

Introduction

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In a world best described by pervasive cyber insecurity,¹ it may seem odd to discuss the prospects for cyber peace. From ransomware impacting communities around the world² to state-sponsored attacks on electrical infrastructure,³ to disinformation campaigns spreading virally on social media, we seem to have relatively little bandwidth left over for asking the big questions, including: What is the best we can hope for in terms of “peace” on the Internet, and how might we get there? Yet the stakes could not be higher. McKinsey, for example, has argued that by 2022 “\$9 trillion to \$21 trillion of economic-value creation, worldwide, [will] depend on the robustness of the cybersecurity environment.”⁴

To date, the online environment has appeared to be anything but peaceful, but there has been progress in the global drive for peace and security in cyberspace. For example, on November 12, 2018, the French President Emmanuel Macron gave a speech at the Internet Governance Forum in Paris, announcing the Paris Call for Trust and Security in Cyberspace – a multistakeholder statement of principles designed to help guide the international community toward greater cyber stability. The statement, among other things, called for action to safeguard civilian

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¹ See, e.g., *The Growing Threat of Cyberattacks*, HERITAGE FOUND., www.heritage.org/cybersecurity/heritage-explains/the-growing-threat-cyberattacks (last visited Feb. 20, 2020).

² See Luke Broadwater, *Baltimore Transfers \$6 Million to Pay for Ransomware Attack; City Considers Insurance Against Hacks*, BALTIMORE SUN (Aug. 28, 2019), www.baltimoresun.com/politics/bs-md-ci-ransomware-expenses-20190828-njgznd7dsfaxbbaglnvnbkgjhe-story.html; Karen Husa, *Panama-Buena Vista Union School District Computers and Phones Attacked by Ransomware*, KGET (Jan. 17, 2020), www.kget.com/news/local-news/panama-buena-vista-union-school-district-computers-and-phones-attacked-by-ransomware/.

³ See, e.g., ANDY GREENBERG, *SANDWORM: A NEW ERA OF CYBERWAR AND THE HUNT FOR THE KREMLIN'S MOST DANGEROUS HACKERS 2* (2020).

⁴ See Tucker Bailey et al., *The Rising Strategic Risks of Cyberattacks*, MCKINSEY Q. (2014), www.mckinsey.com/business-functions/mckinsey-digital/our-insights/the-rising-strategic-risks-of-cyberattacks.

infrastructure, promote Internet access, and make democracy harder to hack.⁵ On the day it was announced, more than 50 nations, “130 companies and 90 universities and nongovernmental groups,” signed the Paris Call – a coalition that grew to 77 nations and over 600 companies by early 2020.⁶ The goal was to leverage this widespread support to help drive interest in follow-on agreements to support “digital peace.” For some, this included striving for a “Digital Geneva Convention.”⁷ Overall, the process was not unlike the multistakeholder journey that culminated in the 2015 Paris Climate Accord.⁸ And progress has not stalled. In March 2021, for example, some 150 countries agreed, for the first time, on a draft set of cyber norms to guide state behavior in cyberspace.⁹ Yet still only limited efforts have been made at even defining “cyber peace,” to say nothing of how we can achieve this goal, such as by leveraging interdisciplinary social science frameworks such as polycentric governance.¹⁰

In an environment increasingly beset by cyber insecurity, we seek to begin laying out an agenda for how to achieve a positive cyber peace for the twenty-first century. Digital conflict and military action are increasingly intertwined, and civilian targets – private businesses and everyday Internet users alike – are vulnerable. As the Global Commission on Stability in Cyberspace makes clear, “[C]onflict between states will take new forms, and cyber-activities are likely to play a leading role in this newly volatile environment, thereby increasing the risk of undermining the peaceful use of cyberspace to facilitate the economic growth and the expansion of individual freedoms.”¹¹

Is the peaceful use of cyberspace possible? “Cyber peace” is difficult to define – as difficult, if not more so than its offline comparator. The term “cyber peace” seems to

⁵ See PARIS CALL FOR TRUST AND SECURITY IN CYBERSPACE (Nov. 12, 2018), www.diplomatie.gouv.fr/IMG/pdf/paris_call_text_-_en_cle06f918.pdf.

⁶ David E. Sanger, *U.S. Declines to Sign Declaration Discouraging Use of Cyberattacks*, N.Y. TIMES (Nov. 12, 2018), www.nytimes.com/2018/11/12/us/politics/us-cyberattacks-declaration.html; *Indiana University Among First to Endorse Paris Call for Trust and Security in Cyberspace*, IU NEWSROOM (Nov. 12, 2018), <https://news.iu.edu/stories/2018/11/iu/releases/12-paris-call-for-trust-and-security-in-cyberspace.html>; *Cybersecurity: Paris Call of 12 November 2018 for Trust and Security in Cyberspace*, FRANCE DIPLOMATIE, www.diplomatie.gouv.fr/en/french-foreign-policy/digital-diplomacy/france-and-cyber-security/article/cybersecurity-paris-call-of-12-november-2018-for-trust-and-security-in (last visited Feb. 20, 2020).

