subtle. Consider the attention drawn by attempting to damage a transformer using a shotgun as apposed to causing it overload by a simple command sent to a relay.

### 3.3. Cyber Defence Model

Given the adversary model we describe the options available to the security engineer to mitigate the damage caused.

**Definition 3.** *A security scheme  $l_i$  can be applied to a substation  $s_j$  to limit the adversary's network access. Each scheme once applied to a particular substation has an associated implementation cost  $c_{ij}$  and attack coverage  $a_{ij}$ .  $a_{ij}$  provides an estimate of the average revenue loss if the substation gets attacked despite the security scheme in place.*

The next couple of sections elaborate on the terms used in this definition by describing some schemes formalized from NIST's security best practices and how their costs and attack coverages are determined.

#### 3.3.1. Intrasubstation Traffic Segregation via Virtual LANs

Ethernet on its own provides little security from malicious intruders and segregating it into multiple IP subnets is one approach to narrowing an electronic security parameter. The NIST [8] guide on SCADA security states that:

“VLANs allow switches to enforce security policies and segregate traffic at the Ethernet layer mitigating the risks of broadcast storms that may result from port scanning or worm activity.”

The vlan predicate 22 maps a substation ethernet into  $n$  multiple broadcast lan segments separated by vlan switches such that no groups of relays whose contingencies will together cause a violation belong in the same segment.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{vlan}(s) \geq \min_{s \in S} \{n | X_1, \dots, X_n, \bigcup_{X_i \in \mathbb{P}\{R\}} X_i = \text{relaysin}(s), X_i \cap X_j = \emptyset \} \\ \forall r_l \forall r_k \in X_i \ [conting(r_l, r_k) = \emptyset]; \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

where we define the helper function:

$$\text{relaysin}(s) = \{r \in R | s \in \text{belongsto}(r)\}; \quad (23)$$

Figure 2 illustrates how a vlan supporting switch and router combination can be used (right) to replace a simple hub-spoke ethernet configuration (left) to segment the network into multiple broadcast domains such that dependent relay combinations needed to cause violations are isolated.

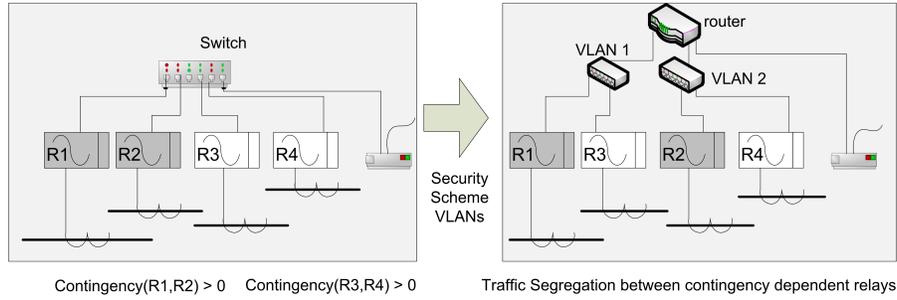


Figure 2: Intrasubstation Traffic segregation using VLANs

$$\begin{aligned} \text{attack}_{\text{vlan}}(s) = \{ (r_1, r_2) \in \text{attack}(s) | \\ \exists (d_1, b_1) \in \text{controls}(r_1) [\exists (d_2, b_2) \in \text{controls}(r_2) [ \\ (\text{ethernetlink}(r_1, r_2) \wedge \exists X_i \in \text{vlan}(s) [r_1, r_2 \in X_i \wedge b_1, b_2 \in s]) \vee \\ (\text{modemlink}(r_1, r_2) \wedge ((b_1 \in s \wedge b_2 \in \text{ctrlcenter}(s)) \vee \\ (b_2 \in s \wedge b_1 \in \text{ctrlcenter}(s))))]]] \}; \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

As shown in pred 24 the attacker is restricted in the network access he has, and can only compromise devices if they are in the same vlan as his initial tap or accessible via a modem link.

