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Statistical Fingerprint - Based Intrusion Detection System (SF-IDS)

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SUMMARY

Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS) are systems aimed at analyzing and detecting security problems. IDS may be structured into: Misuse and Anomaly Detection. The former are often Signature/Rule IDS that detect malicious software by inspecting the content of packets or files looking for a "signature" labeling malware. They are often very efficient but their drawback stands in the weakness of the information to check (e.g. the signature), which may be quickly dated, and in the computation time because each packet or file needs to be inspected. IDS based on anomaly detection and, in particular, on statistical analysis have been originated to bypass the mentioned problems. Instead of inspecting packets, each traffic flow is observed so getting a statistical characterization, which represents the fingerprint of the flow. This paper introduces a Statistical Analysis Based Intrusion Detection (SABID) system which, after extracting the statistical fingerprint, uses machine learning classifiers to decide whether a flow is affected by malware or not. A large set of tests is presented. The obtained results allow selecting the best classifiers and show the performance of a Decision Maker that exploits the decisions of a bank of classifiers acting in parallel. Copyright © 2016 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Important applications such as e-business, e-banking, public health service, and defense system control are dependent on computer networks. For this motivation they are often object of attacks by malicious software (malware). Malware is software designed to intrude a computer system without the consent of the owner through the use of viruses, backdoors, spywares, trojans, keyloggers, botnets, and worms [1]. In this context accurate malware detection is a necessity [2]. Countermeasures may be dedicated to specific devices, as happens in the context of mobile devices [3, 4, 5] and FM radios [6], to specific applications such as Internet chats [7], to operating systems such as Android [8], and to given environments such as Delay Tolerant Networks (DTNs) [9] and AODV-Based MANETs [10].

In general Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS) may help tackle malicious intrusions. An IDS is a hardware/software designed to automatically alert when someone or something is trying or has tried to compromise information systems through malicious actions. [11] contains a detailed and interesting classification of Intrusion Detection Systems depending on: the location of the IDS (host based, network based, and hybrid); the detection time (on and off line); the environment (wireless,

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wired, and heterogeneous); as well as the architecture (centralized/distributed); and the reaction (active/passive). As far as this paper is concerned, the most important IDS classification proposed in [11] regards the processing method adopted to detect possible intrusions: Misuse Detection and Anomaly Detection. Misuse detection defines an abnormal behavior and considers all the other behaviors as normal. Anomaly Detection fixes the normal behavior and considers all the other behaviors as abnormal. From the operative viewpoint the former contains: signature based, rule based, state transition algorithms, and data mining. The latter includes: statistical, distance, profile, and model-based schemes. Misuse Detection (MD) needs to open and inspect the content of the packets or files traversing the IDS either to collect and compare signatures with the available signatures in a malware database or to apply a given set of rules. MD is often very efficient, its drawback stands in the weakness of signatures/rules, which may be referred to dated attacks, and in the required computation time because each single packet needs to be inspected. Anomaly Detection, and, in particular, concerning this paper, Statistical Analysis Based Intrusion Detection (SABID) would like to avoid these drawbacks also at the cost of a lower detection accuracy. Packets are not opened and inspected but each traffic flow is monitored over time by measuring the statistics of a set of variables (called features) to distinguish between anomalies (possible malware) and normal behaviors (normal, not infected, traffic). Some more detail about these aspects will be provided in the next Section. In the framework of SABID systems this paper proposes a novel network-based IDS, called SF-IDS (Statistical Fingerprint-IDS). SF-IDS uses the typical flow definition at IP (Internet Protocol) layer and is aimed at deciding whether an IP flow is malware-affected or not. It is structured into a training phase developed by using a ground truth of known flows and an operative classification and decision phase. Both training and classification/decision phases are based on the definition and extraction of a group of statistical parameters related to each IP flow, which represent the Statistical Fingerprint of the flow and on machine learning-based classifiers devoted to distinguish normal from malicious traffic. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The next Section contains the state of the art about machine learning-based Classifiers and Misuse and Statistical Analysis Based Intrusion Detection systems. Section 3 presents the architecture of SF-IDS, the flow definition, and the proposed Fingerprint. Section 4 describes the training and classification/decision phases of SF-IDS. Section 5 contains the obtained results and Section 6 the conclusions.

2. STATE OF THE ART

2.1. Machine Learning-based Classifiers

Machine learning-based classifiers are aimed at identifying to which set of categories a new sample belongs on the basis of a training set composed by data whose category is known. In our case classifiers are used to discriminate normal from malicious traffic as explained in Section 3. Machine learning-based Classifiers may be structured into two families: supervised and unsupervised. Supervised classifiers require a training phase during which a number of samples whose classification is known are used to carve N decision regions in the features space, being N the number of the classes to be identified. All the samples whose vectors lie in the same decision region belong to the same class. A sample whose classification is unknown is classified by determining the decision region where the feature vector of the sample falls. The methodology to carve the decision region depends on the chosen algorithm.