⁷ *The Need for a Digital Geneva Convention*, MICROSOFT (Feb. 14, 2017), <https://blogs.microsoft.com/on-the-issues/2017/02/14/need-digital-geneva-convention/>.

⁸ See Scott J. Shackelford, *On Climate Change and Cyber Attacks: Leveraging Polycentric Governance to Mitigate Global Collective Action Problems*, 18 VAND. J. OF ENT. & TECH. L. 653, 654 (2016).

⁹ Josh Gold, *Unexpectedly, All UN Countries Agreed on a Cybersecurity Report. So What?*, CFR (Mar. 18, 2021), www.cfr.org/blog/unexpectedly-all-un-countries-agreed-cybersecurity-report-so-what.

¹⁰ As originally explained by Professor Vincent Ostrom, “a polycentric political system would be composed of: (1) many autonomous units formally independent of one another, (2) choosing to act in ways that take account of others, (3) through processes of cooperation, competition, conflict, and conflict resolution.” VINCENT OSTROM, *THE MEANING OF FEDERALISM* 225 (1991). The concept, though, has enjoyed wide application, including in the Internet governance context. See SCOTT J. SHACKELFORD, *GOVERNING NEW FRONTIERS IN THE INFORMATION AGE: TOWARD CYBER PEACE* (2020).

¹¹ Global Commission on the Stability of Cyberspace, <https://cyberstability.org/> (last visited December 16, 2019).

have originated during a program “at the Vatican’s Pontifical Academy of Sciences in December 2008,”¹² though it was being used before that date, indeed as early as 2005 as Professor Renée Marlin-Bennett ably explores in Chapter 1. This conference, though, helped to crystallize the concept by releasing the “Erice Declaration on Principles for Cyber Stability and Cyber Peace” (Erice Declaration),¹³ which called for enhanced cooperation and stability in cyberspace through promoting six principles, ranging from guaranteeing the “free flow of information” to forbidding exploitation and avoiding cyber conflict,¹⁴ several of which mirror more recent efforts such as the 2018 Paris Call. Academic efforts at defining the term were slower still, beginning in the legal literature only in 2011. In 2011, for example, one of the first articles referencing “cyber peace” surfaced, though often only in reference to United Nations (UN) initiatives such as by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU)’s “five principles for cyber peace.”¹⁵

From there, the term was used in the context of leveraging international law generally to improve cybersecurity, and that cyber peace should be built upon State responsibility and sovereignty, which presupposes the ability and willingness of diverse nations to detect and police cyberattacks and instability.¹⁶ One through line from 2012 to the present, though, is the focus on protecting critical infrastructure as a key element of cyber peace.¹⁷ Still, a core facet of the understanding throughout this time period was a negative cyber peace, e.g., managing the damage caused by cyberattacks rather than conceptualizing and planning for a more sustainable and equitable status quo.

Debate about cyber peace began to evolve by 2013. For example, the conceptual framework of polycentric governance was deployed to better contextualize the range of actors, architectures, and governance scales in play.¹⁸ It was argued that:

¹² Jody R. Westby, *Conclusion*, in *THE QUEST FOR CYBER PEACE* 112, 112 (Int’l Telecomm. Union & Permanent Monitoring Panel on Info. Sec. eds., 2011), www.itu.int/dms_pub/itu-s/opb/gen/S-GEN-WFS.01-1-2011-PDF-E.pdf.

¹³ *Id.*; see WORLD FED’N OF SCI., ERICE DECLARATION ON PRINCIPLES FOR CYBER STABILITY AND CYBER PEACE (2009), www.worldscientific.com/doi/abs/10.1142/9789814327503_0015.

¹⁴ Henning Wegener, *A Concept of Cyber Peace*, in *THE QUEST FOR CYBER PEACE*; see also *supra* note 12, at 77, 79–80.

¹⁵ See Robert Davis, *All Our Eggs in One Cloud: The International Risk to Private Data and National Security, a Study of United States’ Data Protection Law Using the International Communications Union Legislative Toolkit*, 21 MINN. J. INT’L L. ONLINE 218, 245 (2011) (citing The ITU mission: Bringing the Benefits of ICT to all the World’s Inhabitants, INT’L TELECOM. UNION, www.itu.int/net/about/mission.aspx [last visited Oct. 17, 2010]).