### 3.3.2. Intersubstation Traffic Segregation via Firewalls

While the vlan scheme limits the adversary from attacking multiple targets within a substation it provides little or no protection against attacks traversing multiple connected substations. According to NIST’s CIP best security practices rules [9, 7] firewalls should be used to segregate traffic between process control networks (PCN), and engineering and monitoring access. Predicate 25 shows that in a firewall protected modem link the only avenue of attack is the substation ethernet.

$$\begin{aligned}
 attack_{firewall}(s) = & \{ (r_1, r_2) \in attack(s) \mid ethernetlink(r_1, r_2) \wedge \\
 & \exists(d_1, b_1) \in controls(r_1) [\exists(d_2, b_2) \in controls(r_2) [ \\
 & (b_1, b_2 \in s) ] ] \}; \quad (25)
 \end{aligned}$$

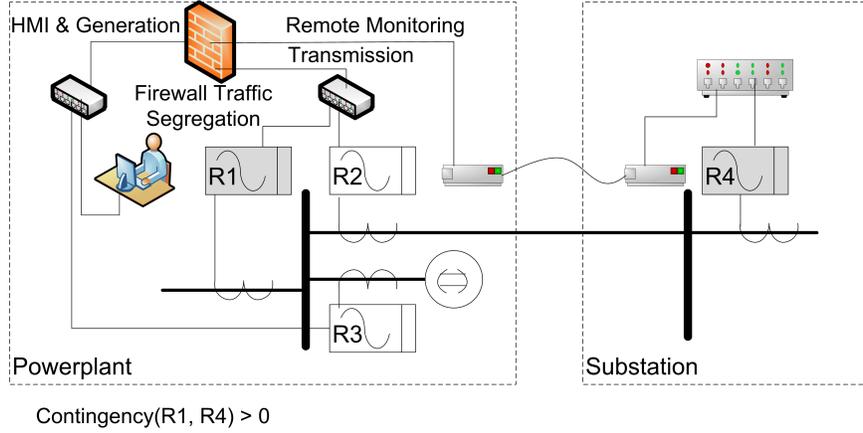


Figure 3: Intersubstation Traffic segregation using Firewalls

Figure 3 illustrates how a three-port firewall segregates control traffic into multiple domains; HMI/local generation control, transmission and remote monitoring preventing the attacker from using a compromised modem connection to exploit a cross substation contingency i.e. between relays 1 and 4.

### 3.3.3. Intersubstation Traffic Encryption via Link Encryption

Security best-practice guides recommend encrypting traffic when sending control messages over a WAN connection. Since most relays do not support encryption schemes, special devices may be installed next to modems to encrypt all outgoing traffic. A serial encrypting transceiver [11] is an example of such

a device which acts as a ‘bump in the wire’ standalone cryptographic module designed to protect latency-sensitive devices. A logic function to determine where to place an encrypting transceiver would be similar to the one above shown for firewalls except that there would be one placed on either side of a WAN link to perform both encryption and decryption functions. Note that an encryption transceiver does not duplicate the functionality of a firewall in fact both devices are complementary. This fact becomes clearer in the evaluation section where we show how a composite firewall plus link encryption scheme provides more security than any one scheme used in isolation.

#### 3.4. Implementation Costs and Attack Coverage of Security Schemes

For the purpose of the security analysis, the result of the implementation of the security schemes in a substation is the determination of attack coverage reduction and implementation cost. We determine implementation cost of a scheme to be the sum of the cost of security control devices used in implementing that scheme. For instance the cost of implementing VLANs in a substation  $s_j$  would use the predicate 22 to determine the number of switches needed.

For a scheme  $l_i$  implemented on substation  $s_j$ , predicate 26 gives a set of relay pairs  $V$  that are vulnerable to attack because they cause contingencies and  $V' = attack_{l_i}(s_j) \cap vuldevpairs(s_j)$  gives the pairs that are not protected by the security scheme.

$$vuldevpairs(s_j) = \{(r_x, r_y) \in attack(s_j) | conting(r_x, r_y) \neq \emptyset\}; \quad (26)$$

Since the adversary will always try to exploit the contingencies in order of greatest to least damage, we can sort the relay pairs  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$  where  $R_1, R_2, R_n \subset R$  returned by predicate 26 according to loss damage (predicate 19)  $loss(D_1), loss(D_2), \dots, loss(D_n)$  where  $D_1 = conting(R_1)$ ,  $D_2 = conting(R_2)$ , and  $D_n = conting(R_n)$ . We can associate to every contingency  $D_i$  a parameter  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}_{\leq 1}^+$  that represents the scheme’s inability of preventing the exploiting of the contingency. Then the attack coverage  $a_{i,j}$  is given by equation 27.

$$a_{i,j} = \alpha_1 \cdot loss(D_1) + (1 - \alpha_1) \cdot \alpha_2 \cdot loss(D_2) + (1 - \alpha_1) \cdot (1 - \alpha_2) \cdot \alpha_3 \cdot loss(D_3) \\ + \dots + (1 - \alpha_1) \cdot \dots \cdot (1 - \alpha_{n-1}) \cdot \alpha_n \cdot loss(D_n) \quad (27)$$

Generally the set of relay pairs  $V'$  would have an  $\alpha = 1$  indicating that an attack can exploit this contingency successfully every time, while the set  $V \setminus V'$  would have a lower  $\alpha$  value. A value of 0 indicates that the scheme completely protects against attacks. The computation of  $a_{i,j}$  can be considered as a probability that the attacker is able to exploit the given contingency during the attack. The attacker tries to exploit the contingency associated with the maximum coverage. The success of this action is determined by the probability  $\alpha_1$ . In case of failure (due to network access denied by a security scheme), the attacker would try to exploit the next contingency with the maximum loss and so on, until one exploitable contingency is found.