Naive Bayes [12, 13, 14], among many others, belongs to the group of Bayesian Classifier [15] and requires the independence of the features. Support Vector Machine (SVM) [13] is a family of methods that, given a set of training samples, each marked as belonging to one of two classes, build a model which assigns new samples to one class or to the other. An SVM model is a representation of the samples as points in space. The two classes must be divided by a gap which should be as wide as possible. New samples whose classification is unknown are assigned to a class depending on which side of the frontier they fall in. The gap may be created in different ways so giving origin to Linear, Quadratic, Cubic, and Radial Basis Functions SVM. K-Nearest Neighbors (K-NN) [12] input consists of the K closest training samples in the feature space. A sample is classified by a

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majority vote of its neighbors, with the object being assigned to the most common class among its K nearest neighbors. In other words, K-NN uses a reference cell such as an hyper-sphere. The cell is expanded up to include K training samples. In the hyper-sphere case they are the K samples with minimum Euclidean distance. The sample under exam is assigned to the class whose training samples among the K samples are more numerous than the samples of the other classes. DTNB [16] is a simple Bayesian ranking method that combines naive Bayes with induction of decision tables. Ridor [17] models large data sets, which results in rule sets having minimal inter-rule interactions and simple to be maintained. SMO implements the sequential minimal optimization algorithm [18] to train a support vector classifier: training a support vector machine requires the solution of a very large Quadratic Programming (QP) optimization problem. SMO divides the QP problem into a series of smallest possible QP problems that are solved analytically. J48 is a decision tree algorithm that generates a pruned or unpruned decision tree by using C4.5 algorithm [19]: decision tree algorithms begin with a set of cases, or examples, and create a tree data structure that can be used to classify new cases. Each case is described by a set of attributes (or features) which can have numeric or symbolic values. There is a label representing the name of a class associated with each training case. Each internal node of a decision tree contains a test, the result of which is used to decide what branch to follow from that node. The leaf nodes contain class labels instead of tests. In classification mode, when a test case (which has no label) reaches a leaf node, C4.5 classifies it using the label stored there. JRIP implements the propositional rule learner Repeated Incremental Pruning to Produce Error Reduction (RIPPER), proposed in [20]. Mentioned C4.5 and RIPPER operate in two stages. First they induce an initial rule set and then they refine it using a rather complex optimization stage that discards (C4.5) or adjusts (RIPPER) individual rules to make them work better together. PART [21] exploits the fact that rule sets can be learned one rule at a time, without any global optimization, and infers rules by repeatedly generating partial decision trees. Random Tree, authored by Eibe Frank and Richard Kirkby, builds a tree that considers K randomly chosen attributes at each node. It does not perform any pruning and it has an option to allow an estimation of class probabilities (or target mean in the regression case) based on a hold-out set (backfitting). Again authored by Eibe Frank, RBF Network [22] is a fully supervised machine learning scheme that uses Gaussian Radial Basis Function (RBF) Networks. Random forests [23] is an ensemble learning method for classification, regression, and other tasks. It operates through a multitude of decision trees at the training time. Each user is assumed to know about the construction of single classification trees. To classify a new object from an input vector, the input vector is put down each of the trees in the forest. Each tree gives a classification and the tree "votes" for a class. The forest chooses the classification having the most votes over all the trees in the forest. "Random Forests" is a trademark of Leo Breiman and Adele Cutler.

Unsupervised classifiers are aimed at framing the flows under exam within clusters without any "a priori" information about the samples. They are not efficient for our goals and are not considered in this paper.

2.2. Misuse and Statistical Analysis Based Intrusion Detection Systems

A rough comparison about processing method, accuracy, complexity, speed, and limitations between MD and SABID (considered representative of the entire class of Anomaly Detection for the aim of this paper) methods is reported in Table I. In practice the comparison is between intrusion detection systems that require the inspection of packets/files/codes and systems based on the analysis of statistical profiles.

Concerning the large and heterogeneous family of Misuse Based Intrusion Detection Systems, recent research includes the following papers, among many others. [24] is a paper whose experimental results show the detection ability of the system to learn effective rules from repeated presentations of a tagged training set. Best system accuracy is close to 90%.[25] develops an automatic categorization system to automatically group phishing websites or malware samples by using a cluster ensemble. Malware categorization results range between 86% and 91%. [26] proposes a host-rule-behavior-based detection method, composed of a clustering engine that groups the objects (e.g., processes and files) of a suspicious program together into a cluster. Obtained results

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	Misuse Based Intrusion Detection	Statistical Analysis Based Intrusion Detection
Processing method	It examines the whole packet for signatures/rules	It examines samples of traffic statistically
Accuracy	High	Low
Complexity	High	Low
Speed	Slow	Fast
Limitations	It cannot detect new virus or encrypted flow	A training data set is involved

Table I. Misuse Based Intrusion Detection versus Statistical Analysis Based Intrusion Detection systems.

