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**Science and Technology Issues
Relating to Data Quality in C2 Systems**

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Abstract

A command and control (C2) system depends crucially on having high-quality underlying data. There is still no “best” set of data quality dimensions and metrics for C2. We consider the 16 data quality criteria identified by the Total Data Quality Management (TDQM) research community, as well as the dimensions identified by the ISO 8000 standard. We map these into the criteria commonly applied by the intelligence community (IC), and those identified by various parts of the U.S. Department of Defense (DoD). The IC’s “usability” criterion covers several different concepts that are difficult to measure. Meanwhile, the DoD’s Net-Centric Data Strategy (NCDS) arguably does not adequately address the notion of data timeliness. The NCDS covers some important factors such as believability and reputation, but the coverage is primarily limited to using authoritative, vetted data sources. This does not address important situations where data comes from a variety of sources with varying degrees of reliability. On the other hand, the TDQM criteria do not adequately capture the notions of readiness and adaptability. Once an accepted set of data quality characteristics and associated metrics for C2 is available, there is a good case for explicitly incorporating it into C2 system operations.

1 Introduction

The transition to a net-centric environment and the increasing automation of command and control (C2) functions make the quality of the underlying data upon which decisions and actions are based critical to success. Operating on bad data can have serious consequences, especially in a military context. In the commercial arena, it is estimated that operating on poor data has an economic cost of about \$600 B annually [1]. A few of the many side effects of poor data quality include delays due to reconciling data, loss of credibility, customer dissatisfaction, compliance problems, delays, lost revenue in the commercial world, and loss of trust in the automation and computing systems. Properties that reflect good data—integrity, provenance, and timeliness, as well as the ability to share the data with others and to have a common understanding of its meaning—are intuitively desirable but are not routinely incorporated into today’s complex systems, in part, because the underlying architectures do not make data quality a primary objective of system design. In the military C2 domain, the effects of poor data can have even more disastrous consequences than in other domains. Making quality considerations an inherent part of the design and maintenance processes of C2 systems should benefit the decision making. We explore some of the associated challenges and issues.

Data is a resource that must be managed, protected, and preserved across its life cycle like any other. The dominant issues confronting data management in large enterprises have been frequently reported and include missing or incorrect data, missing or incorrect metadata deployment, redundant data storage, varying data semantics, and non-standard data formats. These issues are also of prime concern in C2 systems. Data portability (freeing the data from stove-piped applications) is also a common concern in both domains.

Various investigators have given different definitions of the terms “information” and “data,” depending on the context. For this paper, we define these terms as follows:

- **Information** is defined as knowledge concerning objects, such as facts, events, things, processes, or ideas, including concepts, that within a certain context has a particular meaning [2].
- **Data** is defined as the reinterpretable representation of information in a formalized manner suitable for communication, interpretation or processing [2].

In the context of this paper, data includes both raw and processed information and “all data assets such as system files, databases, documents, official electronic records, images, audio files, Web sites, and data access services” [3].

For C2 functions, data is used to develop situational awareness and a common operating picture (COP) by which commanders make decisions and effect control. Commanders require many types of data—ranging from logistics to weather to geospatial to tactical information—to support the various warfighter operations. Data must be collected, analyzed, and communicated via various manual and automated messages and exchanged between various C2 systems and people. A commander has little control over the sources that supply data to his C2 systems, especially in times of crisis. Each C2 system may store portions of current data and maintain some amount of past data for historical analysis purposes. The tempo of activity and the volume of data on which a system depends are both rapidly increasing, revealing many stress points in the current systems. In general terms, a modern C2 system is a large, heterogeneous, distributed, real-time processing system that is resource limited (bandwidth and computation power) at some of the end-points, with frequent disruptions and highly dynamic information flows. The data is contained in multiple, distributed storage facilities and heterogeneous databases. As data is delivered with higher frequency from more places, decision makers must become more responsive and operate faster. Modern C2 systems, especially in a coalition environment, are among the most complex systems imaginable.

In this paper, we examine a number of important science and technology (S&T) issues relating to data quality in C2 systems. First, we discuss the characterization of the various quality properties of data. We then examine several of these quality characteristics in the context of C2 systems. Finally, we offer some suggestions for further S&T areas to address some of the issues.

2 Data Quality

Data quality can be simply defined as the fitness for use of the data [4]. A more practical definition is the degree to which data “meets the requirements of its authors, users, and administrators” [5]. The key point to be taken from these definitions is that the generic notion of the quality of data, like many other ideals of quality, is dependent on context or intended use. Nevertheless, given that data is such a pervasive part of any information technology (IT) system, there are many ways of partitioning its quality properties. In some early data quality research, data was

primarily characterized by Accuracy, Completeness, Timeliness, and Standards (ACTS). This basic list has been expanded over the years in many directions. In particular, since the early 1990s, a Total Data Quality Management of (TDQM) research community [6], has expanded ACTS to 16 data quality dimensions and successfully used them in assessments of an organization's data quality environment:

