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Detecting stealthy attacks: Efficient monitoring of suspicious activities on computer networks

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Abstract

It may take weeks or months before a stealthy attack is detected. As networks scale up in size and speed, monitoring for such attempts is increasingly a challenge; collection and inspection of individual packets is difficult as the volume and the rate of traffic rise. This paper presents an efficient method to overcome such a challenge. Data reduction has become an integral part of passive network monitoring, which could be motivated as long as it preserves the required level of precision. This paper examines the feasibility of employing traffic sampling together with a simple, but a systematic, data fusion technique for monitoring; and whether the design of the network affects on non-sampling error. Proposed approach is capable of monitoring for stealthy suspicious activities using 10%-20% size sampling rates without degrading the quality of detections.

Keywords: stealthy attacks, Bayesian, simulation, traffic sampling, anomaly detection

1. Introduction

1 Launching *stealthy attacks* is one of sophisticated techniques used by skillful
2 attackers to avoid detection and can take months to complete the attack life
3 cycle. Tools and techniques to launch such attacks are widely available. In order
4 to detect stealthy activities it is necessary to maintain a long history of what
5 is happening in the environment. Most systems cannot keep enough event data
6 to track across extended time intervals for this purpose due to the performance
7 issues and computational constraints [1, 2]. Decision to inspect each and every
8 individual packet for security analysis may consume more resources at network
9

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10 devices for packet processing and more bandwidth for transmissions them to
11 collection points [3]. Sophisticated computing systems may be required for
12 analysis and storage such a huge volume of data. The performance of network
13 can be affected by such overheads and hence to quality of the service. All
14 these facts motivate for a *data reduction* which could be motivated as long as
15 it preserves the required level of precision for the monitoring objectives which
16 can be either traffic engineering, accounting or security specific.

17 This paper presents a study for an efficient monitoring scheme for stealthy
18 attacks on computer networks which can consider as an early warning system.
19 *Traffic sampling* is employed together with a simple *data fusion* technique to
20 propose the algorithm which applies over the sampled traffic. The study has two
21 objectives. First, investigating the feasibility of proposed method for stealthy
22 activity monitoring; and secondly, examining whether design of the network
23 affects on detection. The rest of the paper is organised as follows. Section 2
24 provides a brief overview of intrusion detection in computer systems, and ex-
25 plains why conventional methods which are largely developed for rapid attacks
26 cannot be employed in stealthy activity monitoring. Section 3 presents a moni-
27 toring algorithm which identifies Bayesian approach as a method for information
28 fusion. Sampling technique employed by the monitoring scheme is presented in
29 Section 4. Section 5 presents a methodological way to trace anonymous stealthy
30 activities to their approximate sources. Experimental design is presented in
31 Section 6. Sections 7 presents experimental outcomes. Related literature is pre-
32 sented in Section 8. Finally, conclusions are drawn in Section 9 where further
33 work is also suggested.

34 2. Security Monitoring

35 Computer systems are dynamic systems having many components such as
36 clients, servers, switches, firewalls and Intrusion Detection Systems (IDSs). At
37 each time interval these components produce large amounts of event based data
38 which, in principal, can be collected and used for security analysis. The sig-
39 nature elements of an attack is scattered *spatially* and *temporally*, and often
40 embedded within the totality of events of the distributed systems, and *motiva-*
41 *tion*¹ and *source*² behind some events are not always certain. In addition there
42 are number of monitoring obstacles in such an attack scenario: evidence scarcity
43 (weak), colluded activities, large attack surfaces, variety of users and devices,
44 high volume high speed environments, normal variations to node behaviours
45 and anomalies keep changing over the time [4, 5]. Due to the above challenges
46 most of the existing anomaly detection techniques solve a specific formulation
47 of the problem which induces by various factors such as data types and types

¹1. An alert of multiple login failures, 2. An execution of cmd.exe 3. An abuse of legitimate credentials either by individuals or malware.

²Using various proxy methods and zombie nodes. manipulation of TCP/IP elements, using relay or random routing.

48 of anomalies of interested, and encourage unsupervised anomaly detection tech-
49 niques [6]. Proposed monitoring scheme in this paper is an effort to address
50 most of above obstacles in one solution.

51 In signature based intrusion detection an attack scenario signature is needed
52 to distinguish a given attack (say A) from other attacks (B and C) and from
53 normal network activities. When a stealthy attack is progressing the critical
54 challenge is how to correlate these events across spatial and temporal spaces
55 to track various attack scenarios such as A , B and C . The detection accuracy
56 relies on the accuracy of scenario signature as well as the accuracy of event
57 correlation [7]. Maintaining state information of every packets and comparisons
58 between current packets and previous all packets are needed in event correla-
59 tion. Most systems cannot keep enough event data to track across extended
60 time intervals to do this when a stealthy attack is progressing. As a result the
61 scarcity of attack data within a short period of time allows a stealthy attacker
62 to go undetected hiding her attempts in the background noise and other traffic.
63 Hence using signature detection techniques for stealthy activity monitoring is a
64 challenge.

65 Proposed monitoring algorithm in this paper is anomaly based. Finding non-
66 conforming patterns or behaviours in data is referred to as anomaly detection.
67 An intrusion is different from the normal behaviour of the system, and hence
68 anomaly detection techniques are applicable in intrusion detection domain [6].
69 Intrusive activity is always a subset of anomalous activity is the ordinary belief
70 of this idea [8, 9]. When there is an intruder who has no idea of the legitimate
71 user's activity patterns, the probability that the intruder's activity is detected
72 as anomalous is high. This has been formulated in [10] as a pattern recog-
73 nition problem. When the actual system behaviour deviates from the normal
74 profiles in the system an anomaly is flagged. Information fusion would be a pos-
75 sible method for data reduction. However given the nature of problem domain,
76 anomaly detection techniques need to be computationally efficient to handle
77 large sized of inputs. Hence considering any complex method, e.g. methods like
78 Principal Components Analysis [11], for information fusion is ignored as they
79 introduce extra computational overheads which aimed to minimise as much as
80 possible in this work.

81 3. Monitoring Algorithm

82 The monitoring algorithm is inspired by previous work [12] which is inspired
83 by [13]. It is an incremental approach which updates normal node profiles
84 dynamically based on changes in network traffic (events). If some aberrant
85 changes happen in network traffic over the time, it should be reflected in profiles
86 as well and suspicious activities can be raised based on that profiles is the basic
87 assumption. The algorithm has two functions: *profiling* and *analysis*.

88 3.1. Profiling

89 The profiling is the method for evidence fusion across space and time by
90 updating node profiles dynamically based on changes in evidence. Simply put,

91 it computes a suspicion score for each node in the system during a smaller time
 92 window w and that score is updated as time progresses to compute a node score
 93 for a larger observation window W . By just looking at an alert generated by an
 94 event it is impossible to simply judge the *motivation* (cause) behind it. Other
 95 contextual information can be used to narrow down the meaning of such an
 96 event [14]. For example, suspicious port scanning activity may have the following
 97 characteristics: a single source address, one or more destination addresses, and
 98 target port numbers increasing incrementally. When fingerprinting such traffic
 99 analysts examine multiple elements (multivariate) and develop a hypothesis for
 100 the cause of behaviour on that basis. A similar manner (multivariate approach)
 101 can be followed in the profiling to acknowledge the motivation uncertainty. Note
 102 that What and Why are two different questions. Projecting Why into What
 103 based on your own guesses is methodologically irresponsible. Hence it needs
 104 a simple, but systematic, approach to profile suspects based on motivation of
 105 activities instead of number of activities (what you see). In other words, security
 106 events must be analysed from as many sources as possible in order to assess
 107 threat and formulate appropriate responses. Extraordinary levels of security
 108 awareness can be attained by simply listening to what its all indicators are
 109 telling you [15]. Note that proposed profiling technique in this paper fuses
 110 information gathered from different sources into a single score for a minimum
 111 computational cost. It reduces data into a single value which is important to
 112 maintain information about node activities for a very long observation period
 113 W . A multivariate version of simple Bayes' formula is used for this task.

114 3.2. The Bayesian paradigm

The posterior probability of the hypothesis H_k given that E is given by the well-known Bayes formula:

$$p(H_k/E) = \frac{p(E/H_k) \cdot p(H_k)}{p(E)} \quad (1)$$

The hypothesis for the monitoring algorithm is built as follows. Let H_1 and H_2 be two possible states of a node in a network and define H_1 - the node acts as an attacker and H_2 - the node does not act as an attacker. Then H_1 and H_2 are mutually exclusive and exhaustive states. $P(H_1)$ is an expression of belief, in terms of probability, that the node is in state H_1 in the absence of any other knowledge. Once obtained more knowledge on the proposition H_1 through multiple information sources (m indicators), in the form of evidence $E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots, e_m\}$ on attack surface including the human element, the belief can be expressed in terms of conditional probabilities as $p(H_1/E)$. Using the Bayes' theorem in Equation 1 and assuming statistical independence between information sources:

$$p(H_1/E) = \frac{\prod_{j=1}^m p(e_j/H_1) \cdot p(H_1)}{\sum_{i=1}^2 \prod_{j=1}^m p(e_j/H_i) \cdot p(H_i)} \quad (2)$$

115 When likelihoods $p(e_j/H_i)$ and prior $p(H_i)$ are known, the posterior $p(H_1/E)$
116 can be calculated for a given w . These posterior terms $p(H_1/E)$ can be accumu-
117 lated by time to use as a metric to distinguish suspected nodes from other nodes
118 during a W . Note that distinct types of information sources such as signature
119 based IDSs, anomaly detection components, file integrity checkers, SNMP-based
120 network monitoring systems can be used for this purpose. Hence the assump-
121 tion on statistical independence above is reasonable. Any influence/interested
122 technical and socio-technical indicators of changes in behaviour (e.g. changes
123 in access patterns, differences in use of language, typing patterns, transferring
124 large amounts of data onto or off the node, etc; if human actors are involved)
125 can be included as input variables (i.e. elements of E) in the profiling algo-
126 rithm as long as such indicators operate statistically independent. Extending
127 proposed approach to a very large scale attack surface is easy since it is a matter
128 of adding a new indicator (attack vector) in E . Existing domain knowledge will
129 serve to enhance the performance of this monitoring algorithm since it takes
130 advantage of prior knowledge about the parameters. Which is especially use-
131 ful when technical data is scarce. However prior and likelihoods are the most
132 critical parameters to this approach since Bayes' factors are sensitive to them.
133 Proposed monitoring algorithm would be useful in monitoring threats listed in
134 Table 1. The potential threats and their indicators in Table 1 is not exhaustive
135 and for illustrating purpose only.