### 3.5. Optimal Security Hardening Algorithm

Given a set of substations and a set of independent strategies each with its unique implementation cost and coverage against malicious attacks the budget problem is to search for the optimal combination of strategies to apply at each individual substation so as to maximize the overall network security while remaining within a fixed budget.

Assuming that only one strategy can be applied at each substation it is easy to see that enumerating all possibilities is an NP-hard problem. The proof lies in a straightforward reduction from the Multiple-Choice 0-1 Knapsack problem (MCKS). The goal of a general 0-1 Knapsack problem is to select a set of objects, each with an associated weight and a revenue, such that the sum of the weight is below a predefined bound and the total revenue is maximized. In the Multiple - Choice variation of this problem, the objects are partitioned into  $n$  groups, and only a single object can be chosen from each group. This problem can be reduced to our formulation by considering each object to be a different security scheme and each substation to be one of the groups in which the objects are partitioned. The weight of each object becomes the cost of the implementation of the security scheme and the revenue is the opposite of the attack coverage (i.e., such that the maximization of the revenue can be expressed as a minimization of the attack coverage). By selecting the security schemes that minimize the attack coverage under a specified budget, we are solving the general MCKS problem.

The formulation of the optimal security hardening problem is defined as follow. Given the schemes  $l_1, \dots, l_m$  and given a set of substations  $s_1, \dots, s_n$ , we define a variable  $x_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}$  to be equal to 1 if the security scheme  $l_i$  is applied to the substation  $s_j$ , 0 otherwise. Each security scheme  $l_i$ , when applied to a substation  $s_j$ , has an associated implementation cost  $c_{ij}$  and an associated attack coverage  $a_{ij}$ . The budget allocated for security hardening is expressed as *budget*. The problem can be expressed as in equation 28.

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \cdot x_{ij} \\ & \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij} \cdot x_{ij} \leq \text{budget} \quad (28) \\ \text{For } x_{ij} \in \{0, 1\} \text{ where } \quad & \forall j \quad \sum_{i=1}^m x_{ij} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

However by assuming that the *principal of optimality* holds i.e. the optimal security strategy decided at a particular substation only depends upon the budget spent so far and is independent of all previous strategy decisions at other substations, a recursive dynamic programming solution can be formulated.

We divide the recursive solution into multiple states  $x_j$  where  $j$  denotes the substation number currently under consideration in that state and  $x$  is the remaining budget. Similarly  $a(l_j)$  denotes the attack coverage for strategy  $l_j$ , and  $c(l_j)$  the corresponding cost. If  $f_j(x_j)$  is final attack coverage for the state

$x_j$  then we have the dynamic programming solution given by the recurrence relations in equation 29.

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x) &= \min_{l_1:c(l_1)\leq x_1} \{a(l_1)\} \\ f_j(x_j) &= \min_{l_j:c(l_j)\leq x_j} \{a(l_j) + f_{j-1}(x_j - c(l_j))\} \text{ for } j > 1 \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

The first equation in 29 is the base case for one substation which returns the security scheme with the minimum attack coverage whose cost is below the budget. The second equation depicts the forward recursion returning the minimum  $a(l_j)$  of the current state plus the minimum of the last state. It is easy to see that the  $f_j(x_j)$ s can be stored in a table (or *memorized* in logical programming as will become apparent in our Prolog implementation later) preventing a state explosion and allowing a polynomial time evaluation.

#### 4. Tool-Chain Architecture and Implementation

Fig 4 shows a high level architectural diagram of the tool-chain detailing how the various components sit with respect to each other. We give a detailed description of each of the various modules.