- Accessibility – The extent to which data is available or easily and quickly retrievable
- Amount of Information – The extent to which the volume of data is appropriate for the task at hand
- Believability – The extent to which data is regarded as true and credible
- Reputation – The extent to which information is highly regarded in terms of its source or content
- Completeness – The extent to which information is not missing and is of sufficient breadth and depth for the task at hand
- Conciseness – The extent to which data is compactly represented
- Consistent Representation – The extent to which the data is presented in the same format
- Ease of Operations – The extent to which data is easy to operate on and apply to different tasks
- Free-of-Error – The extent to which data is correct and reliable
- Interpretability – The extent to which data is in appropriate languages, symbols, and units and the extent to which the definitions are clear
- Objectivity – The extent to which data is unbiased, unprejudiced, and impartial
- Relevancy – The extent to which data is applicable and helpful for the task at hand
- Security – The extent to which access to data is restricted appropriately to maintain its security
- Timeliness – The extent to which data is sufficiently up-to-date for the task at hand
- Understandability – The extent to which data is easily comprehended
- Value Added – The extent to which data is beneficial and provides advantages from its use

These 16 characteristics can be grouped into the following four categories:

- Intrinsic – Accuracy, reputation, believability, objectivity
- Accessibility (Operational) – Accessibility, access control
- Contextual – Relevancy, timeliness, completeness, amount of information, value added
- Representational – Conciseness, consistent representations, ease of operations, interpretability, understandability

The intrinsic properties relate to the accuracy and pedigree of the data and do not change depending on environment or intended use. Accessibility, in this usage, refers to the system properties such as how and where the data is stored and the means of protecting the data, such as

access control. Contextual properties depend on the application for which the data is used and can have temporal behavior. The representational properties are the more common notions of standardization and interoperability. These categories also help to show how the characteristics are related to each other and the environment in which they are situated.

An International Organization for Standardization (ISO) standard on Data Quality, ISO 8000 [7], is currently being developed. It is primarily aimed at quality facets of automated information exchange for the purchase of goods. ISO 8000 defines formats for descriptions of individuals, organizations, locations, and goods or services. It defines data quality using five characteristics: Syntax, Provenance, Completeness, Accuracy, and Certification and considers the processes that are needed to assure data quality. Reference [8] defines *master data* as data held by an organization that describes the independent and fundamental entities for an enterprise. For an organization, this might include descriptions of customers, suppliers, products, locations, and so forth. ISO 8000 Part 110 focuses on requirements for exchange of master data that can be checked through automation [9]. The representation and exchange of information about provenance (Part 120), accuracy (Part 130), and completeness (Part 140) have also been recently published. Provenance information, for example, may include the record of origination, transcription, abstraction validation, ownership, and transfer of ownership of data.

In general, ISO 8000 is oriented toward logistics information, manufacturing applications, or Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems. It has been supported by organizations such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the Defense Logistics Information Service (DLIS). DLIS has supported the transition of the Federal Catalog System (FCS) and NATO Codification System (NCS) into these open public standards. The Federal Logistics Information System (FLIS) provides automated data on the FCS and descriptions of items of supply for the U.S. military. It serves as the common frame of reference for Department of Defense (DoD) buyers to communicate with their industrial supplier base [10].

ISO 8000 is closely aligned with other data exchange standards, such as the ISO 22745 Open Technical Dictionary (OTD), which defines concepts for describing items, and a query interface for accessing the definitions [11]. The Electronic Commerce Code Management Association (ECCMA) Open Technical Dictionary (eOTD) is an ISO-22745-compliant dictionary that has evolved from the NCS and is directed toward the global commercial environment [12]. An eOTD catalog is composed of Extensible Markup Language (XML) files that contain information explicitly encoded using eOTD concept identifiers. This is based on the NCS, which describes a common supply language for NATO's logistical needs. Currently, over 31 million reference numbers, 22 million users, and 1.5 million organizations are registered in the system.

Another ISO Data Quality standard, the ISO/IEC [International Electrotechnical Commission] 25012 ("Data Quality Model"), is under development in the domain of software engineering and software quality [13]. This data quality standard is part of a family of standards (25012, 25020, 25021, 25030) defining systems and software engineering quality requirements and measure-

ments, called the SQuaRE standards, which are from the software perspective. The ISO/IEC 25012 document is aimed at structured data stored in computer systems and defines 15 data quality characteristics from two points of view: inherent and external. Inherent data quality is similar to the intrinsic category discussed previously, and external data quality refers to system-dependent aspects that preserve data quality. The 15 characteristics are

- Accuracy – The extent to which data has attributes that correctly represent the true value of the intended attribute of a concept of event in a specific context of use
- Completeness – The extent to which subjects associated with an entity have values for all expected attributes and related entity instances in a specific context of use
- Consistency – The extent to which data has attributes that are free from contradiction and coherent with other data in a specific context of use
- Credibility – The extent to which data has attributes that are regarded as true and believable by users in a specific context of use
- Currentness – The extent to which data has attributes that are of the right age in a specific context
- Accessibility – The extent to which data has attributes that enable it to be reached in a specific context of use, particularly by people who need supporting technology or special configuration because of some disability
- Compliance – The extent to which data has attributes that adhere to standards, conventions, or regulations in force and similar rules relating to data quality in a specific context of use
- Confidentiality – The extent to which data has attributes that ensure that it is accessed and interpreted only by authorized users in a specific context of use
- Performance – The extent to which data has attributes that can be processed and provide the expected level of performance by using the appropriate amounts and types of resources under stated conditions and in a specific context of use
- Precision – The extent to which data has attributes that are exact or that provide discrimination in a specific context of use
- Traceability – The extent to which data has attributes that provide an audit trail of accesses to the data and of any changes made to the data in a specific context of use
- Understandability – The extent to which data (and associated metadata) has attributes that enable it to be read and easily interpreted by users and are expressed in appropriate languages, symbols, and units in a specific context of use
- Availability – The extent to which data has attributes that enable it to be retrieved in a specific context of use
- Portability – The extent to which data has attributes that enable it to be moved from one platform to another, preserving the existing quality in a specific context of use
- Recoverability – The extent to which data has attributes that enable it to maintain and preserve a specified level of operations and quality, even in the event of failure, in a specific context of use