vary depending on the fixed threshold of false positives (see Table IV for a definition): if you want no false positives, then the system can assume 71% true positives but if you relax the threshold you can get true positives rates above 90%: 93.2% with 9.8% false positives and up to about 97% with 22.5% false positives. The authors show that their results are more satisfying than the ones got by commercial antivirus software. Concerning the search and analysis of opcodes (from operation code, a portion of a machine language instruction that specifies the operation to be performed), we can mention [27] and [28]. [27] is aimed at individuating a subset of opcodes suitable for malware detection through SVM (Support Vector Machine). Using opcode sequences typically needs to label a large amount of both malicious and benign code. [28] proposes a method that uses single-class learning to detect unknown malware families. Specific results vary if labeling is performed through malicious or benign software but in general: labeling 60% of the legitimate software assures about 85% accuracy. Among signature-based approaches: [29] classifies packed and polymorphic malware through a fast application-level emulator; the effectiveness is validated by showing that malware is detected as a variant of existing malware in 88% of cases. Classification is also quite quick: 1.3 $[s]$ for a sample set.[30] compares the performance of the intrusion detection systems Suricata and Snort. The percentage of alerts detected is close to 100% for Snort while the one for Suricata heavily varies on the operating network speed: 98% at $1\,Gbps$, 91.8% at $1.5\,Gbps$ and 66.8% at $2.0\,Gbps$. [31] selects the possible signatures and uses only a subset of the necessary ones.

Concerning the systems that use Anomaly Detection (or also hybrid Statistical Analysis/Misuse Detection): [32] proposes a hybrid IDS combining packet header anomaly detection (PHAD) and network traffic anomaly detection (NETAD). The combined action seems to work even if it is difficult to detect precise percentages from the reported results. [33] introduces a hybrid intrusion detection system that combines k-Means and two classifiers: K-nearest neighbor and Naive Bayes for anomaly detection. The goal in [33] is to decrease the false alarm rate when intrusions are detected and classified in 4 categories: Denial of Service (DOS), U2R (User to Root), R2L (Remote to Local), and Probe. The accuracy varies depending on the attack: from 92% of U2R to more then 98% for Probe. [34] describes a two stage architecture to tackle intrusions. In the first stage a probabilistic classifier is used to detect potential anomalies in the traffic. In the second stage a HMM (Hybrid Markov Model) traffic model is used to narrow down the number of IP addresses carrying the attack. The performance depends on the number of states used for the HMN and on other used features: the best configuration provides an accuracy close to 97% and a false alarm rate below 3%. [35] introduces a hybrid detection framework combining misuse detection, which uses a Random Forest classification algorithm, and anomaly detection, which exploits the weighted k-Means scheme. The detection rate of the combined approach is about 98% with a false positive rate of about 1%.

As far as Statistical Analysis Based Detection, two papers are particularly meaningful for the topic of this paper, even if they are not strictly related to malware detection: [36] and [37]. Both

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contributions are aimed at detecting application-layer tunnels throughout Statistical Fingerprints. [36] presents a statistical classification mechanism called Tunnel Hunter devoted to recognize a generic application protocol tunneled on top of HTTP or of SSH. The accuracy is 100% for HTTP tunnels and above 99% for SSH ones. [37] aims at detecting DNS tunnels. The accuracy for a mix of applications is close to 99%. Another important paper concerning the approach followed in this paper is [38], where streaming content changes are detected only through traffic patterns built from the traffic volume achieved by routers. Other papers must be mentioned as relevant for this paper. [39] introduces a scheme for intrusion detection operating in WEKA, used also in this paper. [40] proposes to structure Machine-Learning-based intrusion detection systems into Artificial Intelligence based and Computational Intelligence based ones. The former refer to the methods from domains such as statistical modeling (as done in this paper), whereas the latter include methodologies such as genetic algorithms, artificial neural network, fuzzy logic, and artificial immune systems. [41] extracts a long list of features from the used dataset [42] and compares, as done in the first part of this paper (Table V), different classifiers such as, among the others, DTNB, JRIP, PART, RIDOR, all providing about 95% accuracy, and SMO, assuring an accuracy above 97%. [43] compares J48, Random Forest and Random Tree in the same operating environment by using the same dataset and list of features presented in [41] and proposes to use a combination of classifiers to enhance the performance, which is above the 99% in the best cases. The obtained results of these classifiers are very similar to the ones shown in Table V. [44] proposes a selection of features by using swarm intelligence algorithms, such as Artificial Bee Colony (ABC) or Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), and evaluates the performance through the same dataset used in [42].