136 3.3. Analysis

137 The analysis comprised of detecting anomalous profiles in a given set of
138 node profiles. If attacker activity pattern is sufficiently reflected by profiles then
139 detecting anomalous profiles would be sufficient to identify attackers. This work
140 uses a statistical method to detect anomalies. An anomaly is an observation
141 in a dataset which is suspected of being partially or wholly irrelevant because
142 it is not generated by the stochastic model assumed for that dataset is the
143 underlying principle of any statistical anomaly detection technique [17]. Such
144 techniques are based on the key assumption that normal data instances occur in
145 high probability regions of a stochastic model, while anomalies occur in the low
146 probability regions of the stochastic model [6]. Based on these concepts *Peer*
147 and *Discord* analysis is proposed in this work for detecting stealthy activities in
148 a given set of node profiles. Both techniques acknowledge the fact that baseline
149 behaviour on networks is not necessarily stable, for example, operational or
150 exercise deployments often mean the behaviour of nodes will potentially change
151 dramatically. Hence, a defence method that is effective today may not remain
152 effective for tomorrow, and any novel algorithm should account for this level
153 of complexity. Proposed approach evolves the baseline behaviour by the time
154 according to the other network parameters and their current states.

Scenario	Brief Description	Potential Indicators to use in E
Distant Admin	Unauthorised admin like access to servers and workstations from distant (geographically) locations. There is a “motivation” uncertainty behind this kind of behaviour as legitimate users and administrators frequently access enterprise network from endpoints which are geographically far away from the organisation.	Distance between hosts, Total bytes transferred, Service being used (e.g. RDP, SSH, VNC, telnet), Protocol, etc.
Data exfiltration	Large uploads to remote servers, once an attacker breached a network data ex-filtration can be difficult to prevent and detect as they use stealthy methods to get data back to their infrastructure during very long time periods. Typically they exfiltrate the data in batches across commonly used channels (e.g. http(s)) permitted by firewalls. Detection of this activity as early as possible would be beneficial to prevent further damage to the organisation.	Service being used (e.g. http(s)), protocol being used, session duration, amount of traffic exchanged, ratio of bytes exchanged to/from, etc.
Port Scanners	Slow randomised port scans which can be a part of an attacker’s reconnaissance efforts.	Number of zero byte TCP packets/sessions, Number of one-sided UDP communications, number distinct server ports touched, number of host touched, etc.
Protocol Abuse	A popular type of tunnel communication through a common service port (e.g. ports 80 -HTTP, 53 - DNS, 443 - HTTPS) since these ports are not blocked by firewalls and other network security devices for business-critical functions.	Known common ports and their expected traffic types, session duration, amount of traffic exchanged, etc.
Beacon	Monitoring for slow beacons from infected hosts to C2 servers. There is a “motivation” uncertainty behind this kind of behaviour as some innocent programs (e.g. some types of DNS traffic, regular software updates, anti-virus definition updates) also exhibit recurrent communication. Malware may try to hide behind such innocent activities (network noise). By continues monitoring helps spotting them before they can do any real damage.	traffic types (e.g. HTTP(S)), security level, version of the OS, OS is patched or not, type of the app generating network traffic, etc.

Table 1: Possible real world network scenarios that proposed method would be useful to apply [16]

155 *3.3.1. Peer analysis*

Aggregating posterior probability terms in Equation 2 over the time helps to accumulate relatively weak evidence for long periods. These accumulated probability terms $\sum_t p(H_1/E)$ (t is time), known as *node scores*, can be used as a measurement of the level of suspicion of a given node at any given time with respect to her peers as follows. A given set of node profiles, e.g. profiles corresponding to a similar peer group, is a uni-variate data set. Hence it is possible to use the uni-variate version of Grubb's test [18] (maximum normed residual test) to detect anomalous points in the set, subject to the assumption that *normal* node profiles in a given set follow an unknown Gaussian distribution [19]. The set-up where it has the distribution is very well a mixture of Gaussian. Because testing of the hypothesis for any given time is a Bernoulli trial in this work. Accumulated Bernoulli trials makes a Binomial distribution which can be approximated by a Normal distribution. For each profile score ω , its z score is computed as:

$$z = \frac{\omega - \bar{\omega}}{s} \quad (3)$$

156 Where $\bar{\omega}$ and s are mean and standard deviation of the data set. A test instance
157 is declared to be anomalous at significance level α if:

$$z \geq T = \frac{N-1}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{\frac{t_{\alpha/N, N-2}^2}{N-2 + t_{\alpha/N, N-2}^2}} \quad (4)$$

158 where N is the number of profile points in the set, and $t_{\alpha/N, N-2}$ is the
159 value taken by a t-distribution (one tailed test) at the significance level of $\frac{\alpha}{N}$
160 and degrees of freedom $(N-2)$. The α reflects the confidence associated with
161 the threshold and indirectly controls the number of profiles declared as anoma-
162 lous [6]. Note that the threshold T adjusts itself according to current state of
163 a network. This is a vertical analysis to detect one's aberrant behaviour with
164 respect to her peers. In other words it compares each node's activity changes
165 against to activity changes of her peer group. Hence it is called as *peer analysis*
166 in this paper. This analysis technique accounts for regular variations such as
167 diurnal, familiarity and ageing.

168 Looking at one's aberrant behaviour within similar peer groups (e.g. same
169 user types, departments, job roles, etc.) gives better results in terms of false
170 alarms than setting a universal baseline [20, 21]. Hence first classifying similar
171 nodes into peer groups, based on behaviour related attributes/features, and then
172 applying the monitoring algorithm is recommended. Investigations for suitable
173 classification algorithms for this task is left as a future work.

174 *3.3.2. Discord analysis*

175 When a stealthy attack is progressing, malicious activities are occurring
176 according to an on-off pattern in time. As a result, lack of agreement or harmony
177 between points in the profile sequence of a given node can occur in a similar
178 or different on-off fashion. This type of anomalies are known as discords [22].

179 In a stealthy attack environment, discords are random time context and peer
180 analysis technique itself is not sufficient to detect them if the progression rate
181 of malicious activities is far lower than the similar innocent activities. The
182 objective of discord analysis in this work is to detect sub-sequences within a
183 given sequence of profiles which is anomalous with respect to the rest of the
184 sequence. Problem formulation occurs in time-series data sets where data is
185 in the form of a long sequence and contains regions that are anomalous. The
186 underlying assumption is that the normal behaviour of the time-series follows
187 a defined random pattern, and a sub-sequence within the long sequence which
188 does not conform to this pattern is an anomaly. In general, the purpose of this
189 analysis is to detect one's aberrant behaviour with respect to her own behaviour
190 regardless of her peers. Following method is proposed for discord analysis.

191 At the $(t - 1)^{th}$ time point, using an Auto-regressive integrated moving
192 average model $ARIMA(p, d, q)$ [23] which describes the auto-correlations in
193 the data, 95% Confidence Interval (CI) for the t^{th} profile score is predicted.
194 If the observed profile score at time t lies outside of the predicted CI then
195 absolute deviation of the profile score from CI is calculated. This deviation is
196 used as a measure of non-conformity of a given profile score to the pattern of
197 its own sequence (group norms). These deviations average out over time to
198 calculate the *anomaly score* for a given node. Note that this anomaly score is
199 the average dissimilarity of profile scores with its own profile sequence of a
200 node. This dissimilarity occurs randomly from time to time due to the deliberate
201 intervention of the attacker. The length of the ARIMA model (i.e. n - number
202 of previous points to be used) is critical as containing anomalous regions in
203 input sequence makes difficult of creating robust model of normalcy. Note that
204 keeping the length of the ARIMA model less than the minimum of time gaps
205 between two consecutive attack activities will give better results. However since
206 the time gap between two consecutive attack activities is unknown in advance,
207 using a smaller observation window (i.e. slicing whole observation period into
208 many smaller parts as much as possible) to generate short time profiles would be
209 the better. A node does exhibit sudden changes in behaviour when compared to
210 its past behaviour is not necessarily suspicious as it could be a regular variation
211 of the node behaviour [20]. Proposed Discord analysis technique considers such
212 variations as completely legitimate as it monitoring for *changes to the changing*
213 *pattern* of node behaviour.

214 The key challenge for anomaly detection in network security domain is that
215 the huge volume of data, typically comes in a streaming fashion, thereby re-
216 quiring on-line analysis. It is essential to employ a data reduction method to
217 overcome large-scale data handling. Employing statistical sampling would be a
218 possible method. Despite the benefits, there is an inherent tension and debate
219 of using traffic sampling for security specific tasks. Obviously, signature based
220 detection methods can be seriously affected by sampling as selection of a subset
221 of signature elements would not be sufficient to recognise a predefined pattern
222 in a signature definition database. But in anomaly based detection, should all
223 traffic still need to be investigated? In the abstract view, an anomaly is a devi-
224 ation of a computed statistic from a norm of the normal statistics. If sampling

225 changes the statistics of normal and anomalous traffic equally, it is reasonable
 226 to hypothesise that detection would not be affected by the sampling rate. This
 227 hypothesis is also investigated in this paper.

228 4. Employing sampling

229 Network data constitutes a potentially unlimited population continuously
 230 growing up by the time. Using multi-stage sampling with stratification is usual
 231 in large populations. This ensures that observations are picked from each of
 232 strata, even though the probability of being selected items from some stratus
 233 are very low when using simple random sampling (SRS). This feature is very
 234 useful in a security specific view. Hence, given a smaller observation window w ,
 235 the traffic is sampled using the Stratification sampling technique with optimum
 236 allocation method. This sampling technique has been designed to provide the
 237 most precision for the *least cost*. If h is a traffic stratum, the best sample size
 238 n_h for stratum h during a w is given by:

$$n_h = n \cdot \frac{\left[\frac{N_h \cdot s_h}{\sqrt{c_h}} \right]}{\sum \frac{N_i \cdot s_i}{\sqrt{c_i}}} \quad (5)$$

239 where n_h -sample size for stratum h , n -total sample size, N_i -population size
 240 for stratum i , s_i -standard deviation of stratum i , and c_i -direct cost (in terms
 241 of time, bandwidth, and computational resources) on the collection infrastruc-
 242 ture to sample an individual element from stratum i . Note that the direct cost
 243 should be in a common unit (CU) of measurement for the amount of computa-
 244 tional cost spending on different parameters. The time, bandwidth, memory or
 245 processor requirements that constitutes one common unit (1CU) varies based
 246 on which requirement is being measured, and how each parameter is critical and
 247 scarce to the network. Hence definition of such a unit (CU) would be subject-
 248 tive. For instance one can define: 1CU is memory equivalent of 128MB, 1CU is
 249 bandwidth equivalent of 56KBPS, 1CU is CPU-Time equivalent of 100 nsec etc.
 250 International unit (IU) in pharmacology is a well-known example for a similar
 251 approach for a common unit of measurement for the amount of a substance [24].
 252 The main advantage of above sampling technique is producing the most repre-
 253 sentative sample of a population to the least cost. Hence it is the ideal sampling
 254 technique to employ with the problem as “cost” parameter can be minimised,
 255 subject to the required precision, to obtain a light-weighted monitoring scheme.
 256 The rule of thumb in stratification sampling that a population should not consist
 257 of more than six strata can be changed even into hundreds given the millions of
 258 observations in the population in this domain. Traffic classification is employed
 259 to establish the strata. Using a basic classification technique (e.g. using L4/L3
 260 access lists and Protocols) would be enough. Stratification ensures that each
 261 traffic type is adequately represented. The SRS technique is used to select a
 262 n_h size sample from a given stratum h for a w . Random sampling techniques
 263 have a distinct advantage over other alternative methods for data reduction.
 264 It allows retention of arbitrary details while other methods for data reduction

265 (e.g. filtering and aggregation) require the knowledge of the traffic features of
266 interest in advance.