There is clear overlap with the TDQM characteristics but also some key differences, primarily from the operational viewpoint. Some of the operational characteristics that are not stressed in TDQM include Performance, Portability, Recoverability, and Availability. In ISO/IEC 25012, Compliance refers to adherence to standards and regulations, something TDQM does not explicitly consider. ISO/IEC 25012 also groups the characteristics according to whether they refer to inherent or external data quality characteristics, or both. Accuracy through Understandability are inherent, and Accessibility through Recoverability are external. Accessibility through Understandability have both features.

The intelligence community (IC) has traditionally been very concerned about data quality. The Joint Military Intelligence Committee identified six characteristics of data quality [14]:

- *Accuracy*: Data and its sources are evaluated for technical errors, misperceptions, deliberate efforts to mislead.
- *Objectivity*: The data is examined for deliberate distortions and manipulations due to self-interest.
- *Usability*: Data is compatible with a customer's capabilities for receiving, manipulating, protecting, and storing the product and is ready when needed.
- *Relevance*: Information is applicable to customer requirements.
- *Readiness*: Data systems must be responsive to the dynamic requirements of customers.
- *Timeliness*: Data must be available and acted upon when it is required.

These properties have been extended to the 16 TDQM properties as described in Reference [15]. The six basic categories above are naturally slanted toward the needs of the IC. Since C2 systems rely on intelligence products, their needs are similar.

Data sharing and accessibility are areas that have received much public attention since 9/11. The IC is also very worried about spoofing or the injection of false data that can corrupt decisions or analyses. There is a great need to track sources and the intermediate handling of data to detect deliberate deception attempts. Another concern is that of inconsistent data that can arise from multiple observers. Non-authoritative sources of data are also a persistent problem, and proper weighting is needed. In some C2 systems, such as the Global Command and Control System (GCCS), the data is generally vetted and considered authoritative, while in others, such as the Tactical Ground Reporting (TIGR) System, the data can be entered by any user who observes an interesting event. Both types of systems have their uses, but the differences show that the pedigree of data should be an explicit factor. Another interesting IC and C2 issue is that information that was presented as true may later be found to be untrue and that this metainformation needs to be disseminated as well. However, some data quality properties, such as timeliness and accuracy, can have a more severe impact in a C2 tactical situation. It is not acceptable, for example, to target the wrong building.

The DoD has recognized data quality as an important issue in the last decade and has published the following key documents[16]:

- DoD Net-Centric Data Strategy (NCDS), May 2003
- Data Sharing in a Net-Centric Department of Defense, Dec. 2004
- Guidance for Implementing Net-Centric Data Sharing, Apr. 2006
- DoD Command and Control (C2) Strategic Plan Version 1.0, Dec. 2008
- Interim Guidance to Implement NCDS in the C2 Portfolio, Mar. 2009
- DoD C2 Implementation Plan Version 1.0, Oct. 2009

The DoD NCDS [17] and the Army Data Transformation (ADT) [18] effort are two examples of strategy developed in this area. Both documents are designed for a larger community than C2, which is considered one Community of Interest (COI). However, both directly affect the direction of current and planned C2 systems.

The NCDS defines seven goals in its data strategy:

1. Visible (who has data and what kind it is) – Data can be discovered through search of catalogs, registries, and so forth. Visibility is accomplished through use of metadata descriptions.
2. Accessible (where and what format) – Data is posted to storage areas where it can be obtained by others. The data is accompanied by metadata descriptions. The data is made available to others based on access control policy.
3. Understandable (what its meaning is) – Data syntax and its semantic meaning can be uniquely interpreted.
4. Institutionalized (what and who governs it) – Data is incorporated into standard processes and practices.
5. Trusted (trustworthy, accurate, and authoritative) – The validity of the data can be assessed based on its provenance, security protection, access control, and integrity.
6. Interoperable – Data can be shared among different predefined or unanticipated users or systems. Common data models and metadata are used to support this interoperability.
7. Responsive to users' needs (applicable and timely) – Methods to accommodate user perspective via feedback are incorporated into the data practices.

The NCDS claims that the aforementioned goals do not include data quality or accuracy considerations but that achieving the goals should result in improved data quality and accuracy.