3. STATISTICAL FINGERPRINT - BASED INTRUSION DETECTION SYSTEM - SF-IDS

3.1. Key Ideas

This paper shares with [36], [37], [45] and the other papers mentioned in the previous section concerning SABID, not only the idea of detecting something by using statistical analysis. For instance "looking at simple statistical properties of protocol messages, such as statistics of packet interarrival times and of packets sizes" [37] may be useful to perform monitoring actions. "The key idea is that the information carried by packets at the network layer, such as packet-size and inter-arrival time between consecutive packets, are enough to infer the nature of the application protocol that generated those packets" [36]. This sentence, referred in [36] to tunnels, may be literally applied to malware in this paper. We think that, observing the statistical features of a specific IP traffic flow, we can get information about the malicious (or not) nature of this flow. An IP traffic flow is defined in this paper as the 5-tuple composed of the following fields of the IP and TCP/UDP headers:

- IP Source Address (IP SA)
- IP Destination Address (IP DA)
- TCP/UDP Source Port
- TCP/UDP Destination Port
- Protocol

These fields are considered as two-way (the inversion of Source and Destination Ports and Addresses is considered as one single flow) in the tests in Section 5. This choice reduces the number of flows per each trace recorded from the network, and allows creating longer flows that are more robust to the noise than default short flows created automatically by hosts connected to the Internet. The field Protocol defines the protocol used in the data portion of the IP datagram. In practice it specifies the content of the IP packet information field. The Internet Assigned Numbers Authority maintains a list of IP protocol numbers which was originally defined in [46] and are now defined through an online database specified in [47].

3.2. SF-IDS Architecture

The overall architecture of the proposed IDS is depicted in Figure 1. Figure 1 refers to a general-purpose architecture to analyze traffic flows whose operative steps are detailed in the following.

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Such architecture has not been implemented and used to perform experiments for which we have applied a subset of the components appearing in Figure 1 and, in particular, the "Packet analyzer" (object of Subsection of 3.3), "Malware DB" (used for the training phase) and "Syslogger" (output of the packet analyzer). The practical implementation of the overall architecture in Figure 1 is one of the next steps of this research activity.

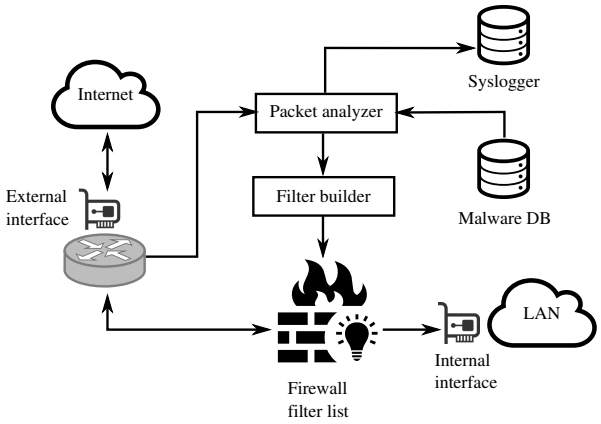

Figure 1. SF-IDS overall architecture.

Packets from/to the Internet traverse the external interface (typically an ADSL/ATM interface) of the system and are processed by a router in order to be properly forwarded. At this level, if needed, some virtual interfaces may be attached to allow sending/receiving packets through tunneling protocols and/or traffic encryption. This allows establishing virtual point-to-point (secure) connections with the aim of creating Virtual Private Networks (VPNs). Thus, different user sites may appear to be part of a unique wide network. User applications, running in different locations, are enabled to communicate with each other and, possibly, share common resources in the same way applications are hosted on co-located computers. However, it is worth noting that the adoption of VPNs only partially reduces the hazard to be victim of malware. Whether a PC in the user LAN is infected by a malware, the PC may easily infect other systems present in the LANs and belonging to same VPN infrastructure. In other words, IDS mechanisms need to be adopted even in presence of secure and encrypted links (tunnels) connecting different sites of the same enterprise. Furthermore, some malicious tunnels may represent the media through which infected packets may be conveyed, as mentioned in the previous section through the proper references. The IP packets traversing the router are inspected by a "Packet Analyzer (PA)" in order to detect possible harmful flows. The PA exploits the features of a set of malwares stored in the so-called Malware Data Base (MDB). Whenever a malicious flow is detected, its features are logged in the Syslogger subsystem and, correspondingly, a new rule is compiled by the Filter Builder (FB) and then added to the filter list (Firewall Filter List - FFL) of the firewall. The new rule aims at blocking the just detected malicious flow, thus preventing the related malware to access the LAN through the Internal Interface (commonly, an Ethernet interface). It should be highlighted that, if the system has more than one internal interface, each interface has its own FFL.

3.3. SF-IDS Packet Analyzer

The Packet Analyzer represents the most original part of our work and the object of the performance evaluation. Figure 2 sketches its main components.