¹⁶ For a similarly critical view of the potential role played by international law to regulate cyber operations from this period, see Michael Preciado, *If You Wish Cyber Peace, Prepare for Cyber War: The Need for the Federal Government to Protect Critical Infrastructure from Cyber Warfare*, 1 J.L. & CYBER WARFARE 99, 99 (2012) (arguing that “cyber warfare cannot be policed through international treaties.”).

¹⁷ See *id.*; In *Search of Cyber Peace: A Response to the Cybersecurity Act of 2012*, 64 STAN. L. REV. ONLINE 106 (Mar. 8, 2012), www.stanfordlawreview.org/online/cyber-peace.

¹⁸ Scott J. Shackelford, *The Meaning of Cyber Peace*, NOTRE DAME INST. FOR ADV. STUDY Q. (Oct. 2013), <https://ndias.nd.edu/news-publications/ndias-quarterly/the-meaning-of-cyber-peace/>.

[C]yberpeace not as the absence of conflict, but as the creation of a network of multilevel regimes working together to promote global cybersecurity by clarifying norms for companies and countries alike to reduce the risk of conflict, crime, and espionage in cyberspace to levels comparable to other business and national security risks. Working together through polycentric partnerships, and with the leadership of engaged individuals and institutions, we can stop cyber war before it starts by laying the groundwork for a positive cyber peace that respects human rights, spreads Internet access, and strengthens governance mechanisms by fostering multi-stakeholder collaboration.¹⁹

As with the academy, the U.S. government has been slow to embrace the concept, in part to maintain freedom of operation in a dynamic and increasingly vital strategic environment. As the historian Jason Healey argued in 2014, “We [the U.S. government] like the fact that it is a Wild West because it lets us do more attack and exploitation.”²⁰ The U.S. government has evolved on this matter, though the Trump administration in particular was not an aggressive promoter of multilateral engagement to promote stability in cyberspace.²¹ Still, the 2020 *Cyberspace Solarium Commission Report*, which was established to “develop a comprehensive national strategy for defending American interests and values in cyberspace,”²² did not even mention “cyber peace,” though it did suggest a strategy of “layered deterrence” through eighty plus recommendations spread across six pillars that included the strengthening of norms.²³

Despite a growing recognition of the positive role played by polycentric governance in attaining cyber peace,²⁴ there remains nearly as many differing conceptions of “cyber peace” as there are other related and equally amorphous terms, such as “sustainable development,”²⁵ or even “cyberspace” itself.²⁶ As Camille Francois of Harvard’s Berkman Klein Center has stated, and as she expands upon in Part IV of

¹⁹ Scott J. Shackelford, *Toward Cyberpeace: Managing Cyber Attacks through Polycentric Governance*, 62 AM. UNIV. L. REV. 1273, 1280 (2013) (cited by BRUCE SCHNEIER, CLICK HERE TO KILL EVERYBODY 213 [2018]).

²⁰ Eric Chabrow, *Does U.S. Truly Want Cyber Peace?*, BANK INFO SEC. (Aug. 11, 2014), www.bankinfosecurity.com/interviews/does-us-want-cyber-peace-i-2415.

²¹ See, e.g., Josephine Wolff, *Trump’s Reckless Cybersecurity Strategy*, N.Y. TIMES (Oct. 2, 2018), www.nytimes.com/2018/10/02/opinion/trumps-reckless-cybersecurity-strategy.html.

²² Chris Inglis, *The Cyberspace Solarium Commission: The International Impact*, CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INT’L PEACE (Mar. 4, 2020), <https://carnegieendowment.org/2020/03/04/cyberspace-solarium-commission-international-impact-event-7293>.

²³ U.S. CYBERSPACE SOLARIUM COMMISSION, www.solarium.gov/ (last visited Apr. 8, 2020).

²⁴ See, e.g., Julien Chaisse & Cristen Bauer, *Cybersecurity and the Protection of Digital Assets: Assessing the Role of International Investment Law and Arbitration*, 21 VAND. J. ENT. & TECH. L. 550, 551 (2019).

²⁵ THE WORLD COMMISSION ON ENVIRONMENT AND DEVELOPMENT: OUR COMMON FUTURE 37 (1987). See also Gabcikovo-Nagymaros Project (*Hung. v. Slov.*), 1997 I.C.J. 7, 78 (Sept. 25) (defining sustainable development as “[the] need to reconcile economic development with protection of the environment”).

²⁶ Damir Rajnovic, *Cyberspace—What Is It?*, CISCO BLOG (July 26, 2012) (on file with authors).