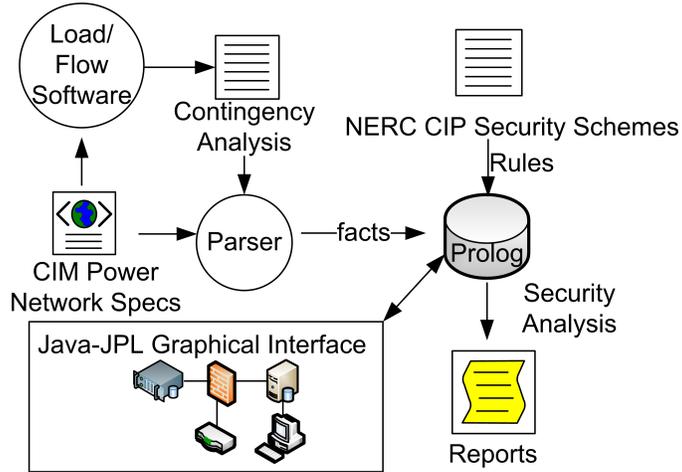


Figure 4: High-Level Architectural Diagram of the Security Assessment Tool-kit

##### 4.1. Parsing Specification Files

The logical model of the power network is auto-generated from specifications written in the standard descriptive language based on Common Information Models (CIM) [6] with the help of a parser tool and stored in a Prolog database. CIM is an object-oriented cyber infrastructure modeling language proposed by the Electric Power Research Institute (EPRI) and represents all major objects normally used within an electric utility enterprise. The objects are represented

```

1
2 % device (ID, TYPE, SUBSTATION, POWER, OPERATE.LIMIT, COORDX, COORDY)
3 device(bus2, bus, [a], 142, ..., 10, 20).
4 device(bus4, bus, [c], 142, ..., 10, 50).
5
6 device(load2, load, [a], 200, ..., 30, 40).
7 device(line3, line, [a, c], 406, 500, ...).
8
9 % bydirectionlink (SRC, DEST)
10 connected(load2, bus2).
11 connected(line3, bus2).
12 connected(line3, bus4).

```

Table 1: Power Network Models Described as Prolog Facts

as classes having attributes and relations to other classes. Included objects bundled in packages cover equipment, topology, load data, generation profiles, measurement and scheduling. The CIM RDF schema is documented as the IEC standard 61970-501 and is self-describing because it is based on XML. We create a mapping of the classes in the RDF model to entities in our security model. The parser identifies the main entities such as devices and connectivity and then proceeds to populate the attributes of the entities such as power and voltage limits. The attributes can be easily populated by looking at the properties and associations for each object in the CIM model.

4.2. Implementation in Predicate Calculus

We implemented our predicate calculus security model as a form of Horn Clause logic in Prolog using SWI-Prolog version 5.6. The various devices, connectivity and their properties identified by the parser were asserted as ‘facts’ and their ‘attributes’ in the Prolog knowledge base. Table 1 shows how Prolog facts describe buses, loads and lines and their interconnections. Prolog facts can be thought of as relational tables for example device IDs serve as foreign keys in the connected entities and primary keys in the device entities. The connected predicate shows a bidirectional link between two devices.

4.3. Contingency Analysis

Various power-flow simulation software both commercial e.g. Powerworld[13] and opensource e.g. InterPSS[14] exist that allow contingency analysis of power networks. A contingency analysis via a power-flow simulation software will take out of service each device, one-by-one, resolve the power flow, and then check that no *violations* have occurred e.g no lines have exceeded their rated capacity. Industry planning and operating criteria often refer to the  $n - 1$  rule, which holds that a system must operate in a stable and secure manner following any single transmission or generation outage. We scripted the Powerworld software to do an  $n - 1$  and an  $n - 2$  contingency analysis on each substation and its associated control center in a power network schematic essentially returning the tuples (*contingentdevices, violations*) to be stored in the Prolog knowledge base. Predicate 18 essentially searches through this table for its solution.

#### 4.4. Security Analysis Implementation as Logical Rules

This section describes how the various logic predicates are implemented as Prolog rules using two representative examples that of VLAN security scheme selection (Eq. 22) and the max-security fixed budget optimization problem (Eq. 29).

---

#### Algorithm 1 Greedy algorithm for assigning VLANs to devices

---

```

/* At the start, all nodes do not have a label associated with them */
l(n) = -1, ∀n
/* Start the algorithm by assigning label = 1 */
c = 1
Order nodes in non-increasing degree order
/* until all nodes have labels */
while ∃n : l(n) == -1 do
  for each node n do
    if l(n) == -1 and ∀ neighbor nodes j, l(j) ≠ c then
      Assign c to n
    end if
  end for
  c = c + 1
end while

```

---

##### 4.4.1. Device to VLAN Assignment

The cost of implementation of this scheme varies depending on the number of VLANs used to secure the substation: high number of VLANs requires more equipment and higher set up costs. For this reason, it is necessary to provide an estimate of the number of VLANs needed. In order to minimize the number of VLANs, the scheme proposes to segregate only devices that, if exploited together, can create a violation. This problem can be mapped into a graph coloring problem. In this model, each device is a node in the graph and edges are created according to the contingency analysis: if two devices can be used together to create a violation, then an edge exists between the them. The goal of this problem is to find the minimum number of labels (i.e., VLANs) that we need to assign to each node such that two connected nodes do not share the same label. For determining the solution to this problem, we used a greedy algorithm for graph coloring, shown in Figure 1.