267 Each element of the population having a non-zero probability of selection is
268 a preliminary condition for any random sampling techniques. Sampling traffic
269 from backbones or edge routers seriously violates this condition in terms of secu-
270 rity specific view, though it is sufficient for Traffic engineering and Accounting
271 tasks. Since it ignores consideration of traffic within same broadcast domains, it
272 ignores potential insider activities as well. Therefore in this work traffic is sam-
273 pled at each broadcast domain, but considering the incoming traffic only. All
274 outgoing traffic to any external network is considered as a separate broadcast
275 domain for the purpose of traffic sampling. Considering incoming traffic only
276 avoids selection of a given unit (packet or flow) twice for inclusion in a sample
277 at source and destination points.

278 5. Tracing the Source

279 A common problem with many analysis tools and techniques today is that
280 they are simply not designed for purposes of attribution[25]. Attribution of
281 cyber activity - “knowing who is attacking you” or “determining the identity
282 or location of an attacker or an attacker’s intermediary”- is naturally a vital
283 ingredient in any cyber security strategy [26, 27]. Although current approaches
284 are capable of alarming suspicious activities, most of them are not suitable
285 for this information age because when computers are under attack “who” and
286 “why” are frequently unknown [28, 29].

287 The localization process becomes evermore difficult when the attacker em-
288 ploys various proxy methods and zombie nodes (e.g. bots), Manipulation of
289 TCP/IP elements (e.g. IP Spoofing), using relay or random routing (e.g. Tor
290 networks) approaches can help an attacker protecting her location. Prolifera-
291 tion of weakly encrypted wireless networks could also help an attacker getting
292 anonymous locations. Tracing packets back to the source hop by hop is required
293 in identifying sources of anonymous activities. This section presents a method-
294 ological way to trace such activities to their approximate sources by extending
295 the above monitoring algorithm. The tracing algorithm has two functions: *tree*
296 *formation* and *tree traversal*. Tree formation builds an equivalent tree structure
297 for a given attack scenario. It enables tree traversal to move towards the at-
298 tacker’s physical source.

299

300 5.1. *Tree formation:*

301 If the topological information is available, Tree formation is performed as
302 follows. The victim node is the starting point. The Gateway node to victim is
303 considered as the root of the tree and all immediate visible nodes (either inter-
304 nal or external) to the root are considered as children of the root. If a given
305 child is a host node in the network then it becomes a leaf of the tree. If it is
306 a gateway then it becomes a parent node of the tree and all immediate visible

307 nodes to that node are attached as its children. This process is continued until
 308 the entire topology is covered (see Figure 22).

309

```

input : Topological information together with victim's location
output: Tree structure for the given attack scenario
Initialize the tree  $\vartheta$  to have the root as the gateway of the victim;
List all nodes into the list  $\tau$ ;
/* attached each node to the tree*/;
tree-construction( $\vartheta, \tau$ );
/* $\vartheta$  - Tree;
,  $\omega$  - A node*/;
310 foreach node  $\omega$  in  $\tau$  do
|   if num-of-hops-between( $\vartheta, \omega$ ) $==1$  then
|   |   insert  $\omega$  into  $\vartheta$ ;
|   end
end
foreach  $\vartheta$ .child do
|   tree-construction( $\vartheta$ .child,  $\tau$ )
end

```

Algorithm 1: Tree formation for a given attack scenario.

311 5.2. Tree traversal:

312 Once the equivalent tree structure is built, *channel profile* score (z_{kt}) should
 313 be computed for each path of the tree at each step of the tree traversal algorithm
 314 as shown in Equation 7. Let

$$c_{kt} = \frac{\sum_t p(H_k/E)}{n_k} \quad (6)$$

where n_k is the number of nodes behind k^{th} channel. Then

$$z_{kt} = \frac{c_{kt} - \bar{c}_t}{\sigma_t} \quad (7)$$

315

316 is the Z-score of channel k at time t . where $\bar{c}_t = \frac{\sum_i c_{it}}{n}$, $\sigma_t = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i (c_{it} - \bar{c}_t)^2}{n-1}}$, and
 317 $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$.

318

319 To traverse a non-empty tree, perform the following operations recursively
 320 at each node, starting from the root of the tree, until suspected node is found.

321

1. Visit the parent node

322

2. Compute channel scores for all children of the parent

323

3. Traverse the highest channel scored sub tree if that score is above the
 324 threshold (if an attacker node is found backtrack to the parent)

325 4. Traverse the next highest channel scored sub trees (only sub trees above
 326 or around threshold and/or significantly deviated from rest of nodes of
 327 same parent)

328 The algorithm continues working towards a built tree node by node, narrowing
 329 down the attack source to one network and then to a node. At this point it
 330 is possible to run more standard trace back methods by contacting the entity
 331 which controls that network if it is beyond the analyst’s control.

332

```

input : A Tree constructed for anonymous stealthy attack scenario
output: A node where attacker is located
proposed-traverse( $\vartheta$ );
while not found do
  | visit node  $\omega$ ;
  | if node  $\omega$  is a leaf then
  | | return;
333 | else
  | | profile all children of node;
  | | proposed-traverse(node.top_scored_child);
  | | proposed-traverse(node.next_scored_child);
  | end
end
end

```

Algorithm 2: Tree traversal for a given tree.

334 6. Experiments

335 A series of experiments were conducted simulating stealthy suspicious ac-
 336 tivities in simulated networks to evaluate the proposed approach in this paper.
 337 Simulating such activities on a real network certainly gives more realistic condi-
 338 tions than in a simulated network. However practical constraints of the project
 339 keep away using a real world network for this purpose. Network simulator
 340 *NS3* [30] is used to build a network topology (see Figure 1) consisting of a
 341 server farm and number of subnets of varying size. Table 2 presents a summary
 342 of specifications of event generation in simulated experiments.

343 A Poisson arrival model with inter-arrival time gap between two consecutive
 344 events as an exponential was assumed for events generation. Each simulation is
 345 run for a reasonable period of time to ensure that enough traffic is generated.
 346 Attackers are located at nodes in subnets. Suspicious and benign traffic were
 347 generated within and between subnets to simulate both attack and legitimate
 348 activities. Four types of suspicious activities (rate denoted by λ_a , $a = 1, 2, 3, 4$. in
 349 Table 2) was simulated. A stealthy attack is defined as a predefined sequence of
 350 such suspicious events executing an on-off manner. During the off period attack
 351 node acts as a healthy node. Note that “Noise” in table 2 represents the Suspi-
 352 cious events generated by healthy nodes, but at different rates λ_n , $n = 1, 2, 3, 4$.
 353 It was ensured to maintain $\lambda_a \in \lambda_n \pm 3\sqrt{\lambda_n}$ and $\lambda_n (\leq 0.1)$ sufficiently smaller for

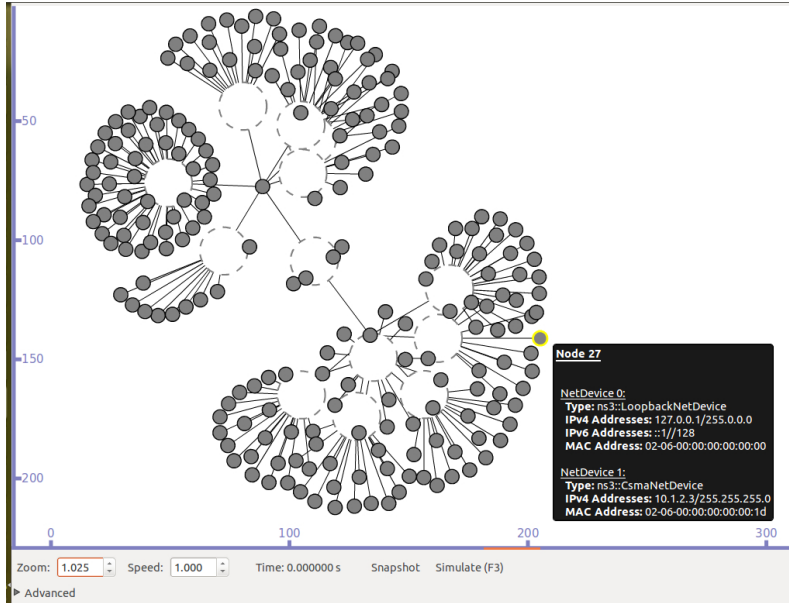


Figure 1: A screen-shot of a network topology used for experiments.

354 all experiments to characterise stealthy suspicious activities which aim at stay-
 355 ing beneath the threshold of detection and hiding behind the background noise.
 356 The idea to use the above relationship for generating attacker activities was to
 357 keep them within the *normality range* of innocent activities (i.e. background
 358 noise). $\sqrt{\lambda_n}$ is the standard deviation of rates of suspicious events generated by
 359 normal nodes.

360 Though it did not produce all signature elements needed to characterise real
 361 attacks, representation of *suspicious events* by a subset of such characteristics
 362 (parameters) was sufficient to this work as its focus on temporal and spatial
 363 aspects of events arrivals. Note that traffic classification is sufficient to the pro-
 364 posed sampling method in this work, and does not require attack classifications.