The ADT plan is aimed at processes to improve data quality as the systems are transformed to net-centric operations. The handling of data is tightly coupled with the Army Enterprise Information Architecture (EIA) that is part of the overall Army Enterprise Architecture (AEA), so the separation of data and architecture, as they are doing it, does not describe the implementation of data services. The AEA is a service-oriented architecture that deals with many data-oriented services such as displays (user-defined dashboards), common exchange schemas such as the Universal Core (UCore), and interfaces to systems such as GCSS. A good description of the relationship between the Army Net-Centric Data Strategy (ANCDs) and the Army Service

Oriented Architecture (SOA) is described in Reference [19]. The ADT has indicated six phases in which it is working to improve data management and data quality:

1. Accountable – Incorporate common data standards and governance practices.
2. Authoritative – Identify and manage master data elements and authoritative sources.
3. Transform – employ standardized structures and schemas such as data yellow pages to improve data sharing.
4. Expose – Make data accessible and responsive to users through the Army Data Services Layer (ADSL). Four methods of exposing data are Messaging, Data Services, Data Warehouses, and Data Security.
5. Register – Validate data schemas and services against standards and then register in repositories (e.g., authoritative data repository) to enable visibility and reuse.
6. Assess – Monitor and assess data maturity levels using metrics. Measure the progress in improving data quality.

A key portion of the strategy is the ADSL, which is part of the EAI and provides application services for standardized handling of data, such as [20]:

- Data Mediation – Transform data among different types, vocabularies, and semantics to support interoperability. Services include Structural Transform Service, Semantic Mediation Services, Data Validation Services, and Data Brokering Services.
- Data Discovery and Data Access – Provide common service-based access to repositories for search and retrieval of data to support visibility and accessibility. Services include Data Search, Federated Search, Data Retrieval, Data Events, and Data Streaming.
- Data Abstraction – Make data understandable through use of metadata, establish a common taxonomy, and manage authoritative sources. Services include Metadata Discovery, Metadata Publishing, and Data Abstraction.
- Data Management – Provide the persistence and stewardship of data resources to establish trusted data. Services include Data Replication, Data Archival, Data Auditing, and Reference Data Management.
- Data Governance – Capture and govern data resources. Services include Namespace, Schema, and Ontology Management.

The ADSL also hides the details of the lower layers of data handling, such as databases and repositories, from the applications and users to enable improved data portability. The connection with the data quality characteristics of the NCDS is clear.

In the Table 1, we present an initial mapping from the data quality concepts of ISO 8000, ISO/IEC 25012, the NCDS goals (and the ADT phases), and the IC to the TDQM 16 categories.

In the NCDS column of Table 1, we have indicated in parentheses the phases of the ADT that may be expected to have the most impact on data quality. For the IC, it appears that usability

Table 1: Comparison of Data Quality Characteristics

TDQM	DoD NCDS Data Goals	IC	ISO 8000	ISO 25012
<i>Intrinsic:</i>				
Free of error		Accuracy	Accuracy	Accuracy, Precision
Reputation	Accountable (Authoritative)		Certification	
Believability	Accountable (Authoritative)		Certification	Credibility
Objectivity (Provenance)	Accountable (Authoritative), Trusted	Objectivity	Provenance	Traceability
<i>Operational (Accessibility):</i>				
Accessibility	Visible, Accessible (Expose)	Usability		Accessibility, Availability, Portability, Recoverability, Performance
Security (Access Control)	Trusted (Expose)			Confidentiality
<i>Contextual:</i>				
Amount of Information				
Relevance	Responsive to Users' Needs	Relevance, Readiness		
Value added				
Timeliness		Timeliness		Currentness
Completeness			Completeness	Completeness
<i>Representational:</i>				
Understandability	Understandable	Usability	Master Data: Semantic encoding, OTD	Understandability
Conciseness				
Ease of operation				Performance
Interpretability	Interoperable	Usability	Master Data Syntax	
Consistent Representations	Institutionalized, Interoperable (Standards)		Master Data: Conformance	Consistency, Compliance

covers several areas and would be difficult to measure. Also, interestingly, the TDQM list does not seem to capture the notion of readiness, which indicates that the data is adaptable to changing circumstances and requirements. The ISO 8000 and related standards provide a broad range of coverage; however, they do not address some important issues, such as timeliness or ease of

operation. The NCDS also fails to address certain properties, particularly timeliness, which is critical to C2. Also, although the table indicates that NCDS covers some areas such as believability and reputation, the extent of this coverage, which is primarily limited to using authoritative data sources that have been vetted, does not span all the situations frequently encountered in C2, such as data from a variety of sources with varying pedigree (provenance, reliability, and so forth).

Other studies for various application contexts have identified many additional characteristics, such as a study of data quality for web portals, which identified 42 different quality features [21]. However, as we mentioned earlier, we are primarily seeking to use these characteristics as an organizational tool to consider the major issues in C2 systems, as opposed to compiling a complete listing.

3 Metrics and Tools

It is sometimes useful to employ metrics to quantify the quality of the data under consideration and to make economic or strategic decisions on how to improve or maintain a given quality level. Many researchers have proposed a variety of metrics and generally have divided them into objective and subjective measures, but their interpretation is typically context dependent. For instance, in some applications, such as digital voice, it is acceptable to have a percentage of missing data without appreciably degrading the quality. In other applications, a missing value could be catastrophic.