Incoming packets feed the "Feature Extractor" (FE) which performs two principal operations. The first one consists in the identification of a traffic flow on the basis of the flow definition provided before. The second operation is the extraction of a number of features, discussed in the next Subsection, from each flow. Under this perspective, each flow is uniquely described by the vector V_f of its features. V_f is the Statistical Fingerprint of the flow. The vector V_f is then passed to

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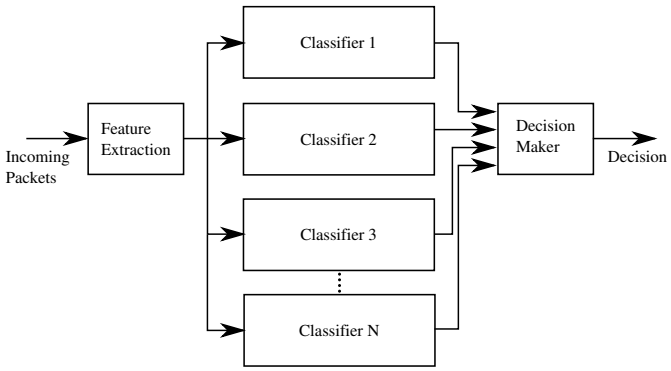

Figure 2. Block diagram of the Packet Analyzer.

a group of classifiers, each of them previously trained by using known traffic traces (i.e. the ground truth) to detect a specific malware on the basis of a set of features. Each classifier makes its own decision: the flow is a malware or it is not. Eventually, a Decision Maker merges the decisions made by each classifier in order to produce the final decision regarding the flow under analysis. Strategies adopted to make the final decision are discussed in Subsection 5.4.

3.4. Statistical Fingerprint: the vector of features

The 14 components (indicated as features) of the vector V_f used to classify each flow are listed in Table II. As said before, the key idea is that the following features associated to each flow are enough to infer the possible malicious nature of the flow. The use of these features is coherent with the literature in the field [48, 49]. [42] uses a larger and different list, not strictly related to the features of flows. Any change to the features used in the table does not require any substantial change to SF-IDS. For this motivation we do not perform any selection of features through Principal Component Analysis (PCA) in this paper. We prefer concentrating on the main scheme we propose and to leave refinements for further research.

3.5. SF-IDS Classifiers

The algorithms used to distinguish normal from malicious traffic on the basis of the set of features extracted from each flow are machine learning-based classifiers. The following supervised classifiers, coherently with the state of the art presented in Section 2, have been tested to select the most performant ones.

- Naive Bayes (NB);
- Linear SVM - the frontier between regions is a linear function;
- Quadratic SVM - the frontier between regions is a quadratic function;
- Cubic SVM - the frontier between regions is a cubic function;
- Radial Basis Functions (RBF) SVM;
- K-Nearest Neighbors - K-NN with $K = 1$, and $K = 3$;
- JRIP;
- Random Forest;
- DTNB;
- PART;
- Ridor;
- SMO;
- J48;
- Random Tree;
- RBF Network;

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Features	Description
Num_Pack	Number of packets
Tot_Byte_Flux	Number of bytes
Flow_Duration	Duration of the flow in seconds
Byte_Rate	Byte rate
Packet_Rate	Packet rate
Delta_Mean	Average inter-arrival time of packets
Delta_Std	Standard deviation of inter-arrival time
LE	"Entropy" of the packet lengths[†]
DPL	Total number of subsets of packets having the same length divided by the total number of packets of the flow
First_Len	Length of the first packet
Max_Len	Length of the longest packet
Min_Len	Length of the shortest packet
Mean_Len	Average packet length
Std_Len	Standard deviation of the packet length

Table II. Used features for each flow as Statistical Fingerprint.

4. USED TRAFFIC AND PERFORMANCE PARAMETERS

4.1. Used Malware and Normal Traffic

The tests reported in the performance evaluation have been carried out by downloading traffic samples from [50]. Table III contains the list of used malwares together with the overall number of analyzed flows and packets. Each flow appearing in Table III under the label malware is not exclusively composed of malware affected packets but it contains also not affected traffic. Obviously the two components can be distinguished to allow a correct performance evaluation. Table III includes also the same quantities for the traffic that is not affected by malware and is called normal traffic. In this case these traces are totally malware free. Each malware has different features.

Cutwail is a botnet aimed at spamming.

Purple Haze is a botnet that records user activities. In practice, it is a keylogger acting at kernel level.

Ramnit is a worm that has been used to get Facebook passwords.

Tbot is a botnet used for DDoS attacks, bank frauds, and cheats by using e-money (bitcoins).

Zeus is a botnet that widespreads a Trojan to infect computers through phishing or false download actions unconsciously performed by users. Its main function is online banking FTP account violation.

ZeroAccess is a Trojan that affects Microsoft Windows operating systems. It is used to download other malware on the infected machine and is mostly involved in bitcoin mining and click fraud. It may remain hidden on a system by using several techniques.

AlienspyRAT is a Trojan that gives attackers the ability to gain complete remote control of a compromised system. It can be used to collect a range of system-specific data, including

[†]LE is calculated starting from the normalized occurrences of the packet lengths. Specifically, being L_i the number of times a packet has a length equal to i, LE is computed as $LE = -\sum_{i=0}^{1526} \frac{L_i}{N} \log_2(\frac{L_i}{N})$, where N is the total number of packets belonging to the flow.

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operating system version, memory and RAM data, Java version number, and other details, such as passwords, and private information.

Kuluoz is a Trojan that tries to steal passwords and sensitive information. It can also download other malware onto the infected PC.