FIGURE 1 Cyber peace word cloud.

this edited volume, “If cyberspace is colonized by war, there is one essential question: what does cyberpeace look like?”²⁷

There are many ways to answer that question, including from a positive peace perspective. Heather Roff of Johns Hopkins University, for example, has argued that “Cyber peace is the end state of cybersecurity. Yet it is not a mere absence of attacks, rather it is a more robust notion about the very conditions for security.”²⁸ Others, such as Michael Robinson, view cyber peace through the lens of stability through stepped up active defense: “Cyber related action undertaken to preserve peace, however fragile, where fighting has been halted and to assist in implementing agreements achieved by the peacemakers.”²⁹ Conversely, some groups see any cyberattack, however well meaning, as antithetical to the concept of cyber peace.³⁰ Figure 1 offers a word cloud summarizing some of the many elements embedded in the overall concept of cyber peace, pulled from influential declarations, policies, and norms.³¹

Regardless of this growing consensus on the benefits of a positive approach to cyber peace, the term escapes easy definition, which has been the case since the beginning. As the former German diplomat Henning Wegener wrote:

²⁷ Camille Francois, *What Is War in the Digital Realm? A Reality Check on the Meaning of “Cyberspace,”* SCI. AM. (Nov. 26, 2013), <https://blogs.scientificamerican.com/guest-blog/what-is-war-in-the-digital-realm-a-reality-check-on-the-meaning-of-e2809ccyberspacee2809d/>.

²⁸ HEATHER M. ROFF, CYBER PEACE: CYBERSECURITY THROUGH THE LENS OF POSITIVE PEACE 3 (2016), https://static.newamerica.org/attachments/12554-cyber-peace/FOR%20PRINTING-Cyber_Peace_Roff.2fbb0b16b69482e8b6312937607ad66.pdf.

²⁹ Michael Robinson et al., *An Introduction to Cyber Peacekeeping*, 114 J. NETWORK & COMP. APP. 1, 4 (2018).

³⁰ See FIFF, <http://cyberpeace.fiff.de/Kampagne/DefinitionenEn> (last visited Mar. 23, 2020) (“By ‘cyberpeace’ we understand peace in cyberspace in a very general sense: the peaceful application of cyberspace to the benefit of humanity and the environment.”)

³¹ These international laws and policies are discussed in Part II of Shackelford, *supra* note 1.

In the present context, cyber peace ... is meant to be an overriding principle in establishing a 'universal order of cyberspace'. If the use of the term has more to do with politics and with political emphasis, with orienting the mind toward the right choices, then it also follows that it must remain somewhat open-ended. The definition cannot be watertight, but must be rather intuitive, and incremental in its list of ingredients.³²

"Cyber peace," sometimes also called "digital peace,"³³ is a term that is increasingly used, but still little understood. It is clearly more than the "absence of violence" online, which was the starting point for how Professor Johan Galtung described the new field of peace studies he helped to found in 1969.³⁴ Similarly, Galtung argued that agreeing on universal definitions for "peace" or "violence" was unrealistic; instead, the goal should be landing on a "subjectivistic" definition agreed to by the majority.³⁵ In so doing, he recognized that as society and technology change, so too should our conceptions of peace and violence (an observation that's arguably equally applicable both online and offline). That is why he defined violence as "the cause of the difference between the potential and the actual, between what could have been and what is."³⁶

Extrapolating from this logic, as technology advances, be it biometrics or blockchain, the opportunity cost of not acting to ameliorate suffering grows, as do the capabilities of attackers to cause harm. This highlights the fact that cyber peace is not a finish line, but rather an ongoing process of due diligence and risk management, echoing Wegener's sentiments just described. In this way, a positive cyber peace is defined here as a polycentric system that (1) respects human rights and freedoms,³⁷ (2) spreads Internet access along with cybersecurity best practices,³⁸ (3) strengthens governance mechanisms by fostering multistakeholder collaboration,³⁹ and (4) promotes stability and relatedly sustainable development.⁴⁰

³² Wegener, *A Concept of Cyber Peace*, in *THE QUEST FOR CYBER PEACE*; see also *supra* note 17, at 77, 78.

³³ MICROSOFT, *supra*, note 7.

³⁴ Johan Galtung, *Violence, Peace, and Peace Research*, 6 *J. PEACE RES.* 167, 168 (1969).

³⁵ *Id.*

³⁶ *Id.* ("[I]f a person died from tuberculosis in the eighteenth century it would be hard to conceive of this as violence since it might have been quite unavoidable, but if he dies from it today, despite all the medical resources in the world, then violence is present according to our definition.") This argument was first published, and is expanded upon, in SHACKELFORD, *supra* note 10.

³⁷ See Scott J. Shackelford, *Should Cybersecurity Be a Human Right? Exploring the 'Shared Responsibility' of Cyber Peace*, 55 *STAN. J. INT'L L.* 155 (2019).

³⁸ Though, there is a case to be made that Internet access itself should be considered a human right. See Carl Bode, *The Case for Internet Access as a Human Right*, *VICE* (Nov. 13, 2019), www.vice.com/en_us/article/3kxmm5/the-case-for-internet-access-as-a-human-right.