##### 4.4.2. Optimal Selection of Security Schemes subject to Budget Constraint

Table 2 describes part of the implementation of the optimal security scheme selection algorithm described previously. Note that some of the predicates and attributes have been taken out for brevity. We describe the listing bottom up. Line 29 is the base case and line 34 the recursive case of equations 29. They take as arguments the state  $J$  and the total budget constraint  $X_j$  and return the overall Loss in *Result* and a list representing the schemes applied at each substation. The *mklist* rule is called (line 37) in the recursive case to merge the list of current attack coverages with that of the most optimal results in the last state subject to the budget constraint. Lines 8 and 14 detail the implementation of the *mklist* rule, the former dealing with the boundary condition of the budget running out while the latter deals with the regular

<pre> 1 :- dynamic stored/1. 2 memo(Goal) :- 3   ( stored(Goal) =&gt; true ; 4     Goal, assertz(stored(Goal)) ). 5 6 mklst(.,[],[],.,., L2, L2, L3, SLst) :- !. 7 8 mklst(J,[CH CT],[_  AT],Xj,Acc,MergeAj,Acc3,SLst):- 9   Y is Xj-CH, Y &lt; 0, 10  append(Acc,[_],List1), 11  append(Acc3,[0],List2), 12  mklst(J,CT,AT,Xj,List1,MergeAj,List2,SLst). 13 14 mklst(J,[CH CT],[AH AT],Xj,Acc,MergeAj,Acc3,SLst):- 15  J1 is J-1, Y is Xj-CH, Y &gt; -1, 16  memo(f(J1,Y,Fjminus1,PrevSchemeLst)), 17  NewH is AH+Fjminus1, 18  append(Acc,[NewH],List1), 19  append(Acc3,[PrevSchemeLst],List2), 20  mklst(J,CT,AT,Xj,List1,MergeAj,List2,SLst). </pre>	<pre> 21 % cmin(Aj,Cj,Result,Xj,Index) 22 % returns min of List Aj and its 23 % index s.t. corresponding 24 % Cj[index] &lt; Xj 25 26 % substation(ID,List_of.Scheme_costs, 27 % List_of.scheme_attck_covgs) 28 29 f(1,X1,Result,[Index]) :- 30  substation(1,C1,A1), 31  cmin(A1,C1,Result,X1,Index). 32 33 34 f(J,Xj,Result,[Index Scheme]) :- 35  J &gt; 1, 36  substation(J,Cj,Aj), 37  mklst(J,Cj,Aj,Xj,[],MergeAj,[],SLst), 38  cmin(MergeAj,Cj,Result,Xj,Index), 39  element.at(Scheme,SLst,F). </pre>
---	---

Table 2: Optimal Security Scheme Selection under Budget Constraint: Prolog Implementation

case. Once the attack coverages list has been completely processed the *mklst* predicate on line 8 unifies the under process lists *Acc* and *Acc3* with the result *MergeAj* and *SLst*. Note the memorization function used in line 16 and declared on line 2 that allows computed solutions to be stored in a look-up table enabling the dynamic programming optimization.

#### 4.5. Graphical Control User Interface

In order to allow the tool to be used by security analysts and have easy and fast use we added a Java based User Interface frontend to the Prolog engine. JPL is a set of Java classes and C functions providing an interface between Java and Prolog by the embedding of a Prolog engine within the Java VM. By annotating each device in our CIM specification with x and y coordinates we can easily import and display the SCADA network in a Java grid panel. The advantage of this approach over static network visualization tools is that it allows more user interaction. For instance a security engineer can hover a mouse over a device icon to see a detailed listing of its security schemes or point and click on devices of interest and formulate a query.

## 5. Evaluation and Results

The IEEE 118 Bus test case was used to test and analyze the optimal security hardening problem formulation. Data for the IEEE 118 bus test case representing a portion of the American Electric Power System in the Midwestern US, was downloaded from the University of Washington Power System [4]. The system consists of 118 buses, 186 transmission elements, 19 committed generators with a total capacity of 5,859 MW, and 99 load buses with a total load of 4,519 MW. The complete power flow simulation along with the line limits that we used can be found at the Powerworld website [17]. While our tests were run on the entire network we walk the reader through just a portion of the analysis (south-west part of the network) shown in figure 5 for easy understanding.