In Reference [6] metrics for the 16 TDQM features are defined as three basic forms: (1) simple ratio, (2) min or max and (3) weighted average. The metrics are typically normalized between 0 and 1.

Using a simple ratio, it is possible to represent completeness, accuracy, precision, consistency, concise representation, relevancy, and ease of manipulation. For example, an accuracy metric can be a simple ratio of the number of accurate records divided by the total number of records. The criteria for accuracy are a function of the context or application. These are high-level notions and may be made more specific to satisfy the circumstances, such as schema, column, and population completeness in a database.

Min or max operations can be used for metrics that are composed of several underlying features. Examples include believability, timeliness, accessibility, or amount of data. For example, timeliness has been defined [22] as $\max [0 , 1 - (age\ at\ delivery/shelf-life)]$, where *age at delivery* is the delivery time minus data creation time and *shelf-life* (volatility) is the total length of time that data is valid and usable.

If the age is less than the shelf life, the data is still usable. The earlier the data is delivered, the more time there is to process the data and, thus, the larger the metric. In other studies, other

functional forms to represent the decay of timeliness are employed, and the function is often weighted by an exponent to magnify the effects of the timeliness.

The weighted average metrics are used if there is enough detailed information on the underlying features to determine their relative contributions. In addition, weighting the simple measures can allow incorporating notions of criticality, utility, and/or costs.

Some metrics are naturally objective, and others are subjective. “Believability,” for example, is subjective and must be assessed from user opinion or surveys rather than direct measurements or observations. In Reference [6], metrics were developed for each of the TDQM dimensions based on subjective and objective surveys of both users and system. The exact forms of the metrics or the weighting of the metrics depend on the various contextual situations. For example, timeliness may be more critical in some applications than in others. An interesting observation made in Reference [6] was that the subjective results often differed, depending on the perspective of those interviewed. For example, the believability of the data was often different between the users and the data system owners. Discrepancies such as this indicate further analysis may be necessary.

Many tools are available in the commercial and open-source domains to support data quality measurement and improvement. Data validation tools examine data as it is input into the system and reject or correct data item errors. Extract-Transform-Load (ETL) tools can sometimes be configured to perform validation functions as the external data is prepared and entered into an existing data set. Data profiling or data auditing tools examine a data set to identify problems, such as missing, duplicate, inconsistent, and otherwise anomalous data, and also compute data quality metrics. Data cleansing (or scrubbing) tools go through an existing data set and attempt to detect, correct, or remove troublesome data items (incorrect, incomplete, inaccurate, and so forth). Many variations are available in the market, with some tools using complex reasoning and rules on relations to correct data sets. Data cleansing can be quite time consuming on large data sets, and efficiency is a key consideration. Other tools are used to monitor the data set to maintain the data quality as the data set is used.

It is well known that one-time attempts to improve data quality are not sufficient because data degrades over time due to factors such as data change, system change, and migration. For example, data on people can change rapidly due to change of residence, death, marriage, divorce, and so forth. It is generally accepted that a continual process to monitor data quality is necessary. Also necessary is the establishment of clearly defined policies and governance. Several methods have been proposed to help organizations manage data quality continuously to achieve desired levels. One important method, based on a diagrammatic scheme called Information Production Maps (IPMs), models data as a product that goes through manufacturing stages similar to an actual physical product and applies similar quality management procedures [23]. IPMs are particularly useful for dynamic decision environments, such as an e-business, or C2 systems, where timely quality information can have a large impact on effective decision making.

4 C2 systems

Each of the U.S. Armed Services maintains its own family of C2 systems that are tailored to its particular mission needs: air, ground, sea, space, special operations. In joint and coalition operations, each participating Service or nation comes with its own C2 systems. U.S. joint commands employ C2 systems that must combine information from the multiple Services. Coalition commands must exchange information among the Services and with other countries. These information-sharing requirements cause significant problems in how to control access to data properly and often how to control data crossing security classification domains (cross-domain security).

The functions of a C2 system are many and varied. To better understand where C2 fits in the warfighting domain, it is instructive to look at the U.S. Joint Staff's Joint Capabilities Areas (JCAs), a collection of the primary functions involved with warfighting [24]. C2 is one of the top-level capabilities. The nine JCAs are

- Force Application
- Logistics
- Protection
- Force Support
- Corporate Management and Support
- Command and Control
- Battlespace Awareness
- Net-Centric
- Building Partnerships

Within Command and Control, the following capabilities are defined: *Organize, Understand, Planning, Decide, Direct, and Monitor*. As can be inferred from these functions, C2 capabilities are heavily dependent on the quality of the information that is immediately available or that can be obtained from other sources and also on the ability to communicate that information to and from the other capabilities. The communication functions are heavily used by the C2 functions but are primarily included under the Net-Centric JCA and will be briefly considered further in this paper. Specific requirements for information can be issued from C2 to the other JCAs such as Battlespace Awareness or Logistics, for which many of the data quality issues equally apply.