³⁹ See Scott J. Shackelford & Amanda N. Craig, *Beyond the New 'Digital Divide': Analyzing the Evolving Role of Governments in Internet Governance and Enhancing Cybersecurity*, 50 *STAN. J. INT'L L.* 119 (2014).

⁴⁰ *ADVANCING CYBERSTABILITY*, GLOBAL COMMISSION ON THE STABILITY OF CYBERSPACE 13 (2019), <https://cyberstability.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/02/GCSC-Advancing-Cyberstability.pdf> ("Stability of cyberspace means everyone can be reasonably confident in their ability to use

These four pillars of cyber peace may be constructed by clarifying the rules of the road for companies and countries alike to help reduce the threats of cyber war, terrorism, crime, and espionage to levels comparable to other business and national security risks. This could encourage the movement along a cyber peace spectrum toward a more resilient, stable, and sustainable Internet ecosystem with systems in place to “deter hostile or malicious activity”⁴¹ and in so doing promote both human and national security online and offline.⁴² To achieve this goal, a new approach to cybersecurity is needed that seeks out best practices from the public and private sectors. This approach builds from the work of other scholars who have similarly criticized a fixation on Westphalian, national security-centric models of enhancing cybersecurity, and instead focuses on minimizing “structural forms of violence” across various governance scales and sectors.⁴³ Such an approach may be viewed as in keeping with the prevailing multistakeholder approach to Internet governance,⁴⁴ which is in contrast to the rise of the so-called “cyber sovereignty.”⁴⁵

A growing community of scholars, practitioners, and policymakers are looking beyond this baseline definition and are aiming at operationalizing a *positive* cyber peace, as is explored throughout this edited volume. This new drive is being supported by a growing coalition, including the governments of France and New Zealand, along with firms like Microsoft and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) like the CyberPeace Institute, which is coming together to promote stability by leveraging codes of conduct, and emerging international standards aimed at reducing cyber insecurity and promoting cybersecurity due diligence. These stakeholders, and others, are helping to create and promote myriad related efforts, such as the Online Trust Alliance, ICT4Peace, and the CyberPeace Alliance, which are backed by major funders such as the Hewlett Foundation and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. The Paris Call itself is a broad statement of principles that focus on improving “cyber hygiene,” along with “the security of digital products

cyberspace safely and securely, where the availability and integrity of services and information provided in and through cyberspace are generally assured, where change is managed in relative peace, and where tensions are resolved in a non-escalatory manner.”)

⁴¹ Obama White House, *The Comprehensive National Cybersecurity Initiative*, <https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/node/233086> (last visited Nov. 10, 2017).

⁴² ROFF, *supra* note 29, at 3 (arguing for a human security approach to cyber peace). Yet the notion of including humans in conceptions of cyberspace and cybersecurity is nothing new. See James A. Winnfield, Jr., Christopher Kirchhoff, & David M. Upton, *Cybersecurity’s Human Facto: Lessons from the Pentagon*, HARV. BUS. REV. (Sept. 2015), <https://hbr.org/2015/09/cybersecuritys-human-factor-lessons-from-the-pentagon>, along with the work on human factors.

⁴³ ROFF, *supra* note 29, at 3, 5.

⁴⁴ See, e.g., *Is Multistakeholderism Advancing, Dying or Evolving?* UNESCO (Jan. 6, 2018), <https://en.unesco.org/news/multistakeholderism-advancing-dying-evolving>; Stuart N. Brotman, *Multistakeholder Internet Governance: A Pathway Completed, the Road Ahead*, BROOKINGS INST. (2015), www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/multistakeholder-1.pdf.

⁴⁵ See, e.g., Justin Sherman, *How Much Cyber Sovereignty Is Too Much Cyber Sovereignty?*, CFR (Oct. 30, 2019), www.cfr.org/blog/how-much-cyber-sovereignty-too-much-cyber-sovereignty.

and services” and the “integrity of the Internet,” among other topics.⁴⁶ Similarly, in the aftermath of the 2019 mass shootings at two mosques in Christchurch, New Zealand, the governments of eighteen nations – along with more than a dozen well-known technology firms such as Google and Facebook – adopted the Christchurch Call to eliminate terrorist and violent extremist content online. Yet neither of these Calls, and other related efforts, bind the participants, though they do help find common ground that could, in time, be codified into laws or other enforceable standards, and build consensus about cyber peace.

It is the goal of this edited volume to unpack this field by addressing fundamental questions including, but not limited to, what is cyber peace? What lessons can we learn from UN peacebuilding efforts, as well as the Digital Blue Helmets initiative? How does the quest for cyber peace relate to the UN’s Sustainable Development Goals? What can we learn from previous historical epochs, such as the Pact of Paris? Can the drive for “cyber sovereignty” comport with cyber peace? How about leveraging national, bilateral, regional, and multilateral efforts within a polycentric framework? What lessons does the literature on regime complexes hold for promoting cyber peace?