Sality is a polymorphic file infector. It infects executable files on local, removable, and remote shared drives. It can communicate over a peer-to-peer (P2P) network and has the purpose of relaying spam, compromising web servers, and extruding data.

Normal traffic used in the tests has been captured by using the *tcpdump* utility.

Malware	**Flows**	**Packets**
Cutwail	2347	35674
Purple Haze	7349	324709
Ramnit	25141	155973
Tbot	223	13048
Zeus	202	7443
ZeroAccess	350	2535
AlienspyRAT	1214	9010
Kuluoz	16894	179607
Sality	12939	250784
Normal Traffic	**Flows**	**Packets**
Normal Traffic 1	4969	833368
Normal Traffic 2	12552	3533925
Normal Traffic 3	23351	4428188

Table III. Used malware and normal traffic.

4.2. Performance Evaluation Parameters

The performance of the each classifier itemized in Subsection 3.5 has been evaluated by comparing the results of the classification with the actual class of the flow. Under this perspective, 4 cases, listed in Table IV, can occur.

Evaluation Parameter	**Meaning**
True Negative (TN)	A flow is normal traffic, i.e., it is not malware affected and it is correctly classified as normal traffic.
False Positive (FP)	A flow is normal traffic, i.e., it is not malware affected but it is wrongly classified as malware. This case is also called False Alarm.
True Positive (TP)	A flow is malware affected and it is correctly classified as malware.
False Negative (FN)	A flow is malware affected but it is wrongly classified as normal traffic. This case is also called Missed Detection.

Table IV. Evaluation Parameters.

Corresponding quantities in percentage may be defined as $TN = \frac{N_{TN}}{N_N} \cdot 100$, $FP = \frac{N_{FP}}{N_N} \cdot 100$, $TP = \frac{N_{TP}}{N_M} \cdot 100$, $FN = \frac{N_{FN}}{N_M} \cdot 100$, being N_N the overall number of analyzed normal flows, N_M

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the overall number of analyzed malware affected flows, and N_{TN}, N_{FP}, N_{TP}, and N_{FN} the overall number of True Negatives, False Positives, True Positives, and False Negatives, respectively.

True Positives and True Negatives are the Correct Detection Cases. False Positives (False Alarms) and False Negatives (Missed Detections) are the cases where the system fails, although the impact of FPs and FNs on the overall performance is very different. Consequently the percentage of correct decisions may be evaluated through the parameter Accuracy (Acc) defined as:

$$Acc = \frac{N_{TN} + N_{TP}}{N_{TOT}} \cdot 100 \tag{1}$$

where $N_{TOT} = N_N + N_M$ is the overall number of flows.

5. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

5.1. Tools

The tests have been carried out by using a free machine learning software called WEKA (Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis) [51, 52, 53], introduced in 1997 at the University of Waikato, New Zealand. We have used version 3.6.10. WEKA is written in Java, supports standard algorithms for data preprocessing, clustering, classification, regression, visualization, and feature selection, and uses .Arff file format. All data have to be available in this format to be analyzed. Detailed WEKA characteristics are reported in [53]. All SF-IDS Classifiers listed in Subsection 3.5 are supported by this tool.

5.2. Evaluation of Single Classifiers

The analysis has been carried out taking into account the entire set of flows in Table III. Each single trace, both malware and normal, has been divided into two parts (50% of the trace each). The first part of each trace has been used to compose the file for the training phase, the second part to build the file employed for the tests. The goal is to distinguish malware affected flows and normal traffic. Table V shows, for each classifier in Subsection 3.5, the obtained Accuracy and the percentage of True Positives, False Negatives, True Negatives, and False Positives. The last column of Table V contains also the 95% Confidence Interval (CI) of the Accuracy values, computed through the known formula $Acc \pm 1.96 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{Acc(1-Acc)}{N}}$, where N is the overall number of flows used for testing, taking the values from Table III, as indicated above. The confidence interval may be simply computed in the same way also for TP, FN, TN, and FP. A good number of classifiers is close to 99% concerning the percentage of True Positives (and, in consequence, close to 1% concerning the percentage of False Negatives) but not all of them provide also satisfying results in terms of True Negatives and False Positives. In this view, from the results reported in Table V, it is possible to individuate the most performant classifiers. To this goal we use the metric in (2) that minimizes the sum of the percentage of False Positives and False Negatives.

$$min(FP + FN) \tag{2}$$

The resulting three best classifiers are: Random Forest, J48, and PART.