From a C2 perspective, the key data issues that are frequently discussed include interoperability, distributed access, timeliness, accuracy, provenance, and security. There are also issues with information overload, since the volume of available data, both from the tactical and strategic sides, is rapidly increasing. The data needs to be processed in a timely manner, incorporated into the COP, and delivered where needed. There are also issues associated with limited communications capacity. This limits data availability, and C2 systems must accommodate these resource-constrained situations. Looking at this from the data quality perspective, we see that most of

these issues are captured by the 16 data quality properties discussed previously. A C2 data strategy should explicitly address all 16 categories.

Several cases of dramatic effects are at least partially due to data quality problems. The unintentional 1999 bombing of the Chinese Embassy in Belgrade by U.S. planes, while admittedly caused by a systemic failure in the targeting process, was plagued by data issues [25]. One example was the use of older map data that failed to show the updated location of the embassy after a move in 1996. Also, the actual address of the intended target (a warehouse) was only estimated and not carefully verified against a map with accurate address information. Other problems were caused by duplicate target requests that appeared to come from different sources but were ultimately from the same source (this is sometimes called “ringing” and is due to a lack of provenance). Further, there was a failure to check the target against a database of known off-limits targets.

Data quality issues have also been identified in two other disasters: the space shuttle *Challenger* explosion on January 28, 1996, and the shooting down of an Iranian Airbus by the USS *Vincennes* on July 3, 1988 [26]. The Presidential Commission investigating the *Challenger* disaster cited flawed decision making surrounding the possible problem with O-rings at cold temperatures. The attack on the Iranian Airbus was also attributed to flawed decision making under time pressure, when the ship identified the airbus as a hostile military jet in attack mode. From the data quality perspective, the decisions were affected by lapses in accuracy, completeness, consistency, relevance, and fitness-for-use in the *Challenger* case and by accuracy, completeness, consistency, fitness-for-use, and timeliness for the USS *Vincennes*. For the space shuttle *Challenger*, the data needed for proper analysis was available but not properly used. It was not presented in a form that assisted the management in making correct decisions. For the *Vincennes*, the initial misclassification occurred when users did not realize that the system reused a target designation number and then failed to resolve the resulting inconsistencies. Given all the pressures of decision making, it is arguable that data issues contributed to the erroneous decisions.

Another example of C2 data quality issues is exemplified by the Operation *Anaconda* [27, 28] in which the U.S. Army successfully defeated Al Qaeda forces in the Shahi-Kot Valley of eastern Afghanistan in March 2002. Though the operation ultimately succeeded, the initial battle plan required extensive modification. It was designed to last for a week; however, the battle lasted 17 days, and resistance was much more difficult than anticipated, requiring much more air support. Some of the problems were related to the quality of the intelligence data, such as inaccurate and incomplete estimates of enemy forces and their willingness to fight or the disposition of civilians. There were also interoperability problems among and between joint and coalition forces. The intelligence data, which relied primarily on human intelligence, proved to be faulty and was not properly verified and vetted, reflecting believability and accuracy issues. The satellite imagery was often 3 days old. Decision makers did not consider use of assets such as a Global Hawk unmanned air vehicle (UAV), which could linger over the area and provide more timely information. Some of the interoperability issues arose from a lack of unity of command

due to the relative newness of the Army forces in the area and a lack of command authority over Special Forces, air support, and Afghan allied forces, which were all part of the operation. For example, there was an incident where Army troops mistakenly fired on the in-place Special Operations Force (SOF) team, which did not have compatible radios. Also, U.S. gunships mistakenly fired on an allied Afghan column, partially causing them to turn away from the area. Although communications reportedly worked for each U.S. Service component, problems occurred in communicating with other Services and with allied Afghan forces. In addition, long-range communications between headquarters and edge forces was bandwidth limited, and communication between headquarters and central command was inconsistent (timeliness, accessibility). “Army personnel could use their FM radios to communicate directly with overhead Navy and Marine Corps aircraft but not USAF aircraft, such as F-15Es and bombers” [29]. Also, a lack of common understanding about the differing rules of engagement and procedures governing Close Air Support (CAS) contributed, reflecting understandability problems [29].

4.1 Interoperability

The ability to share and exchange data between various C2 systems constitutes a serious problem in the C2 environment. Currently, each of the Services has its own C2 systems, which consist of a family of related systems. For example, GCCS, a family of C2 systems, includes over 200 systems or services and is intended to have worldwide reach and incorporate components from all branches [30]. Data must be exchanged among the systems in the same family and with other non-family systems. This problem has been well known for many years in joint and coalition settings [31], and several key developments have been achieved, such as the NATO Network Enabled Capabilities (NNEC) COP. The NNEC COP addresses issues such as standards, dynamic tailoring, multi-level security, provenance, and knowledge management (timeliness and access). Within the U.S. government, the UCore is being promoted as a standard for information exchange between systems. DoD has agreed that all of the Services shall use UCore (currently version 2.0) as the basis for semantic representation of data exchanges. In particular, C2 data will be aligned with UCore. UCore is an information exchange specification and implementation profile that defines a vocabulary of commonly exchanged concepts such as *who*, *what*, *when*, and *where*. There is a syntactic representation based on XML, guidance for extensions for representing domain (or COI) areas, security markings, and a messaging framework. A very general taxonomy is defined to represent basic concepts, but UCore’s generality needs to be tailored for each domain. Semantic layer issues for UCore, such as those defined in the UCore SL [Semantic Layer] are still being investigated by researchers (e.g., National Center for Ontological Research (NCOR)). Some issues for further development in UCore are temporal relationships and allowing items to be of different types at different times (e.g., weapon, cargo, and so forth).