The contributions in this edited volume feature a host of leading cybersecurity thought leaders from academia, nonprofits, and the private sector. They take a rich array of approaches, benefiting from their diverse backgrounds and experiences, at unpacking the concept of cyber peace.

OUTLINE OF THE BOOK

The book is structured as follows. It is divided into four main parts, each with several chapters. Part I is entitled “Beyond Stability, toward Cyber Peace: Key Concepts, Visions, and Models of Cyber Peace.” It addresses conceptual approaches to cyber peace, extending the arguments contained in this introduction. In Chapter 1, *Cyber Peace: Is That a Thing?*, Renée Marlin-Bennett explores the evolution of the concepts of peace and how they might be applied in the cyber dimension. She argues that the term “positive cyber peace” remains a concept laden with contradictions and ambiguity. A number of ontological tensions challenge the understanding of and policy planning for cyber peace. Some advocates of cyber peace define it as a condition, whereas others see it as a practice or set of practices. As a condition, cyber peace is sometimes defined as a kind of peace, and at other times as something within cyberspace. Distinct modes of ontologizing cyber peace as a set of practices include cyber peace as cyber peacemaking, as maintaining the stability of information technology, and/or as cyber defense actions. As such, Marlin-Bennett argues for further attention to be paid to scholarship on the terms “cyber” and “peace,” to boundary-setting distinctions between cyber peace and other social things, and to

⁴⁶ Paris Call for Trust and Security in Cyberspace, <https://pariscall.international/en/>.

the implications of cyber peace metaphors. All of this, she contends, suggests areas for further honing the conceptualization of this important term.

Chapter 2, “Domestic Digital Repression and Cyber Peace,” sees Jessica Steinberg, Cyanne E. Loyle, and Federica Carugati arguing that states have been quick to develop and adopt cyber capabilities that go far beyond mere surveillance and censorship. These have the potential to act as a brake on progress toward true cyber peace.

Part II is called “Modalities: How Might Cyber Peace Be Achieved? What Practices and Processes Might Need to Be Followed in Order to Make It a Reality?.” It moves beyond the conceptual framework and sees chapter authors discuss what might be called their “operationalization.” Deborah Housen-Couriel in Chapter 3, “Information Sharing as a Critical Best Practice for the Sustainability of Cyber Peace,” aims to establish the deep dependence of cybersecurity on information sharing (IS) as a critical tool for enabling cyber peace. IS on cyber threats and their mitigation constitutes a critical best practice within many domestic regulatory regimes and is often defined as a confidence-building measure, or CBM, in key international regulatory initiatives. Moreover, Housen-Couriel reminds us of that implementation of IS as a voluntary or recommended best practice or CBM – rather than as a mandated regulatory requirement – has the dual advantage of bypassing the legal challenges of enforcement at the national level and, internationally, of achieving formal multistakeholder agreement on cyber norms. The difficulties of such normative barriers are characteristic of the contemporary cyber “lay of the land,” awaiting resolution until binding cyber norms can be effectively incorporated into both domestic and international legal regimes. Housen-Couriel’s chapter emphasizes that a critical condition for IS specifically, as well as for cyber peace in general, is the establishment of trust among diverse stakeholders, best undertaken through polycentric regulation.

Brandon Valeriano and Benjamin Jensen in their *De-escalation Pathways and Disruptive Technology: Cyber Operations as Off-Ramps to War* (Chapter 4) look at cyber military operations. They remind us that while many suggest that there are inherently revolutionary and transformational qualities of cyber operations as they relate to larger military campaigns, military revolutions are often hard to quantify and rely as much on people, processes, and institutions as they do on new capabilities. Beyond their raw military potential, emergent capabilities like cyber operations are just one among many factors that shape strategic bargaining, a process often defined more by questions of resolve and human psychology than objective power calculations about uncertain weapons. When examined empirically, one finds that cyber operations are less transformative than many believe. Cyber operations tend to augment other instruments of power and function more as shaping activities – political warfare and intelligence – than a decisive battle. Valeriano and Jensen seek to develop a theoretical logic for how strategic decision-makers factor the use of cyber operations as a tool during crisis decision-making. They assert that when posed with

a decision to escalate or dampen a crisis, cyber options provide decision-makers a method for signaling and low-level cost imposition that does not exacerbate tensions. Decision-makers tend to leverage cyber options as a method to manage escalation and decrease hostility. This chapter illustrates this logic through a wargame survey experiment and a case study, demonstrating the potential for cyber operations to provide an off-ramp away from war.