Node	Event	Model	Parameters	Duration (s)	Repetitions
Attack	Legitimate	Poisson	$\mu_i, i=1,2,3,\dots,10.$	3600*12*60=2592000 or above, scores are updated at every minutes (w=60s)	Between 1-100
	Suspicious		$\lambda_a, a=1,2,3,4.$		
Healthy	Legitimate		$\mu_i, i=1,2,3,\dots,10.$		
	Noise		$\lambda_n, n=1,2,3,4.$		

Table 2: A summary of specifications of event generation

365 Basic payload information, i.e. L4/L3 access lists and Protocols such as
 366 http, ftp, udp and arp, was used for traffic classification. Traffic which cannot
 367 identify using basic payload information was pooled into a common stratum.
 368 A simple R [31] script was written to sample packets as described above. c_i
 369 in Equation 5 is set to a constant value as there is no significant difference of

370 the cost between different type of traffics (stratum) for inclusion in a sample in
 371 simulations. Visible source of an event is always considered as the true source
 372 for experiments in this work. Prior probabilities and Likelihoods are assigned
 373 as described below.

$$p(H_1) = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5 \quad (8)$$

374 Equation 8 suggests there is a 50% chance for a given node to be a stealthy
 375 attacker. However, this is not the case in many situations. In networks, one
 376 node may have a higher prior belief of being suspicious than another. Since prior
 377 probabilities are based on previous experiences, $p(H_1)$ can be judged based on
 378 information gathered from contextual analysis. However if there is no basis to
 379 distinguish between nodes or groups of nodes, equally likely (i.e. same probabilit-
 380 ity of occurring) can be assumed. For the experiment presented in this paper,
 381 first followed the equally likely assumption, and prior probabilities were assigned
 382 as in equation 8. Then the posterior probability of a given node at time $t - 1$ is
 383 used as the prior of the same node at time t when time is progressing. This lets
 384 prior probabilities to adjust itself dynamically according to suspicious evidence
 385 observed over time.

$$p(e_j/H_1) = k_j \quad (9)$$

386 Equation 9 expresses the likelihood of producing event e_j by a subverted
 387 node. For the purpose of demonstration different, but arbitrary, values (≤ 1)
 388 were assigned for k to distinguish different type of events (e_j) produced for the
 389 simulation. Likelihoods for real world implementation can be estimated as fol-
 390 lows. If e_j is an event resulting from a certain type of known attack (e.g. a
 391 UDP scan or LAND² attack), then k can be assigned to one. However, k cannot
 392 always be one, as described in Section 2, as there are some suspicious events
 393 (e.g. an alert of multiple login failures) that can be part of an attack signature
 394 as well as originate from normal network activities. The question is how to es-
 395 timate $p(e_j/H_1)$, i.e. the true positives, if e_j becomes such an observation. One
 396 possible solution would be to use existing IDS evaluation datasets to estimate
 397 true positives. Estimating likelihoods for real world implementation is feasible,
 398 and [32] is a good example for that which provides a detailed description of the
 399 likelihood estimation in insider detection.

400 According to [13], in some cases, the historical rate of occurrences of certain
 401 attacks is known and can be used to estimate the likelihood that certain events
 402 derive from such attacks or it may be sufficient to quantify these frequencies by
 403 an expert in a similar way to estimating risk likelihoods to an accuracy of an
 404 order of magnitude. Note that [13]’s claim is completely theoretical as it follows

²A Denial of Service (DoS) attack which sets the source and destination information of a TCP segment to be the same. A vulnerable machine will crash or freeze due to the packet being repeatedly processed by the TCP stack.

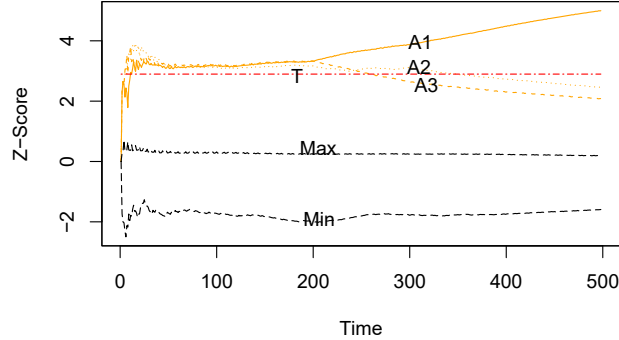


Figure 2: Z- Score graphs are sensitive to node behaviour.

405 the *Subjectivist*³ interpretation of probability theory [33]. According to [14], the
 406 biggest challenge is the absence of large publicly available data sets for research
 407 and comparisons, but within an organization it is entirely possible to empirically
 408 analyse day-to-day traffic and build statistical models of normal behaviour.

409 7. Results

410 In this section, experimental results are presented. Graphical forms (e.g.
 411 Z-Score graphs) are using to present information. Visualisation helps to quickly
 412 recognise patterns in data.

413 7.1. Peer Analysis Outcomes

414 To investigate whether proposed Z-score graphs reflect the behaviour of
 415 nodes, three attacker nodes were located in a 50 size subnet. All others were
 416 innocent. Two out of three attackers stopped their attack activities at 200 and
 417 300 time points respectively. Figure 2 presents the outcome, where *A1*, *A2* and
 418 *A3* are attacker nodes while *Min* and *Max* are the minimum and maximum
 419 Z-scores of normal nodes. *T* is the Grubbs' critical value (threshold). If an
 420 attacker node changed its behaviour, the corresponding z-score graph (see *A2*
 421 and *A3* in Figure 2) responses to that behaviour by changing its direction.

422 Peer analysis technique was tested against 24 test cases varying the subnet
 423 size between 25 and 250 and the number of attackers between 0 and 7. Peer
 424 analysis technique was capable of detecting stealthy attackers in all cases. Only

³There are three fundamental interpretations of probability: Frequentist, Propensity and Subjectivist. In Subjectivist, probability of an event is subjective to personal measure of the belief in that event is occurring.

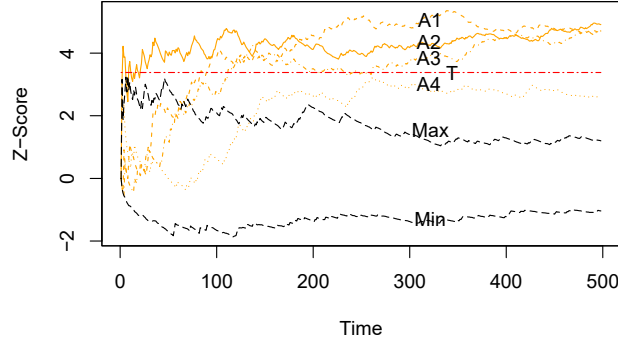


Figure 3: Z-Scores of node profiles for test case 16.

425 one case where four stealthy attackers were located in a hundred size subnet
 426 is presented in Figure 3. In Figure 3, nodes corresponding to $A1$, $A2$, $A3$ and
 427 $A4$ denote attackers. Min and Max denote the minimum and the maximum
 428 Z-scores of normal nodes at each time point. Aberrant node profiles $A1$, $A2$, $A3$
 429 and $A4$ in Figure 3 always corresponded to the four stealthy attackers located
 430 in the subnet. They are above or near the threshold (T), and most importantly,
 431 there is a clear visual separation between the set of normal nodes and anomalous
 432 nodes. Hence it is possible to recognise stealthy suspicious activities using the
 433 proposed method.

434 Behaviour of the proposed approach in best and worst cases is also investigat-
 435 ed. There were no attacks in best cases while all nodes were subverted in
 436 worst cases. Similar graphs, as shown in Figure 4, were obtained for both cases.
 437 Almost all the nodes are nearly below the threshold (T), and none of nodes can
 438 be seen separated from the majority. In a situation where monitoring system
 439 depends only on peer analysis technique and has seen similar graphs as in worst
 440 (or best) cases, it is safe to assume that all nodes are subverted (instead of as-
 441 suming free of attackers) and doing further investigations on one or two nodes to
 442 verify. If investigated nodes are attackers, it is reasonable to consider all nodes
 443 are attackers or vice versa. However, note that Discord analysis technique is
 444 capable of detecting attackers in worst case too.

445 7.2. Discord Analysis Outcomes

446 Discord analysis technique was tested against number of test cases used for
 447 peer analysis, in addition to testing it against a special test case defined as
 448 follows. In a stealthy attack environment, discords are random time context
 449 and peer analysis technique itself would not be capable to detect them if the
 450 progression rates of malicious activities are far lower than the rates of similar

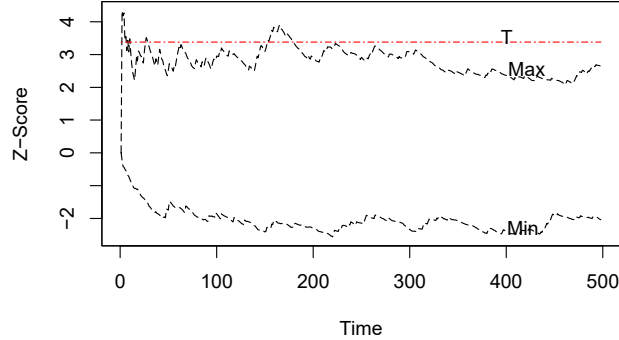


Figure 4: Z-Scores of node profiles for test case 7.

451 innocent activities. Therefore a small subnet consisting of five nodes including
 452 one attacker was set-up in a subnet. The attacker's activity rate was decreased
 453 until observing a node score graph like in Figure 5 where peer analysis technique
 454 itself failed to detect the attacker. In Figure 5, the attacker which is denoted
 455 by the red dotted line always keeps a very low profile score than all innocent
 456 nodes denoted by other lines (see magnified version in Figure 6). As it is seen
 457 in Figures 5 and 6, the attacker hides behind the normal nodes, and since the
 458 attacker's profile score is far lower than all normal nodes it is not detected by
 459 the peer analysis technique. The randomness of event generation can also be
 460 seen from Figure 6.

461 Discord analysis is capable of detecting the attacker very well in this case.
 462 First using an ARIMA(p, d, q) model 95% CI is predicted for each node in the
 463 network (see Figures 7 and 8 which are created for the attacker node and a
 464 normal node respectively). Then at each time point, anomaly score for all five
 465 nodes were calculated and converted them to Z-scores and plotted against the
 466 time line as in Figure 9. Twenty five previous points was used as the length of
 467 the ARIMA model in this case. In Figure 9, the node corresponded to *A* denotes
 468 the attacker. *Min* and *Max* denote the minimum and the maximum Z-scores
 469 of anomaly scores of normal nodes at each time point. *T* is the Grubbs' critical
 470 value (threshold) for a single outlier. As it is obvious in Figure 9 attacker node
 471 is distinguished from innocent nodes.

472 7.3. Network parameters

473 This section investigates how different network parameters: traffic volume,
 474 subnet size and number of attackers affect on monitoring of stealthy activities.

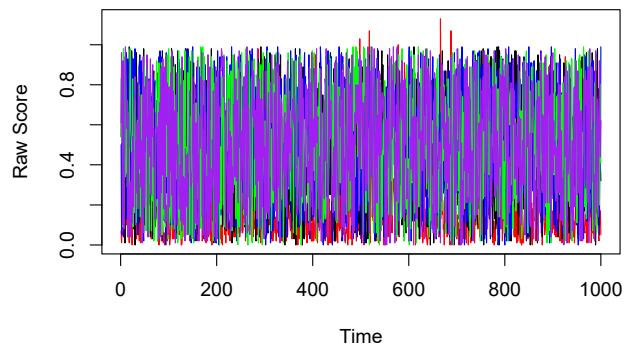


Figure 5: Hiding behind innocent nodes (See magnified version in Figure 6)

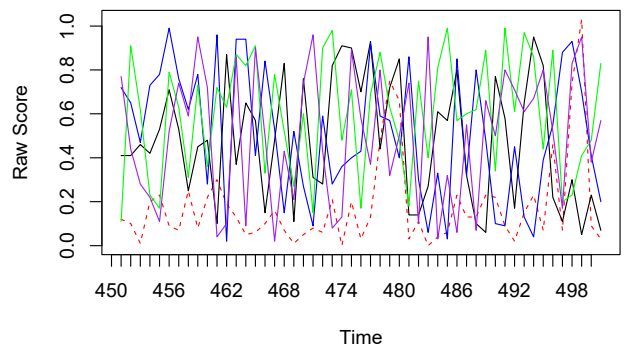


Figure 6: Magnified version of Figure 5 - the red dotted line denotes the attacker, all other lines denote innocent nodes.