5.3. Classifier Performance to distinguish Single Malware affected flows and Normal Traffic

The ability of the selected classifiers to correctly detect each single malware has been also checked. Given the training phase operated to get the results in Table V, we have tested the three classifiers by using the 50% of the traces of each malware (which contains, as said before, both affected and not affected packets) not used for training. The performance in terms of *Acc, TP, FN, TN*, and *FP* (as well as the 95% Confidence Interval of the Accuracy) is shown in Tables VI, VII, and VIII, respectively for J48, PART, and Random Forest. All selected classifiers offer excellent performance even if Random Forest is slightly more efficient. It perfectly distinguishes Kuluoz, Tbot, and ZeroAccess from Normal Traffic (100% Accuracy) and, in particular, provides an Accuracy of 97.78% for

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Classifier	*Acc*	*TP*	*FN*	*TN*	*FP*	*CI*
1-NN	97.21	97	3	97.5	2.5	97.0785÷97.3565
3-NN	97.32	97.2	2.8	97.5	2.5	97.1890÷97.4618
CubicSVM	51.02	99.6	0.4	3	97	50.5976÷51.4428
DTNB	97.45	98.9	1.1	96	4	97.3225÷97.5887
J48	98.03	98.8	1.2	97.3	2.7	97.9186÷98.1532
Jrip	97.86	98.9	1.1	96.8	3.2	97.7407÷97.9851
LinearSVM	88.20	93.6	6.4	82.9	17.1	87.9372÷88.4824
NaiveBayes	89.68	99.7	0.3	79.7	20.3	89.4239÷89.9381
PART	98.06	99	1	97.2	2.8	97.9493÷98.1821
QuadraticSVM	83.63	90.9	9.1	76.4	23.6	83.3272÷83.9526
Random Forest	98.35	99.3	0.7	97.5	2.5	98.2503÷98.4651
Random Tree	97.56	97.7	2.3	97.4	2.6	97.4332÷97.6938
RBFNetwork	75.93	85.2	14.8	66.8	33.2	75.5766÷76.2992
RBFSVM	86.87	90.3	9.7	83.5	16.5	86.5908÷87.1616
Ridor	98.00	99.3	0.7	96.7	3.3	97.8899÷98.1261
SMO	88.19	93.5	6.5	82.9	17.1	87.9259÷88.4713

Table V. Percentage of Acc, TP, FN, TN, FP, and *CI* for Acc by varying the applied Classifier

			J48			
Malware	*Acc*	*TP*	*FN*	*TN*	*FP*	*CI*
AlienspyRAT	99.83	100	0	75	25	99.5127÷100
Cutwail	91.48	100	0	81.7	18.3	89.8853÷93.0789
Kuluoz	99.98	100	0	99.5	0.5	99.965÷100
Purplehaze	98.53	98.9	1.1	88	12	98.1416÷98.9196
Ramnit	96.74	100	0	68.8	31.2	96.4364÷97.0566
Sality	99.56	99.6	0.4	99.6	0.4	99.4072÷99.7272
Tbot	99.10	100	0	99.1	0.9	97.3649÷100
ZeroAccess	98.28	98.2	1.8	100	0	96.3625÷100
Zeus	99.00	100	0	98.5	1.5	97.0789÷100

Table VI. Percentage of Acc, TP, FN, TN, FP, and *CI* for Acc using J48 Classifier

Cutwail. J48 and PART get for the same malware an Accuracy of 91.48% and 90.46%, respectively. The performance of Random Forest is again the best for Purplehaze: 99.95% against 98.53% of J48 and 93.42% of PART. Concerning Zeus, Random Forest and J48 allow getting an Accuracy of 99%, PART of about 94%. The performance for AlienspyRAT and Ramnit is the same for all the considered classifiers as well as, substantially, for Sality.

5.4. Classifiers Acting in Parallel

A possible alternative to the use of a single classifier is the exploitation of a bank of classifiers as shown in the Packet Analyzer in Figure 2. Specifically, a group of different classifiers act in parallel and communicate their decisions to one Decision Maker (DM) block.
The DM block can make the final decision about malware affection or not in different ways. It can state that a flow is malware affected either if at least one single classifier has taken this decision (*Dominant*), or following the majority of the decisions of the single classifiers (*Majority*), or if all single classifiers have taken this decision (*Unanimity*). The three classifiers selected before (J48, PART, and Random Forest) have been used to compose the mentioned bank of classifiers acting in parallel. The results about *Accuracy, TP, FN, TN* and *FP* are reported in Table IX together with the 95% Confidence Interval of the Accuracy. Training and testing files are the same as in Subsection

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PART						
Malware	*Acc*	*TP*	*FN*	*TN*	*FP*	*CI*
AlienspyRAT	99.83	100	0	75	25	99.5127÷100
Cutwail	90.46	97.8	2.2	82.1	17.9	88.7796÷92.1404
Kuluoz	99.94	99.9	0.1	100	0	99.8889÷99.9927
Purplehaze	93.41	93.4	6.6	94	6	92.6131÷94.2169
Ramnit	96.74	100	0	68.8	31.2	96.4364÷97.0566
Sality	99.35	98.7	1.3	99.7	0.3	99.1552÷99.5466
Tbot	99.10	80	20	100	0	97.3649÷100
ZeroAccess	98.85	98.8	1.2	100	0	97.2822÷100
Zeus	94.05	94.1	5.9	94	6	89.4493÷98.6695

Table VII. Percentage of Acc, TP, FN, TN, FP, and *CI* for Acc using PART Classifier