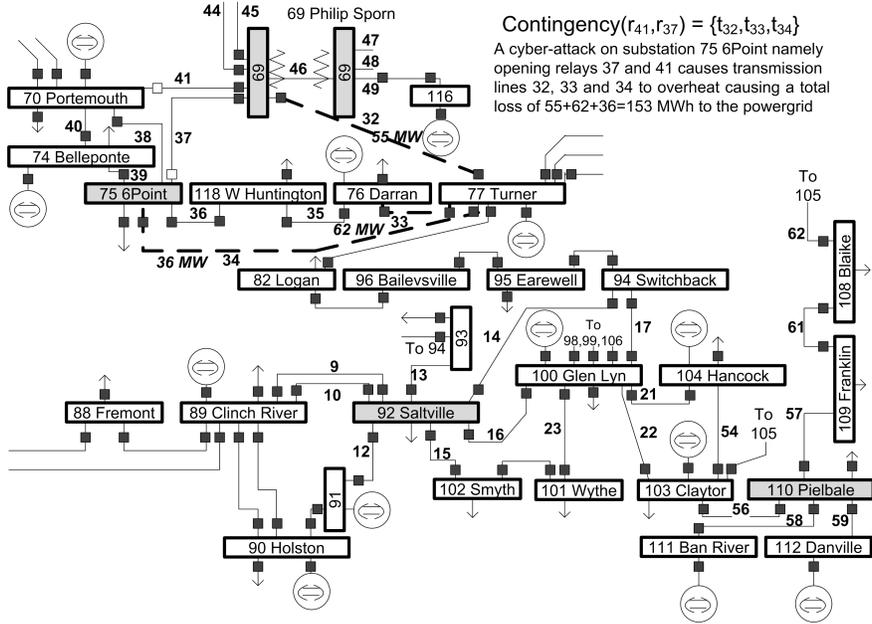


Figure 5: A Portion of the 118 Bus Test Case Showing Load-Flow Analysis of Substations

Suitable candidate devices were picked for each of the security strategies identified. We use the label *VLAN* to indicate the intra-substation traffic segregation via Virtual LANs scheme, the label *FWALL* to indicate the intersubstation traffic segregation via firewall scheme, and *FLINK* for the composite scheme of firewall and link encryption combined. Table 5 gives a descriptive summary of each of security schemes applied along with its coverage and an estimate of individual device cost required to implement each one. In the case of composite strategies, the devices shared among the two security solutions are counted only once. For example, in the case of the *VLAN + FWALL* strategy, the CISCO 1760 router can be used, at the same time, for implementing both the *VLAN* and the *FWALL* strategies. Hence, its cost is counted only once.

Security Scheme	Scheme <i>VLAN</i>	Scheme <i>FWALL</i>	Scheme <i>FLINK</i>
Description	Intra-substation traffic segregation using VLANs	Inter-substation traffic segregation using firewalls	Firewalls and link-level encryption across substation boundaries
Threat types mitigated	Traffic Manipulation	Traffic Manipulation	Traffic Manipulation - Masquerade
Typical Deployment Budget	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Cisco 1760 router (\$1000)</li> <li>•Cisco Catalyst switch 2950 (\$500) for each VLAN</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Cisco 1760 router (\$1000)</li> <li>•Stateful Firewall Integrated Router (\$200)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Cisco 1760 router (\$1000)</li> <li>•Stateful Firewall Integrated Router (\$200)</li> <li>•Serial Encrypting Transceiver SEL-3021 (\$540)</li> </ul>

Table 3: A cost-coverage comparison of Security Schemes Applied

Once the security strategies have been defined, the first step of the analysis is determining the attack coverages and overall loss for each substation. This

process is split into two parts. In the first part of the analysis each contingency is analyzed to determine the degree of protection that a given security scheme provides. During this process, each security scheme associates a value of  $\alpha$  to each contingency. In the second phase of the analysis, the substation attack coverage is computed using Eq 27.

Tables 4 (a), (b), (c) and (d) show the results of the analysis. In each table, the devices that are part of each contingency are shown on the first column, *Contingency*. The second column, *Loss*, reports an estimation of the loss caused by an exploitation of the associated contingency, as defined in Section 3. In this subset of the power grid, all violations affect lines. In the estimation of the loss we assume an unmet demand cost of \$1000 per hour and a time to repair of 10 hours for all violations. Different choices of coefficients would affect the losses of all contingencies in the same way, hence not affecting the final results. Coefficients would have been different for violations that affect transformers, but the overall analysis procedure would not change. The attack coverage is expressed in ten thousand dollar units. The last columns of each table report the degree of exploitability of each contingency using different security schemes.