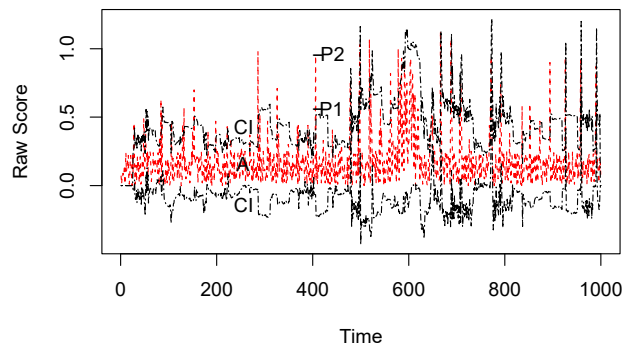


Figure 7: Node scores and 95% CI intervals for the attacker node. Black lines denote CIs while the red line denotes the attacker (A).

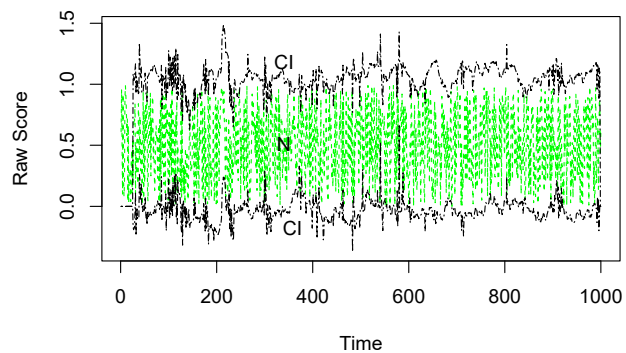


Figure 8: Node scores and 95% CIs for a normal node. Black lines denote CIs while the green line denotes the normal node (N).

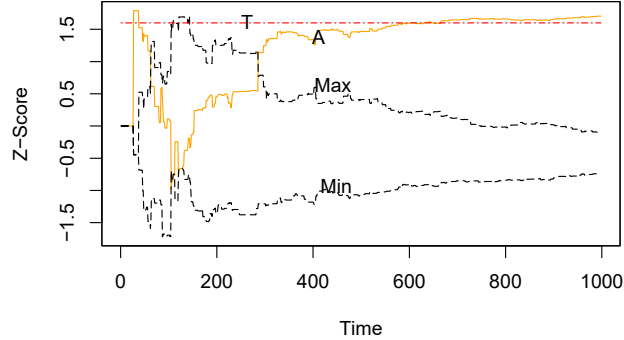


Figure 9: Z-Scores of anomaly scores for Discord analysis.

7.3.1. Traffic volume

A simple measure called detection potential is defined to explain how far an attacker node is deviated from the threshold. It helps to compare between different network conditions. The detection potential d is defined as:

$$d = z - T \quad (10)$$

on the basis of the higher the detection potential the better for the detection.

An attacker was located in a 51 size subnet and generated suspicious events. The same experiment was repeated six times by keeping all parameters unchanged, except attacker's traffic volume. If the attacker's traffic volume is V at the first time, then at each repetition the attacker's traffic volume was incremented by one time as $2V, 3V, \dots, 7V$. For each experimental run the detection potential (deviation of node scores from the norm) was calculated, and standardised values of the detection potentials are plotted as in Figure 10. As shown in Figure 11, the detection potential is proportional to the traffic volume. The higher the traffic volume produced by an attacker is the better for her detection using the monitoring algorithm.

7.3.2. Subnet size

An attacker was located in a 500 size subnet and the same experiment was repeated six times by keeping all other parameters, except the subnet size, unchanged. Subnet size was changed to 400, 300, 200, 100, 50 and 25 at each experimental run, and Figure 12 and 13 were obtained. As shown in Figure 12, attackers have a less chance to hide behind innocent events when the subnet size decreases. The detection potential is negative exponential to the subnet size, and going beyond 100 size subnet would not make any real sense in terms of detection (see Figure 13). The smaller the subnet size is the better for detection.

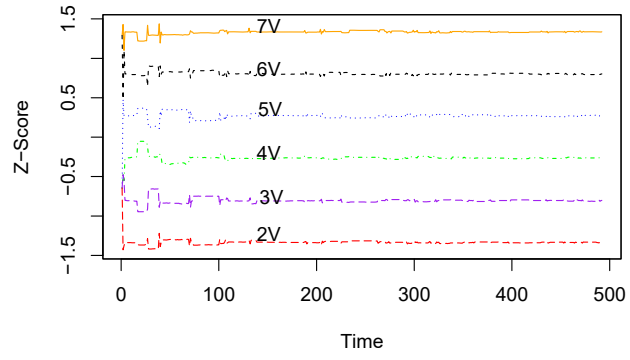


Figure 10: Z-Scores of deviations of cumulative node scores.

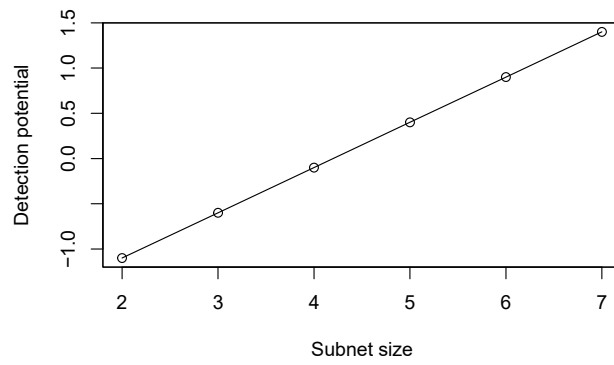


Figure 11: Traffic volume vs the detection potential.

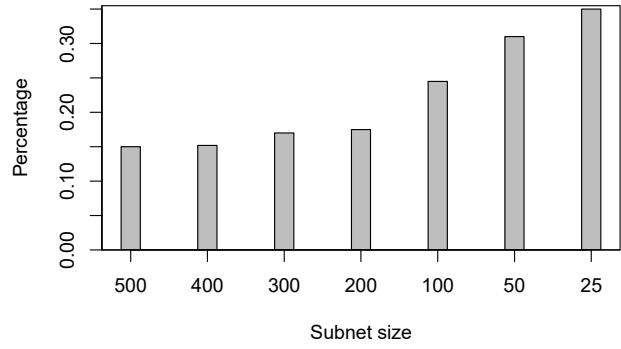


Figure 12: Percentages (%) of suspicious events generated by the attacker.

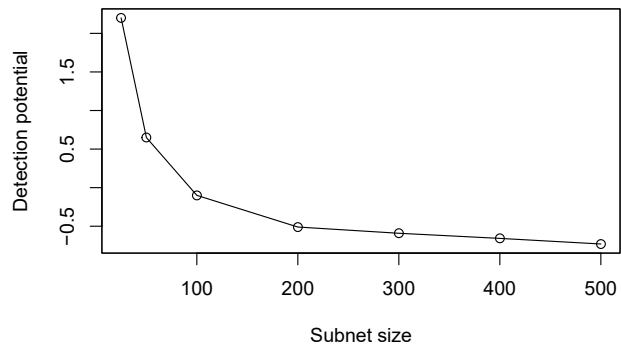


Figure 13: Subnet size vs Detection potential.

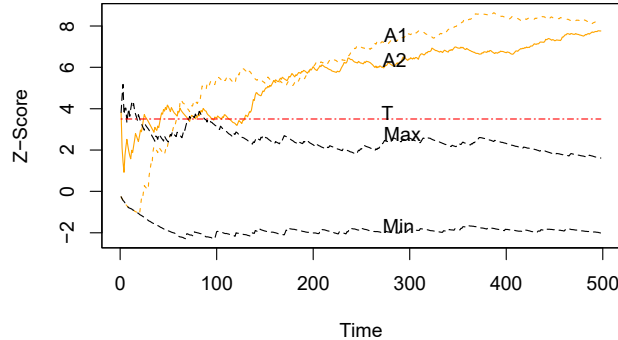


Figure 14: Z-Score graphs for same size subnets with different number of attackers (250 size subnet, two attackers).

499 *7.3.3. Number of attackers*

500 The same experiment was repeated many times by keeping all conditions
 501 unchanged, except the number of attackers. The outcomes of only two test cases,
 502 two and seven attackers, are presented in Figures 14 and 15. The attacker’s node
 503 score is dependent on the number of attackers on her own subnet (compare
 504 attackers’ Z-scores between both graphs).

505 *7.4. Sampling results*

506 A series of experiments have been conducted by changing the sampling rate
 507 r , hence n in Equation 5. Figures 16 and 17 present the outcomes of the pro-
 508 posed approach when $r = 20\%$ and $r = 10\%$ of the whole traffic N respectively.
 509 *Min* and *Max* represent the minimum and the maximum profile scores of normal
 510 nodes in the subnet where attacker node A is located. T represents the Grubbs’
 511 critical value (threshold) for attackers’ subnet. As it is obvious from Figure 16,
 512 proposed algorithm together with chosen sampling technique is capable of de-
 513 tecting stealthy activity using a 20% size traffic sample. It is also possible using
 514 even a 10% size sample, but after a considerable time lag.

515 Figure 18 compares the detection potential against the sampling rate r . It
 516 is obvious that a *point of diminishing returns* is existed in Figure 18. When
 517 r is larger enough to produce a reasonable level of accuracy, making it further
 518 large would be a simply waste of resources of monitoring infrastructure? This
 519 answers the question “in anomaly based detection, should all traffic still need
 520 to be investigated?”

521 *7.4.1. Network Design*

522 A sampling process has two types of errors: *sampling* and *non-sampling*.
 523 Sampling error occurs because of the chance, and it is impossible to avoid but

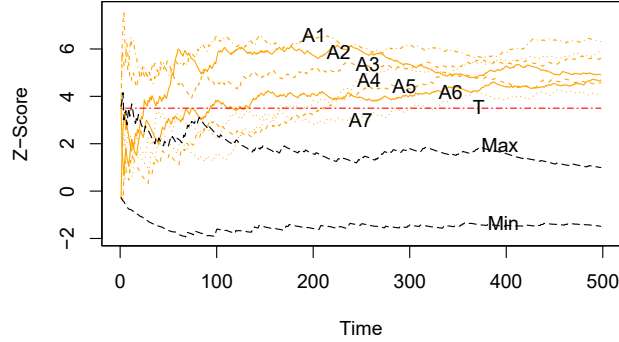


Figure 15: Z-Score graphs for same size subnets with different number of attackers (250 size subnet, seven attackers).