Jean-Marie Chenou and John K. Bonilla-Aranzaes in Chapter 5, “Cyber Peace and Intrastate Conflicts: Toward Cyber Peacebuilding?,” argue that intrastate armed conflict became the most frequent and deadly form of engagement in the world after the end of the Cold War. The “massification” of the use of information and communications technology (ICT) and the digitization of political activities have turned intrastate conflicts into information-centric conflicts. In this context, cyberspace can be a battlefield as well as a space to conduct peacebuilding activities. Drawing upon literatures in conflict resolution and cybersecurity, their chapter proposes a definition of cyber peacebuilding as an active concept that captures those actions that delegitimize online violence, build capacity within society to peacefully manage online communication, and reduce vulnerability to triggers that may spark online violence. Cyber peacebuilding, Chenou and Bonilla claim, can also shed light on the relationship between intrastate conflicts and global cyber peace, contributing to raise awareness about cyber threats in the Global South. The chapter uses the cases of Colombia and South Africa in order to illustrate the challenges and prospects of cyber peacebuilding organized around the four pillars of cyberspace outlined in this volume. Moreover, Chenou and Bonilla-Aranzaes argue that cyber peacebuilding in the Global South is an essential element of the emergence of cyber peace as a global public good.

In Chapter 6, “Artificial Intelligence in Cyber Peace,” Tabrez Ebrahim makes the case that AI is a rapidly growing technology field with significant implications for cyberspace. As such, he argues, it presents unique information technology characteristics that challenge a sustainable, stable, and secure cyber peace. AI raises new considerations for human control or lack thereof and how it may help or hinder risks. AI presents consequences for offensive and defensive cybersecurity applications and international implications in the path toward cybersingularity (Artificial General Intelligence, or AGI, that surpasses human intelligence in cybersecurity). Ebrahim contends that the use of AI in a technological cyber arms race will shape cyber peace policy. While recognizing the great deal of concern of an AI arms race leading to cybersingularity, this chapter recognizes that a complex tapestry of coordination is necessary to promote a stable information infrastructure. Focusing on the principle of shared governance, it argues that talent mobilization of global AI service corps can offset the negative impact of nation-states’ economic competition to develop AGI.

Part III of the book is called “Lessons Learned and Looking Ahead” which concentrates on cases that highlight the promise and limitations of existing “real-world”

practices and how they could work in a cyber dimension. Jennifer Trahan, in Chapter 7 “Contributing to Cyber Peace by Maximizing the Potential for Deterrence: The Criminalization of Cyber-Attacks under the International Criminal Court’s Rome Statute,” examines how a cyberattack that has consequences similar to a kinetic or physical attack – causing serious loss of life or physical damage – could be encompassed within the crimes that may be prosecuted before the International Criminal Court (ICC). Trahan explains that while there is a very limited subset of cyber operations that might fall within the ambit of ICC’s Rome Statute, there is value in thinking through when and how a cyberattack could constitute genocide, a crime against humanity, a war crime, or a crime of aggression. Trahan acknowledges limitations as to which attacks would be encompassed, particularly given ICC’s gravity threshold, as well as the hurdle of proving attribution by admissible evidence that could meet the requirement of proof beyond a reasonable doubt. Notwithstanding such limitations, increased awareness of the largely overlooked potential of the Rome Statute to cover certain cyberattacks could potentially contribute to deterring such crimes and to reaching the goal of a state of “cyber peace.”

In Chapter 8, “Trust but Verify: Diverse Verifiers Are a Prerequisite to Cyber Peace,” Rob Knake and Adam Shostack claim that verification is a prerequisite for peace. Moreover, they assert: peace requires verification beyond “national technical means” or espionage. It requires mechanisms that are trusted and understood by the public. Their chapter lays out the case for a mechanism perhaps analogous to publicly operated seismographs. Seismographs detect not only earthquakes but also nuclear weapon tests. Similarly, a constellation of cyber data gathering tools, built from analogy to aviation safety programs, can provide authoritative evidence of violations and, in so doing, lead to public confidence in the state of peace.

Chapter 9, “Building Cyber Peace While Preparing for Cyber War,” by Frédéric Douzet, Aude Géry, and François Delerue, serves as both a look forward and a conclusion for the volume. In it, the authors claim that since President Macron’s launch of the Paris Call for Trust and Security in Cyberspace in the Fall of 2018, amidst the collapse of international cyber norm discussions in June 2017, the international community has contemplated and launched multiple initiatives to restore a multilateral dialogue on the regulation of cyberspace in the context of international security. In December 2018, two resolutions were adopted by the United Nations General Assembly (UN General Assembly) to set up the sixth Group of Governmental Experts (GGE) on the subject and a new Open-Ended Working Group (OEWG). Then, in October 2020, a Program of Action for advancing responsible state behavior in cyberspace was proposed, while two new resolutions were once again adopted by the UN General Assembly. This chapter offers an analysis of the multilateral efforts conducted over the past decade to build cyber peace in a context of proliferation of cyber conflicts and exacerbated geopolitical tensions. It studies more specifically how international law has been leveraged in UN negotiations to serve strategic objectives. Their findings show that the road to cyber peace is arduous, given the