Random Forest						
Malware	*Acc*	*TP*	*FN*	*TN*	*FP*	*CI*
AlienspyRAT	99.83	100	0	75	25	99.5127÷100
Cutwail	97.78	99.5	0.5	95.8	4.2	96.9435÷98.6271
Kuluoz	100	100	0	100	0	100÷100
Purplehaze	99.94	99.9	0.1	100	0	99.8702÷100
Ramnit	96.73	100	0	68.8	31.2	96.428÷97.049
Sality	99.79	99.8	0.2	99.8	0.2	99.69÷99.9082
Tbot	100	100	0	100	0	100÷100
ZeroAccess	100	100	0	100	0	100÷100
Zeus	99.00	100	0	98.5	1.5	97.0789÷100

Table VIII. Percentage of Acc, TP, FN, TN, FP, and *CI* for Acc using Random Forest Classifier

DM Strategy	*Acc*	*TP*	*FN*	*TN*	*FP*	*CI*
Dominant	98.28	99.68	0.32	96.89	3.11	98.1735÷98.3931
Majority	98.28	99.25	0.75	97.33	2.67	98.1754÷98.3949
Unanimity	97.88	98.04	1.96	97.73	2.27	97.7637÷98.0069

Table IX. Percentage of Acc, TP, FN, TN, FP, and *CI* for Acc obtained at the output of the three DMs

5.2. Even if the reported percentage are very similar for all the DMs, some remarks may be made. The "*Dominant*" DM maximizes the percentage of True Positives (and consequently minimizes the percentage of False Negatives) with respect to both the other two DMs (and this is expected) and the most performant classifier Random Forest (see Table V) that assures *TP* and *FN* equal to 99.3% and 0.7% respectively. The same quantities for the "*Dominant*" DM are 99.69% and 0.31%. Even if the difference is not evident, the very slight improvement means that there is an intervention of J48 and PART that detect malware affection when Random Forest (rarely) fails. The improvement in terms of *TP* and *FN* is paid by a worst performance concerning *TN* and *FP*. The decrease of *TN* happens not only with respect to the other DMs (again expected) but with respect to the values got by Random Forest in Table V.

Increasing the necessary number of malware decisions made by single classifiers to assign a flow to the malware class allows reducing the percentage of False Positives (2.67% for "*Majority*" and 2.27% for "*Unanimity*") and, consequently, increasing the percentage of True Negatives (97.33% and 97.73%, respectively for "*Majority*" and "*Unanimity*") at cost of *FN* and *TP*. Similarly as happens for "*Dominant*" about *TP* and *FN*, "*Unanimity*" allows getting *TN* and *FP* values better

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than the ones got by Random Forest in Table V, again for the intervention of J48 and PART which mitigate the rare erroneous decisions of Random Forest.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The paper proposes a network-based IDS called SF-IDS (Statistical Fingerprint-IDS) devoted to decide whether an IP flow is malware-affected or not. SF-IDS is structured into a training phase and a classification/decision phase. Both phases are based on the definition and extraction of a group of IP flows statistical parameters that represent the Statistical Fingerprint. The key idea of the paper is that the Statistical Fingerprint may help detecting the nature (malicious or not) of each flow. The classification/decision phase consists of a "Feature Extractor" (FE), a bank of classifiers, and a Decision Maker that merges the decisions of the classifiers. The performance evaluation traces a possible streamline in view of a future practical implementation and it is structured as follows.

1) Evaluation of the single classifiers and choice of the best ones. To perform this choice we have adopted as a metric the sum of False Alarms and Missed Detections and we have selected the schemes providing the minimum values. Random Forest is the best one but also J48 and PART provide excellent results. The selected schemes are very efficient even if applied to each single malware. In particular, Random Forest assures a null percentage of False Negatives and False Positives for Kuluoz, Tbot, and ZeroAccess, and a very close to null percentage for Sality and Zeus. Random Forest also assures satisfying results for Cutwail. It is very efficient to recognize AlienspyRAT and Ramnit (100% *TP* - 0% *FN*) but it has some difficulties to identify normal traffic, often interpreted as these malwares (75% *TN* - 25% *FP* for AlienspyRAT and 68.8% *TN* - 31.2% for Ramnit).

2) Evaluation of the scheme including three classifiers (Random Forest, J48, and PART acting in parallel) and a Decision Maker (DM) that makes decisions on the basis of three different strategies: "*Dominant*", "*Majority*", and "*Unanimity*". The choice among the three DMs depends on a possibly adopted risk function/performance tuning. For example, in this case, the balance between Missed Detections and False Alarms we want to get: the "*Dominant*" DM allows minimizing Missed Detections at cost of False Alarms; increasing the number of classifiers necessary to classify a flow as a malware allows achieving better results in terms of False Alarms but implies a performance decrease as concerns Missed Detections. The minimum percentage of False Alarms is got by "*Unanimity*" DM.

The obtained results open the door to an actual development of the software needed to implement the overall architecture proposed in this paper.

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