Other representations of the C2 domain have been in use for quite some time. In particular is the Joint Consultation, Command and Control Information Exchange Data Model (Semantic Layer), which is used by many countries and also by NATO. JC3IEDM exchanges are not XML-based internationally, but JC3IEDM is the Army’s chosen data model for information exchange as per

Reference [32]. UCore, the XML-based framework, is appropriate for information exchange between the Army and other military, other government agencies, non-government organizations (NGOs), and the various multi-national communities (should they adopt the UCore messaging specification).

A DoD high-level data model for C2, called C2Core, is being proposed as an extension to the C2 domain for UCore. C2Core has six elements of C2 systems:

1. Force Structure, Integration, Organization
2. Situational Awareness
3. Planning and Analysis
4. Decision Making and Direction
5. Operational Functions and Tasks
6. Monitoring Progress (Assessing)

C2 Core Ontology is based upon these elements, and the vocabulary is based on Joint Doctrine. One observation is that the breakdown of C2 elements differs slightly from the JCA capabilities mentioned earlier. There is still work required to harmonize the various efforts to standardize concepts, data models, and ontologies for C2.

In a recent study of data-related issues [33], it was noted that the C2 community could benefit from use of UCore and C2 Core coupled with additional C2-Specific Extensions from UCore to facilitate data sharing within the C2 community and definition of core C2-specific services. The Joint C2 Conceptual Model and Joint C2 Vocabulary, the inclusion of real-world operational needs, the JC3IEDM artifacts, artifacts from ongoing data exchange development, and legacy message formats all need to be accommodated in UCore. Several other key issues were identified, such as no runtime component and a highly complex underlying model that is not easily implemented in a modular fashion.

Worthwhile future developments might include better methods to enable operators to discover, use, and manipulate data in ways that cannot be imagined a priori and to do so dynamically while deployed. These new developments are desperately needed by edge users. There is also a great need for data mediation services to enable interoperability and to fast-track warrior requests for data sharing.

Reference [34] presents an analysis of how to move forward with integrating the various data models. The authors conclude that UCore requires extensions to include the full JC3IEDM and that there will still need to be a mapping of JC3IEDM to C2Core. JC3IEDM is much more detailed than what is currently proposed in the C2Core and will require the stakeholder user groups to agree on a consolidated representation that conforms to the UCore directive. Some of the implementation and runtime issues in data sharing are addressed in Reference [16], which has a description of the C2 Information Sharing Framework. Many of the specific services

designed to improve quality (e.g., adoption of UCore, C2Core, metadata, data monitoring, and data access control and, optionally, reputation services) are described.

A key scientific issue relating to interoperability involves exploring automated methods to resolve differences among the semantics of the differing systems. Even with standardized data exchange methods, there will be subtle interpretations of data that will need to be resolved. There are too many relationships among data for people to represent and capture all of the relations between the involved entities, and the overall process would benefit if it could be automated.

4.2 Volume of Data

It is well known that the amount of raw and processed data entering C2 systems is growing rapidly. With the expected additions of more and more sensors, each with potentially greater ability to produce data, the amount of raw data will explode. Even now, in some surveillance applications, data is being generated at a faster rate than it can be processed, and it ends up being archived for later examination. With the increasing use of unmanned platforms, such as UAVs, the demand for information delivered in real time to the edge is also growing. Consider the Air Force Reaper-mounted “Gorgon Stare,” which can transmit up to 65 video images per second [35] or future systems such as the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) Autonomous Real-time Ground Ubiquitous Surveillance–Imaging System (ARGUS-IS) platform [36] with 1.8 Giga-pixel video sensors generating data at 27 Gigabits per second. Such systems can quickly overwhelm the ability of C2 systems to process the information. As a result of this increase, many intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance (ISR) decision support systems are receiving large volumes of data with poor control of data quality (e.g., noise, clutter). Requests requiring adaptable analysis methods and unpredictable data requirements are normal. For example, tracking vehicles in an urban environment or identifying the placement of roadside bombs from video are typical examples of particularly challenging requests. There is also the problem of short- and long-term storage, data accessibility, and supplying the computational power to process the requests. In this context, timeliness becomes a critical property. If the raw or processed data is not available to track a target, this data quickly becomes of limited value.

There are a wide variety of scientific and technical challenges relating to handling large volumes of data. These challenges include novel architectures for storing and accessing large data sets, processing architectures to analyze the data, and methods for securely sharing data and results. Management of large data sets, including multi-level classifications, is a challenge. Various research programs are being formulated to address many of the scientific challenges in these types of issues. At least 26 research projects related to commander’s decision support systems were identified in 2009 [37]. Other newer projects, such as the Data-to-Decisions project, are focused on the issue of handling the volume of data. Some analysts have suggested that greater emphasis should be put on assisting users to understand information rather than designing for full automation. However, in either case, additional emphasis should be given to understanding data quality and incorporating this understanding into the decision processes.