The results for the analysis of substation 92 Saltville are reported in Table 4a. For each security scheme, each consistency has been analyzed using the rules described in Section 3. We consider an  $\alpha$  value of 1 for contingencies that are not protected by the security scheme, a value of 0.5 if protected by the *VLAN* or *FWALL* scheme. A value of 0 is assigned if the contingency is protected by the *FLINK*: this security scheme provides more protection than *FWALL* alone as it protects against both DoS and Masquerade attacks.

In substation 92 Saltville, the security scheme *VLAN* does not protect against the contingency with the highest loss. Hence, the overall attack coverage for the *VLAN* strategy is \$1,777,000, as if no security scheme is used. Security scheme *FWALL* partially protects against the contingencies with more losses, and we obtain an overall attack coverage of \$1,502,000. Security schemes *VLAN + FWALL* and *FLINK* and *VLAN + FLINK* improve the protection, leading to lower overall attack coverages.

Table 4 (a) also reports the cost of applying each strategy and the substation attack coverage, obtained using Eq 27.

The same process has been applied to substations 69 Philip Sporn, 75 6Point, 92 Saltville and 110 Pielbale (the greyed substations shown in Figure 5). Results of this analysis are reported in Tables 4 (b),(c) and (d).

Given the values of Tables 4 (a), (b), (c) and (d) and a finite budget, the optimal security hardening algorithm finds the optimal assignment of security schemes to substations that minimizes the overall attack coverage.

Without the application of any security scheme, the overall attack coverage is \$5,964,000. As an example, the results for a budget of \$7000 are elaborated in Table 5. The symbol ‘-’ represents the choice of not implementing a security scheme.

As Table 5 shows, the optimal allocation of the budget (method A) is to implement scheme *VLAN + FLINK* in substation 75 6Point, scheme *FLINK* in substation 92 Saltville and scheme *VLAN* in substation 110 Pielbale. No

Contingency	Loss [\$10k]	$\alpha_{VLAN}$	$\alpha_{FWALL}$	$\alpha_{VLAN+FWALL}$	$\alpha_{FLINK}$	$\alpha_{VLAN+FLINK}$
6,13	112.5	1	0.5	0.5	0	0
6,14	177.5	1	0.5	0.5	0	0
6,15	128	1	0.5	0.5	0	0
9,10	100.9	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
13,16	57.3	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
13,15	57.3	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
14,16	62.8	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
14,15	112.5	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
6	65.2	1	0.5	0.5	0	0
Scheme cost		\$2000	\$1200	\$2200	\$1740	\$2740
Substation Attack coverage		177.7	150.2	148.2	112.5	94.7
(a) Substation 92 Saltville						
Contingency	Loss [\$10k]	$\alpha_{VLAN}$	$\alpha_{FWALL}$	$\alpha_{VLAN+FWALL}$	$\alpha_{FLINK}$	$\alpha_{VLAN+FLINK}$
41,37	153.8	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
46	94.4	1	1	1	1	1
26	52.5	1	0.5	0.5	0	0
32,46	7.8	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
48,46	7.8	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
Scheme cost		\$2000	\$1200	\$2200	\$1740	\$2740
Substation Attack coverage		124.1	153.8	124.1	153.8	124.1
(b) Substation 69 Philip Sporn						
Contingency	Loss [\$10k]	$\alpha_{VLAN}$	$\alpha_{FWALL}$	$\alpha_{VLAN+FWALL}$	$\alpha_{FLINK}$	$\alpha_{VLAN+FLINK}$
41,37	153.8	1	0.5	0.5	0	0
36	62.4	1	0.5	0.5	0	0
37,34	62.4	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
41,38	51.9	1	0.5	0.5	0	0
Scheme cost		\$2000	\$1200	\$2200	\$1740	\$2740
Substation Attack coverage		153.8	108.1	103.5	62.4	31.2
(c) Substation 75 6Point						
Contingency	Loss [\$10k]	$\alpha_{VLAN}$	$\alpha_{FWALL}$	$\alpha_{VLAN+FWALL}$	$\alpha_{FLINK}$	$\alpha_{VLAN+FLINK}$
56,58	111.3	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
57,58	59.7	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5
Scheme cost		\$ 2000	\$1200	\$2200	\$1740	\$2740
Substation Attack coverage		70.6	111.3	70.6	111.3	70.6
(d) Substation 110 Pielbale						

Table 4: Quantification of the coverage provided by each security scheme to the contingencies

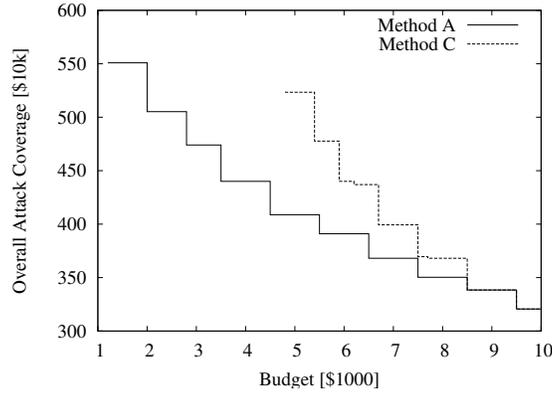


Figure 6: Attack coverage on IEEE 118 Bus Test Case obtained with methods A and C at different budget levels.