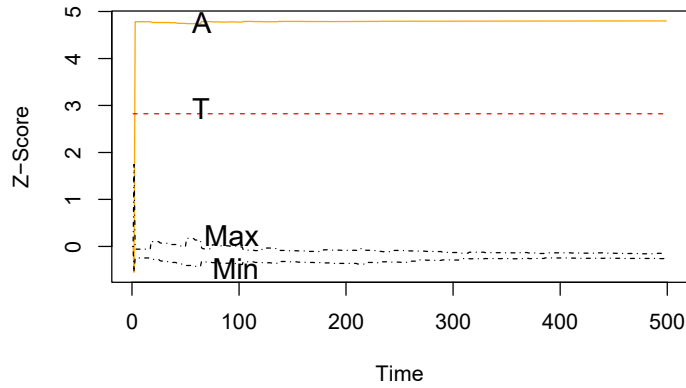


Figure 16: Running the detection algorithm over 20% size sample.

524 can be minimised by defining unbiased estimators with small variances. Non-
 525 sampling errors can be eliminated, and occurred due to many reasons: inability
 526 to access information, errors made in data processing, etc [34]. This section
 527 examines what impact would varying network size and subnet structure have
 528 on *Non-sampling error*. An attacker is located in a 224 size network and $\hat{\pi}$ is es-
 529 timated in each case as described below. Each simulation was repeated over 100
 530 times. Goodness-of-fit test [35] is applied to statistically test the independence

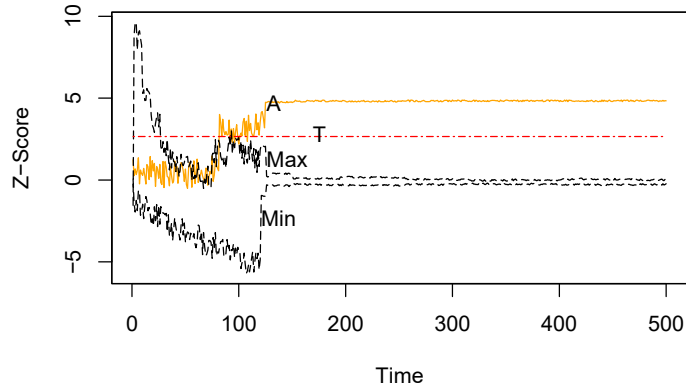


Figure 17: Running the detection algorithm over 10% size sample.

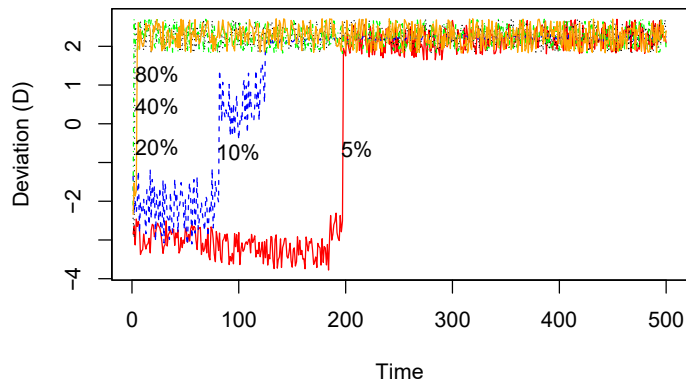


Figure 18: Detection potential vs sampling rate.

531 (or homogeneity) of proportion π over *sampling rates*, *number of subnets* and
 532 *subnet sizes*. If any dependency is found it is depicted in a graph (see Figures 19
 533 and 20).

534 Proportion of anomaly packets ϕ is considered as the parameter of interest
 535 for this analysis and hence sample proportion π is defined as $\pi = (a/n)$; where
 536 a is the number of suspicious packets in a given sample size n . Note that

Sampling rate(r)	5%	10%	20%	40%	80%	Whole trace
$\hat{\pi}$	0.00038	0.00034	0.00036	0.00035	0.00036	0.00036
P.Value	0.0970	0.0929	0.0952	0.0971	0.9770	N/A

Table 3: Proportion over sampling rates.

537 proportion of illegitimate to legitimate traffic, i.e. $a : (n - a)$, is a dominating
538 factor for likelihood of false alarms in an IDS [36]. Though the distribution
539 of ϕ is binomial, in a network scenario, this can be approximated by a normal
540 distribution given a overwhelm number of packets to deal with (it satisfies the
541 conditions of $n \cdot \hat{\pi} \geq 15$ and $n \cdot (1 - \hat{\pi}) \geq 15$). Hence, $\phi \sim Normal\left(\hat{\pi}, \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}{n}}\right)$,
542 where $\hat{\pi}$ is the observed proportion from samples. This can be used to draw
543 inference about the unknown population proportion ϕ .

544 **Sampling rate (r)** Traffic samples at 5%, 10%, 20%, 40%, and 80% rates of
545 the whole trace were drawn and $\hat{\pi}$ was calculated. The null hypothesis H_0 is the
546 assertion that the sample proportion π conforms to the whole traffic proportion
547 ϕ . The alternative hypothesis H_1 is the opposite of H_0 .

$$H_0 : \forall r \pi_r = \phi \quad (11)$$

$$H_1 : \exists r \pi_r \neq \phi \quad (12)$$

548 $\hat{\pi}$ s and p-values of testing H_0 vs H_1 are given in Table 3 where p-values are
549 greater than the significance level $\alpha = 0.01$ for all cases. Therefore there is no
550 enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis H_0 . Hence it can be concluded
551 that sample proportion π conforms to the whole traffic proportion ϕ . In other
552 words π can be used to draw inference about ϕ , and chosen sampling technique
553 is capable of producing *representative samples* to the population.

554 **Number of subnets (b)** An attacker is located in a 224 size network and
555 same experiment was repeated for four more times by doubling the number
556 of subnets each time (in other words each subnet was divided into two in its
557 immediate repetition) but keeping all other conditions unchanged. The null
558 hypothesis H_0 is the assertion that the proportion π is not affected by the
559 number of subnets b , where $b=1, 2, 4, 8, 16$. The alternative hypothesis H_1 is
560 the opposite of H_0 . If k is a constant:

$$H_0 : \forall b \pi_b = k \quad (13)$$

$$H_1 : \exists b \pi_b \neq k \quad (14)$$

561 $\hat{\pi}$ s and p-values of testing H_0 vs H_1 are given in Table 4. Since p-values
562 are less than the significance level $\alpha = 0.01$ for some cases it is possible to
563 conclude that there is no enough evidence to accept the null hypothesis H_0 ,
564 which means that proportion is affected by the number of subnets. Figure 19

Number of Subnets(b)	0	2	4	8	16
$\hat{\pi}$	3.58E-04	2.86E-04	1.12E-04	8.52E-05	1.97E-05
P.Value	N/A	2.65E-01	6.03E-06	3.94E-07	1.04E-11

Table 4: Proportion over Number of Subnets.

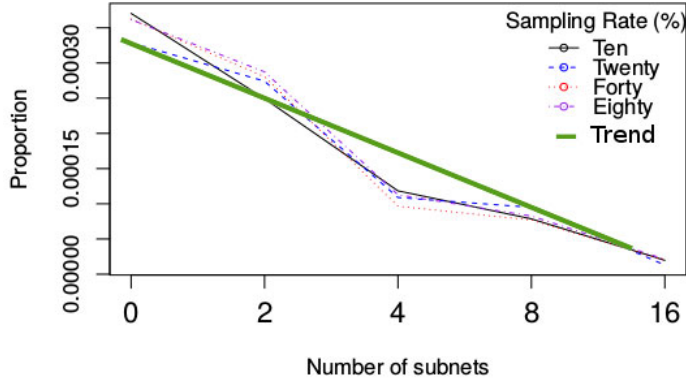


Figure 19: Proportion vs Number of subnets at each sampling rate.

565 presents the relationship between number of subnets b and proportion π at each
566 sampling rate. When b is increasing $\hat{\pi}$ is decreasing (deviates from the actual
567 value) regardless of sampling rates.

568 **Subnet size (n)** An attacker was located in a 5 nodes size subnet in the
569 network, and $\hat{\pi}$ was calculated at each sampling rate. The same experiment
570 was repeated by adding more nodes to produce different subnet sizes: 10, 20,
571 40, and 80 without changing other parameters. The null hypothesis H_0 is the
572 assertion that the proportion π is not affected by the subnet size n , where $n=5,$
573 10, 20, 40, 80. The alternative hypothesis H_1 is the opposite of H_0 . If k is a
574 constant:

$$H_0 : \forall n \pi_n = k \quad (15)$$

$$H_1 : \exists n \pi_n \neq k \quad (16)$$

575 $\hat{\pi}$ s and p-values of testing H_0 vs H_1 are given in Table 5. Since p-values are
576 less than the significance level $\alpha = 0.01$ for some cases there is not enough evi-
577 dence to accept the null hypothesis H_0 , which means that proportion is affected
578 by the subnet size. Figure 20 presents the relationship between subnet size n

Subnet Size(n)	5	10	20	40	80
$\hat{\pi}$	7.28E-04	8.61E-04	8.84E-05	2.06E-04	5.24E-05
P.Value	2.20E-16	2.20E-16	2.80E-01	6.39E-04	N/A

Table 5: Proportion over Subnet sizes.

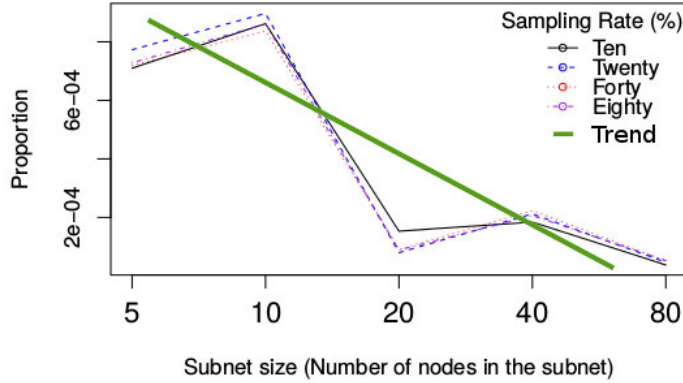


Figure 20: Proportion vs Subnet size at each sampling rate.

579 and proportion π , where n is increasing $\hat{\pi}$ is decreasing in overall (deviates from
580 the actual value), regardless of sampling.

581 7.5. Source Anonymity

582 Using the topology in Figure 21, attack events were generated with anonym-
583 ous source addresses in order to simulate two cases: single and multiple at-
584 tackers. In the single attacker case, an attacker is located at a node in subnet
585 $S6$ and in multiple attackers case, three attackers are located one in each in
586 three different subnets $S3$, $S5$ and $S6$. Figure 22 presents the equivalent tree
587 structure produced by Algorithm 1 for above scenario. The *root* denotes the
588 victim node while $g_{i,j}$ and $h_{i,j}$ denote a gateway or a host node at level i in Fig-
589 ure 22. j is a node number. Dashed rectangles represent a collection of leaves
590 corresponded to hosts in each subnet. Once the tree is obtained, Algorithm 2
591 is run to locate the attackers as shown in Figure 23 for single attacker, and
592 Figure 24 for multiple attackers.