will of states to preserve their ability to conduct cyber-offensive operations. In the early stages of consensus building up to 2016, traditional instruments of collective security – such as international law and non-binding norms of responsible behavior – have helped advance the discussions by providing an existing legal framework applicable to cyber operations as a basis for negotiation. However, since then, the renewed strategic competition and exacerbated geopolitical tensions have led states to engage not only in a cyber arms race but also in a competition for normative influence.

Part IV of the volume is made up of less formal, more free-flowing contributions. These chapters highlight the contributions and vision of a number of individuals and organizations to our understanding of cyber peace. Chapter 10 is an interview with Camille François, one of the pioneers of the concept of cyber peace. In it, she lays out the origin and evolution of the term in her work. In Chapter 11, Anne E. Boustead and Scott J. Shackelford explain how empirical research can do much to enhance our current understanding of cyber peace phenomena. However, they point out researchers often face significant barriers that – while not unique to cyber research – are particularly salient or difficult to overcome in this context. In this chapter, Boustead and Shackelford explore barriers commonly encountered in empirical cyber research and propose mechanisms for addressing them. When conducting empirical cyber studies, researchers may find it difficult to observe decisions made by a range of public and private actors (who may not be incentivized to publicize this decision-making), coordinate expertise across multiple domains, and systematically identify and observe members of the population of interest. In order to facilitate these processes, the authors recommend increased incentives for interdisciplinary research, public-private partnerships, and broader publication of cyber-related data.

The last three chapters in the book are written on behalf of nongovernmental organizations working in the field of cyber peace. Chapter 12, authored by Stéphane Duguin, Rebekah Lewis, Francesca Bosco, and Juliana Crema, all from the Cyber Peace Institute, note the frequent assessment that the path to cyber peace is complex, new, and ever-evolving. Although this may be true, the authors remind us, just because it poses a challenge does not mean it should not be discussed. They believe that it is time to address the question of accountability in cyberspace through the human-centric approach advocated for by cyber peace. In order for cyber peace to exist, human rights and freedoms need to be protected according to their respective contexts. Only by addressing cyber peace in this way, the authors assert, can we begin to sort through the puzzle pieces to create a framework for peace and stability in cyberspace. Chapter 13 is written by Megan Stifel, Kayle Giroud, and Ryan Walsh, all from the Global Cyber Alliance. They point out that among high-profile cybersecurity incidents over the past decade, several were reportedly the work of nation-state actors. The actors leveraged tactics, techniques, and procedures to take advantage of known vulnerabilities – technical and human – to undertake actions

that compromised personal information, risked human health, and paralyzed the global supply chain. Left unchecked, the scale and breadth of such actions can threaten international stability. Yet, the authors remind us that an examination of high-level cases suggests that basic cyber hygiene is an accessible and practical approach to mitigate such incidents, can enhance confidence in the use of ICT, and ultimately advance cyber peace. Vineet Kumar writes in his chapter that the Internet's potential can help people from the far corners of the earth to collaborate and share information for a common cause. However, this newfound access brings in its own set of vulnerabilities, threats, and risks. Crowdsourcing is one way to address these risks by using a systematic approach that makes use of the Internet's excellent capabilities using today's technologies. CyberPeace Corps is one such initiative, seeking collaboration from people of all backgrounds and from everywhere to maintain cyber peace by collectively combating cyber threats, cyberbullying, and cybercrime by upholding the cybersecurity triad of confidentiality, integrity, and availability of digital information resources across organizations. The final contribution comes from Anne-Marie Buzatu of ICT₄Peace. She points out that Advanced Persistent Threat Groups are changing the very character of modern international conflict today, with yet to be fully appreciated consequences. While not officially acknowledged by States, these groups develop sophisticated computer algorithms – allegedly on behalf of governments – to gain unauthorized access to government or company computer systems. Here the algorithms remain undetected for extended periods, gathering information, including sensitive information, about defense capabilities and critical infrastructure control systems. The “Solarwinds” attack discovered in December 2020 vividly illustrates both the damage and the uncertainty these kinds of attacks can cause to international peace and security. Some authorities believe these cyber attacks are changing the very character of warfare, requiring changes in the thinking and approach of how to effectively defend against them. The chapter concludes by identifying some important elements to be considered in adapting international obligations and norms to the paradigm of cyber attacks.

We hope for this to be the first, and certainly not the last, volume dedicated to this important topic.