Substation	Selected scheme	Substation attack coverage [\$10k]	Scheme Cost
69 Philip Sporn	-	153.8	\$0
75 6Point	$VLAN + FLINK$	31.2	\$ 2740
92 Saltville	$FLINK$	112.5	\$1740
110 Pielbale	$VLAN$	70.6	\$2000

Table 5: Assignment of security schemes to substations (method A) with a \$7000 budget.

security scheme has been applied to substation 69 Philip Sporn. This solution has an overall attack coverage of \$3,681,000, the minimum value obtainable using this budget. The fact that no security scheme has been applied to one of the substations might seem counterintuitive, however this is a consequence of having a finite budget. If we were to apply any security scheme to substation 69, the cost of the solution would go over the budget. On the other hand, if we define a new security scheme assignment method (method C) where some security scheme must be applied to each substation, we obtain the solution reported in Table 6. The overall attack coverage of this solution is \$4,073,000, which is higher than our original solution.

Substation	Selected scheme	Substation attack coverage [\$10k]	Scheme Cost
69 Philip Sporn	<i>VLAN</i>	124.1	\$2000
75 6Point	<i>FLINK</i>	62.4	\$1740
92 Saltville	<i>FWALL</i>	150.2	\$1200
110 Pielbale	<i>VLAN</i>	70.6	\$2000

Table 6: Security schemes assignment (method C) with a \$7000 budget.

Given no constraints over the budget, the best allocation of security schemes is reported in Table 7. We call this security scheme allocation method B and, in this case, this allocation is possible only with a budget of \$9480.

Substation	Selected scheme	Substation attack coverage [\$10k]	Scheme Cost
69 Philip Sporn	<i>VLAN</i>	124.1	\$2000
75 6Point	<i>VLAN + FLINK</i>	31.2	\$2740
92 Saltville	<i>VLAN + FLINK</i>	94.7	\$2740
110 Pielbale	<i>VLAN</i>	70.6	\$2000

Table 7: Assignment of security schemes to substations with no budget limit (method B).

Figure 6 reports the total attack coverage for all substations when different budgets are allocated for security hardening. Method C results start only after a budget of \$4800: before that value there is no assignment that provides a security scheme to each substation. It can be seen that method C provides an higher overall attack coverage for the same budget.

## 6. Discussion and Conclusion

In this paper, we addressed the Power Grid security administrators’ dilemma, namely, how to select, an optimal combination of security hardening schemes from a set of choices so that not only is the total attack coverage minimized but also the total installation cost is under a certain budget. The power network and the different security schemes were modelled in first order predicate logic and implemented as part of a tool-chain designed for easy extendability. The security-budget optimization was formulated as a dynamic programming knapsack problem allowing it to be solvable in pseudo-polynomial time. The tool-chain was evaluated on the IEEE 118-bus test case with 4 security schemes.

Our model for estimating cost of installing a security scheme is a little simplistic taking into account only the total monetary value of the security devices

required. In reality there may be a lot more cost factors involved such as that of installation, system downtime, incompatibility, training and effort. Our solution relies on the premise that security schemes are independent meaning that the choice we make in one state is independent of the choices we made in previous states. More complicated schemes may effect the security of multiple substations at the same time e.g. an authentication scheme for a shared wireless connection. This case can be easily incorporated by assuming all candidate substations as one state. Our threat model only covered cyber attacks on relays, while in reality there are a host of cyber devices e.g. PLCs, RTUs, historians etc. in a power network that control power assets in a variety of ways. We believe our model can encompass these devices but we need more detailed networks for evaluation. The IEEE Power System Test case archive does not contain any other cyber device other than breaker/relays. The assignment of degree of protection  $\alpha$  to the various security schemes for the 118 bust test case is course grained based only on the type of attacks the scheme protects. For Power Grid schematics with more detailed control network information the calculation of  $\alpha$  would be more involved, taking into account attack trees. We refer the interested reader to [1] that demonstrates examples with this kind of analysis.

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