593 Figure 23 presents the steps of tracing process from the root of the derived
594 tree. In Step 1, *Min* and *Max* represent the minimum and maximum Z-scores
595 of all immediate visible nodes (11 in total, except $g_{1,3}$) to the root at each time
596 point. Since that graph suggests moving towards $g_{1,3}$, Step 2 graph is created

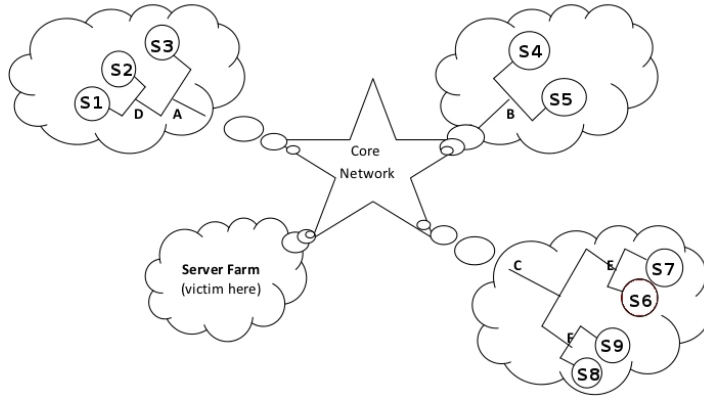


Figure 21: Network topology used for source anonymity experiment.

597 at node g_{13} , and so on. Finally search is narrowing down to the subnet $S6$.
 598 Step 4 graph is created at $S6$'s gateway node g_{34} , where A denotes the Z -
 599 scores corresponded to the true attacker located in that subnet. Min and Max
 600 represent the minimum and maximum Z -scores of all other nodes in subnet $S6$.
 601 T denotes the threshold which is not defined when number of data points in a
 602 set is less than three. In that case the highest scored path is chosen to move
 603 towards (see Step 2) in finding attacker or directions to her location.

604 A similar manner should be followed in interpreting graphs in Figure 24
 605 obtained for multiple attackers. In that case, once an attacker is found tracing
 606 algorithm should be back tracked to its immediate parent node and should
 607 proceed with next highest Z -scored sub tree to find other suspicious nodes. After
 608 Steps 3 and 6, algorithm back tracks to the root node. Table 6 summarises travel
 609 sequences for tracing single and multiple attackers.

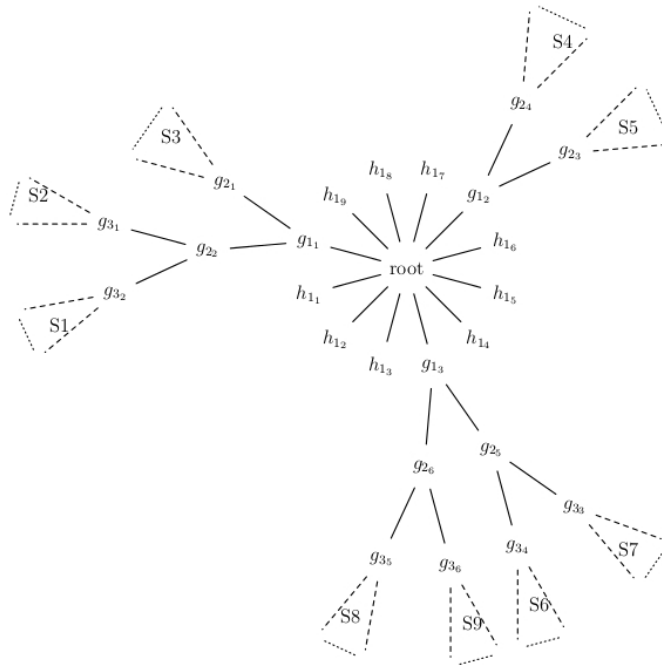


Figure 22: Equivalent tree structure for the given scenario.

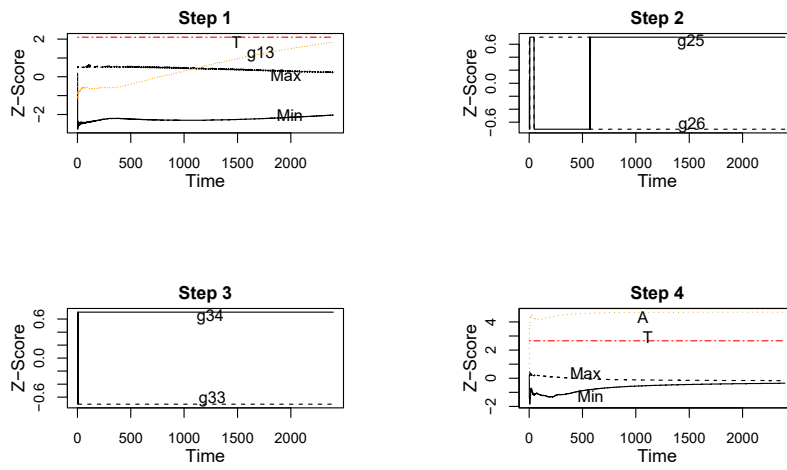


Figure 23: Tracing steps: single attacker case.

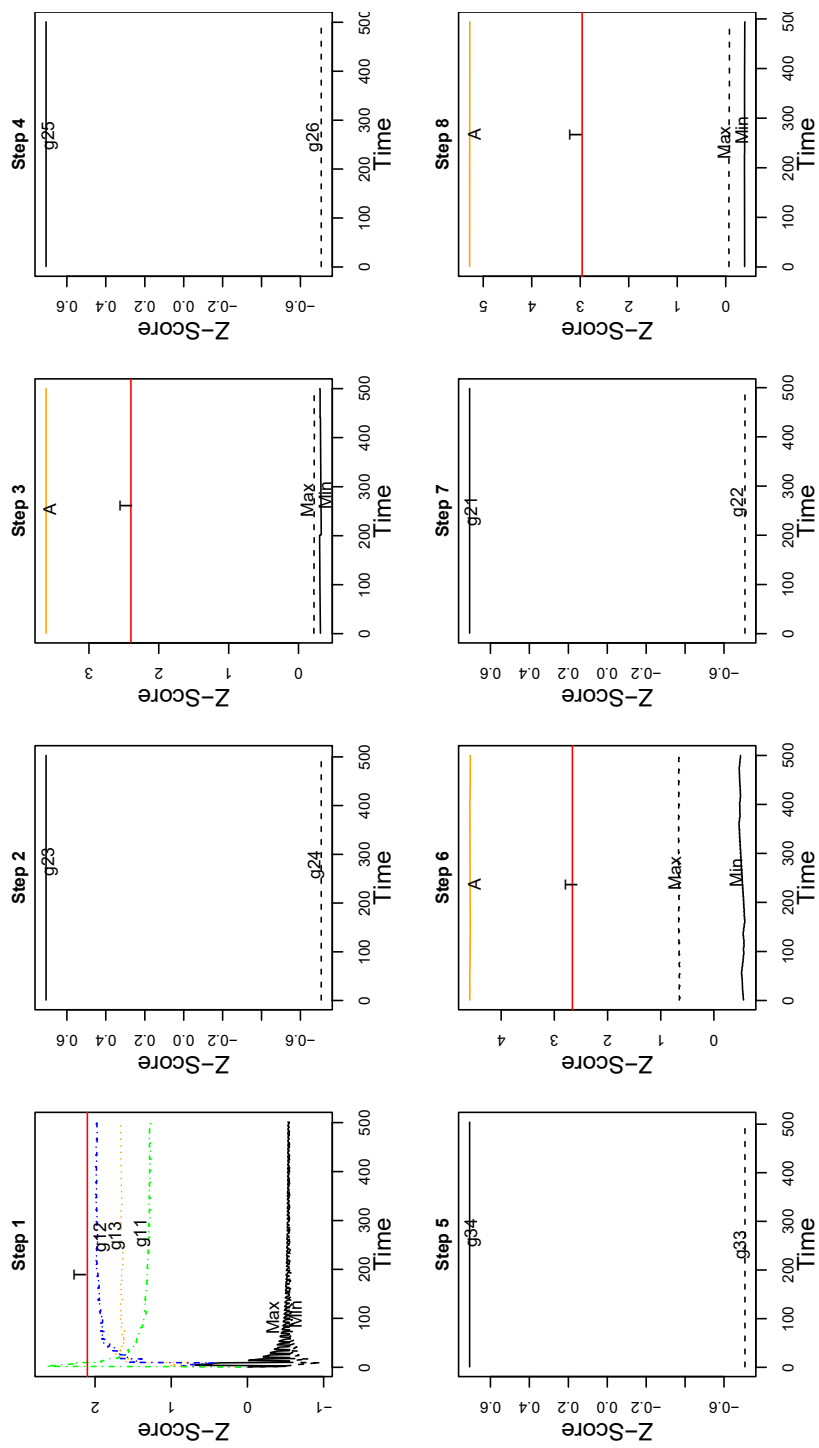


Figure 24: Tracing steps: multiple attackers case.

Scenario	Travel sequence (until all attackers are found)
Single attacker	root, g_{13} , g_{25} , g_{34}
Multiple attackers	root, g_{12} , g_{23} , root, g_{13} , g_{25} , g_{34} , root, g_{11} , g_{21}

Table 6: Traversal sequences for tracing attackers.

8. Related Work

8.1. Monitoring stealthiness

A scalable solution for insider detection using Bayesian analysis is presented in [13]. Authors maintain incremental profile scores for each node in the system and distinguish suspicious nodes from normal nodes by setting a predefined baseline. If a cumulative score of a particular node is deviated from the predefined control, an anomaly is declared and that node is identified as an insider who warrant further investigation. The major drawback of this approach is setting a predefined control as the baseline. Setting predefined controls is very challenging in network security monitoring. In a network, normal behaviour keeps evolving and a current notion of normal behaviour might not be sufficiently representative in the future. Threshold needs to evolve according to the context and current state of the network. [37] integrates user's technological traits (system call alerts, intrusion detection system alerts, honey pot, systems logs, etc) with data obtained from psychometric tests (predisposition, stress level, etc) for insider detection. User profiles are used to identify the users (human actors) who warrant further investigation. [37, 38]. [39] is similar to [37]. It provides a research framework for testing hypotheses for insider threats by integrating employee data with traditional cyber security audit data. This approach is based on pattern recognition and model-based reasoning. Reasoner is the pattern recognition component which analyses the large amount of noisy data to distinguish variations from norms. Data is processed using a dynamic Bayesian network which calculates belief levels assigned to indicators and assessed the current indicators with the combination of previously assessed indicators to determine the likelihood of behaviours that represent threats. Probabilities are assigned for the Reasoner through expert knowledge. Simulation method is used to evaluate the proposed approach realising the difficulty to find real cases in this domain. When addressing non human threats it finds difficulties due to the psychological profiling components. Hence it is highly organisational dependent, and expertise knowledge is needed to fine-tune the model in order to fit with new environments. However the idea proposed in all above works to incorporate wider range of information into the monitoring process is very interesting. This idea increasingly becomes popular among security community [14].