4.3 Trustworthiness of Data

For C2 systems, determining the level of trust to place in data can be extremely important. It is often difficult to determine whether separate reports are referring to the same or separate incidents. Data ringing, where the same report is relayed by different individuals, is a serious concern. Similarly, copy-paste is frequently used in report generation, and automated tracking of sources from copy-paste operations would be useful in determining trust. Incorporating some form of provenance data is needed to help clarify these situations. Within the DoD, the Services are currently focused on defining Authoritative Data Sources (ADSs) and using a standardized metadata registry for data discovery and use. These systems have limited provenance data, primarily containing only the source and date. Outside of the authoritative sources, there is almost no provenance tracking. In the emerging research on provenance, provenance data should contain all the information necessary to determine the complete history of the data. For certain applications, such as bioinformatics or physics, it is appropriate to capture the entire workflow that transformed the data from input to output for purposes of validation or repeatability [38, 39]. Other applications mainly require documentation of original sources, context or other relevant pieces of information. In Reference [40] a W7 model (What, Who, When, Where, Which, How, and Why) captures relevant information that would contain full documentation of a data life cycle, from creation to destruction. There are many research activities working toward automating the capture of provenance data with techniques for specialized architectures such as databases, grid computing systems, file systems, Service-oriented architectures, enterprise service bus (ESB), and archiving systems. For resource-limited environments, such as those often faced by C2 systems, there are limits to the amount of provenance that can be stored or transmitted. To resolve source attribution, automated tracking of sources from copy-paste operations would be useful. Further research is needed to characterize the utility of provenance models for the various C2 scenarios.

5 Conclusions

We have described the general characteristics of data quality and given several examples of how these characteristics are found in C2 systems. It is clear that C2 systems are beset with data quality issues that are similar to those found in the general enterprise IT community. All of the data quality characteristics are relevant to C2 systems. However, several quality issues are of relatively greater importance to C2 because of the potential lethality of decision-making errors. It is also evident that these characteristics are not independent and that they should not be addressed in isolation. They should be part of an ongoing data quality enhancing process. Incorporation of current developments, such as ISO 8000 standardization tailored for C2 applications, should be considered. Data sharing and interoperability are largely being addressed by the C2 community. However, there is a great and difficult challenge in further automating interoperability between C2 systems. Some of the tenets, such as “publish first,” may need to be rethought in terms of data quality.

It is also recommended that data quality characteristics and their associated metrics be explicitly incorporated into C2 system operations. Research and development (R&D) is needed to determine how best to accomplish this in a disruption-tolerant and robust fashion within the constraints of real-time decisions, limited bandwidth and processing power, and intermittent service. The benefits should include improved decision making by making explicit use of the data quality features, such as believability, provenance, or reputation.

There is a great deal of relevant research on general aspects of data quality, with many issues still unresolved. For instance, there is active research on automated provenance handling, but it remains a challenging problem. It is very difficult to determine whether a document has been copied or combined, unless it has been under version control for its entire existence. There has been little reported research specifically on C2 data quality. It may be beneficial to consider the various types of C2 data when considering how to capture C2 quality features. The quality features of raw data may be very different from a command message or a situation report. One approach to incorporating data quality capabilities is to provide appropriate metadata with every data item so that the data becomes self-describing and self-protecting. This would have to be part of a tradeoff when resources are limited, based on the benefit provided by the data quality information. A logical next step is to conduct further investigation of specific C2 systems for data quality characterization to discover the tradeoffs and to develop specific metrics appropriate to C2 contexts.

Current practices in C2 involve a human-in-the-loop for almost all levels of data entry and analysis. The increase in data volume is overwhelming and causing information overload. Increased use of machine processing of the raw data and elementary data is necessary if modern commanders are to operate effectively under this data deluge. The commanders must be involved at the crucial decision points and provided with situation awareness but must otherwise not be encumbered by the lower level data details. Incorporation of data quality characteristics, along with other forms of metadata that are semantically defined and can be processed and understood by software, may go far in providing this environment. Semantic characterizations that incorporate metadata as data in the knowledge base and can be accessed, manipulated, and used in inferences are an alternative to more traditionally structured relational databases. These environments can naturally incorporate quality features and use them to assist the decision maker in understanding the credibility of the information relied upon.

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14. ABSTRACT A C2 system depends crucially on having high-quality underlying data. There is still no "best" set of data quality dimensions and metrics for C2. We consider the sixteen data quality criteria identified by the Total Data Quality Management (TDQM) research community, as well as the dimensions identified by the ISO 8000 standard. We map these into the criteria commonly applied by the intelligence community (IC), and those identified by various parts of the US DoD. The IC's "usability" criterion covers several different concepts that are difficult to measure. Meanwhile, the DoD's Net Centric Data Strategy (NCDS) arguably does not adequately address the notion of data timeliness. The NCDS covers some important factors such as believability and reputation, but the coverage is primarily limited to using authoritative, vetted data sources. This does not address important situations where data come from a variety of sources with varying degrees of reliability. On the other hand, the TDQM criteria do not adequately capture the notions of readiness and adaptability. Once an accepted set of data quality characteristics and associated metrics for C2 is available, there is a good case for explicitly incorporating it into C2 system operations.					
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