A co-variance matrix based approach for detecting network anomalies is proposed in [40]. It uses the correlation between groups of network traffic samples. [41] is an approach which uses connection based windows to detect low profile attacks with a confidence measure. Multiple neural network classifiers to

650 detect stealthy probes is used in [42]. Evidence accumulation as a means of de-
651 tecting stealthy activities is proposed in [43]. A graph-based anomaly detection
652 (GBAD) systems is presented in [44] to discover anomalous instances of struc-
653 tural patterns in data that represent entities, relationships and actions. GBAD
654 is applied to datasets that represent the flow of information between entities, as
655 well as the actions that take place on the information. Authors claim GBAD can
656 apply to tackle several security concerns including identifying violation of sys-
657 tem security policies and differentiating suspected nasty behaviour from normal
658 behaviour. Authors acknowledged the need of reducing the time spent for main
659 computational bottleneck. Hence these approaches are not efficient in terms
660 of computational cost (specially for event correlation) for monitoring stealthy
661 activities lasting in several months. Numbers of anomalous instances are far
662 fewer than the number of normal instances is a main constraint for correlation
663 based anomaly detection approaches [6, 45] to succeed in monitoring for stealthy
664 attacks. Accumulating evidence according to a systematic way would help to
665 overcome this issue.

666 Information visualisation has been proposed in many scholarly works [46, 47,
667 36, 48, 49] as a method for anomaly detection. Researches in this line often claim
668 “having to go through huge amount of text data (packet traces, log files, etc) to
669 gain insight into networks is a common but a tedious and an untimely task as
670 terabytes of information in each day is usual in a moderate sized network” [48].
671 Therefore they propose to visualise packet flows in the network assuming that
672 it will help network professionals to have an accurate mental model of what
673 is normal on their own network and hence to recognise abnormal traffic. For
674 example, [46] claims that “the human perceptual and cognitive system comprises
675 an incredibly flexible pattern recognition system which can recognise existing
676 patterns and discover new patterns, and hence recognising novel patterns in
677 their environment which may either represent threats or opportunities”. In
678 principle all above works acknowledge that visualisation (by means of graphs or
679 animation) is useful in identifying anomalies patterns. But our position, though
680 visualisation can be motivated on this as visual cognition is highly parallel
681 and pre-attentive than the text or speech, it does little on stealthy activities
682 monitoring. Just presenting raw data in graphical form would not be sufficient.
683 Visualising a traffic flow of a large network for a very long time will end up with
684 a very complicated web of traffic flows. It would be very difficult to compare this
685 with analyst’s mental model of the netflow already made in mind. Therefore
686 some kind of data reduction and simplification (information fusion) is needed
687 before visualising security measures. Essentially these approaches are not either
688 systematic or accounted for the “motivation” uncertainty behind an event.

689 The work presented in [50] is one of the most recent work similar using
690 Bayesian for stealthy activities monitoring, but in a different domain detect-
691 ing lone wolf terrorists. [21] combines traditional notion of Motive, Means, and
692 Opportunity with behavioural analysis techniques to place each individual on a
693 sliding scale of insider risk. User behaviour is compared with her own baseline
694 and as well as the behaviours of members in their own peer groups using the
695 Euclidean distance. A method for detecting insiders with unusual changes in be-

696 behaviour by combining anomaly indicators from multiple sources of information
697 is provided in [20]. Authors build a global model and find outliers by comparing
698 each user's activity changes to activity changes of his peer group. [51] defines a
699 Bayesian network model that incorporates psychological variables that indicate
700 degree of interest in a potential malicious insider. A complex Bayesian network
701 for capturing conditional dependencies between different attributes can be found
702 in [52]. Using Bayesian technique and its variants for intrusion detection can be
703 found in [53]. The relevance of information fusion for network security monitor-
704 ing is widely discussed [6, 54]. A comparison of performance between Bayesian
705 technique, Counting approach, Linear Regression and Artificial Neural Network
706 in insider detection includes [32] which concludes that Bayesian technique is
707 better than the other methods. Also [13] demonstrates that Bayesian approach
708 is superior to the counting algorithm. All above approaches, except [13, 43],
709 require storage of large volumes of event data for analysis. Systems that try
710 to model the behaviour of individuals or protocols are forced to retain large
711 amounts of data which limits their Scalability. Monitoring algorithm proposed
712 in this work is different from [13, 43] by hypothesis, analysis technique and
713 decision criteria.

714 *8.2. Data reduction*

715 With reference to the Sampling, objectives of network monitoring can be
716 classified as Traffic engineering, Accounting and Security specific where accuracy
717 requirements in each objectives are quite different. Using sampling for Traffic
718 engineering and Accounting is widely studied [55], and already been employed
719 by commercially available tools [56]. However those studies are not relevant to
720 this work as our objective is a security specific. A successful sampling technique
721 in Engineering and Accounting would not be essentially an efficient method in
722 Security. Therefore only security related sampling works will be reviewed in this
723 section. [57] samples malicious packets with higher rates to improve the quality
724 of anomaly detection. High malicious sampling rates are achieved by deploy-
725 ing in-line anomaly detection system which encodes a binary score (malicious
726 or benign) to sampled packets. Packets marked as malicious are sampled with
727 a higher probability. Obviously this approach involves additional processing
728 and storage overheads. [58] evaluates quantitatively how sampling decreases the
729 detection of anomalous traffic. Authors use the packet volume as the parame-
730 ter of interest for this analysis. That work concludes that detecting anomalies
731 with low sampling rates is entirely possible by changing the measurement gran-
732 ularity, and uses relationship between the mean and the variance of aggregated
733 flows to derive optimal granularity. Proposed analysis method in this work was
734 impressed by this idea. [59] investigates the performance of various methods of
735 sampling in network traffic characterisation. They use several statistics that can
736 be used to compare two distributions for similarities, and to compare sample
737 traces with their parent population. [60] evaluates the effect of the traffic mix
738 on anomaly visibility using traces collected at four different border routers and
739 using prior knowledge of two different worm types. Effects of traffic sampling
740 on privacy and utility metrics can be found in [61]. But none of above focuses

741 on stealthy activities. Note that methods proposed for typical rapid attacks
742 cannot be used to monitor for stealthy activities due to several constraints in-
743 cluding the limitations of computational resources [12, 13, 62, 63]. To the best
744 of authors knowledge, the work presented in this paper is the first attempt to
745 use sampling technique for stealthy activity monitoring in computer networks.

746 Based on the sampling frame, existing sampling proposals can be classified
747 into two groups: packet-based and flow-based. Packet-based techniques [57, 58,
748 59, 60, 64, 65] consider network packets while flow-based techniques [66, 64, 67]
749 consider network flows as elements for sampling. Packet sampling is easy to
750 implement as it does not involve any processing before selection of samples.
751 But in the case of flow sampling, monitored traffic is processed into flows first
752 and then apply sampling technique on whole set of flows for drawing a sample.
753 This requires to use more memory and CPU power of network devices. The
754 most widely deployed sampling method in the literature is packet sampling. It
755 is computationally efficient, requiring minimal state and counters [60]. [68] is
756 a study of combination of packet and flow sampling. A comparison of packet
757 vs flow sampling can be found in [66]. According to [66, 67] flow sampling is
758 more accurate than packet sampling. However it should be noted that this not
759 necessarily means that flow sampling is always better than packet sampling.
760 However, suitability of a sampling method depends on the input parameters to the
761 detection algorithm and monitoring objectives. For example, if inputs to the
762 detection algorithm is flows, obviously flow sampling should be performed well
763 in that scenario than sampling on any other element. [64, 65] are examples to
764 justify that suitability of a sampling frame depends on the detection algorithm.
765 Former investigates how packet sampling impacts on three specific port scan
766 detection methods and the same work has been extended in later to investigate
767 the impact of other methods. Event based and Timer based are the two possible
768 mechanisms to trigger the selection of a sampling unit for inclusion in a sample.
769 Event based approaches collect one elements out of N elements using the chosen
770 sampling method. Naive 1 in N sampling strategy by Cisco NetFlow [56] is a well
771 known example for that method. It samples one packet after every N packets.
772 Event based approaches consume more CPU and memory of network devices as
773 it involves some processing (counting). In a timer based approach, one packet is
774 sampled during N time units. Though this approach is effective in terms of CPU
775 and memory consumption, since it depends on the system timer, choosing larger
776 N s returns higher sampling errors due to the non-time-homogeneous nature of
777 packets arrivals to the network.

778 8.3. Tracing

779 Tracing back is one of the most difficult problems in network security, and
780 a lot of research being conducted in this area [69, 70]. But deterministic packet
781 marking and out of band approaches are not relevant to this work as proposed
782 approach in this work is a probabilistic approach. [71] controls the flooding tests
783 network links between routers to approximate the source. To log packets at key
784 routers and then to use data mining techniques in determining the path which
785 packets traversed through the network is proposed in [72, 73]. The upside of

786 this approach is traceability of an attack long after it has completed. As it is
787 obvious, a downside is that not scalable. [74] propose to mark within the router
788 to reduce the size of packet log and to provide confidentiality using a hash-based
789 logging method. [75] suggest probabilistically marking packets as they traverse
790 through routers. Authors propose router marking the packet with either the
791 routers IP address or the edges of the path that the packet traversed to reach the
792 router. With router based approaches, the router is charged with maintaining
793 information regarding packets that pass through it. However above approaches
794 are focused on DDoS attacks while this paper interests on events related to slow
795 stealthy attacks.

796 9. Conclusion

797 Analysts find difficulties to weed through the noise of routine security events
798 and determine which threats warrant further investigations. The profiling tech-
799 nique presented in this paper addresses this issue acting as early warning system.
800 It acknowledges the motivation uncertainty to reduce the possible false alarms
801 which prevent distraction from actual malicious activities. Proposed approach
802 maintains long-term estimates computed on sampled data that individuals or
803 nodes are attackers rather than retaining event data for post-facto analysis.
804 These estimates can be used as triggers of threats which enable authorities to
805 respond to protect systems and deter attackers, for example, by physical, proce-
806 dural and technical controls such as reduction in permissions and privileges and
807 other incident response activities. Proposed method (section 3) significantly
808 reduces the data amounts to handle and maintain. It maintains only a num-
809 ber of digits equal to the number of nodes in the network to provide a unified
810 view of the state of the network. One advantage of this monitoring strategy
811 is combining multiple indicators not in an ad-hoc but rather in a data-driven
812 manner. Sampling technique utilised in this work draws representative samples.
813 However required level of sampling rate depends on several factors: detection
814 algorithm, parameter of interest, sampling method, level of precision required,
815 duration of monitoring, rate of attack events etc. Further research is needed to
816 identify limitations of sampling in security of cyber physical security systems.
817 With regards to the attribution, finding the correct origin of the activities is
818 very important in cyber systems to locate the right person responsible with a
819 view of persuading them not to do that again. In a situation there are mul-
820 tiple suspected sites to investigate prioritisation centres of attention would be
821 a problematic. Proposed tracing algorithm would help on that, but not solved
822 the attribution problem completely. Investigating more advanced anonymity
823 monitoring technique (e.g. [76]) with the tracing algorithm will be interesting
824 to develop it as more attribution oriented. This is left as future work.

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