

A Bayesian approach to classifying authentication data

Evan Ochsner^{1,*}

¹*Center for Gravitation, Cosmology and Astrophysics,
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI 53201, USA*

This paper describes a code to ingest authentication log data and predict whether each authentication attempt was a success or failure. It is based on exact enumeration over the user and protocol information describing other “recent” authentication attempts. The method worked well, correctly predicting success or failure for 99.88% of authentication attempts, including 91% of the (rare) failures.

I. DATASET

The dataset under study is described in [1, 2], and can be downloaded from <http://csr.lanl.gov/data/cyber1/>. We wish to classify authentication attempts and predict whether they will succeed or fail based on the other information available.

The data is presented as a compressed, CSV file. I split the data into files containing one million lines each, which results in 1,051 files (throughout, I will refer to these files as “chunks”). Thus, we see that the dataset contains a little over 1 billion events. The URL above tells us the data contains events from $\sim 10,000$ users and $\sim 10,000$ computers.

Each line of input data consists of the following columns:

1. time (an integer number of seconds)

2. source user@source domain
3. destination user@destination domain
4. source computer
5. destination computer

6. authentication type
7. logon type
8. authentication orientation

9. result (Success or Fail)

If any of the columns are unknown for a given event, they are denoted with a question mark. The events in the original file are ordered chronologically, and the chunks maintain this ordering.

Note that there are essentially three types of information here (in addition to the result, success or failure). The first is the time stamp. Next, columns 2-5 are a set I will call *user* information, which describes “who or what is involved in the attempted authentication”. Lastly, columns 6-8 I will denote *protocol* information, or “what sort of authentication procedure is being attempted”.

To understand the data a little better, I examined the first split input file, which contains the first one million events, or about 0.1% of the full set. The data contained 993123 successes (99.3%) and 6877 failures (0.7%). The rates of authentication events, successes and failures were rather consistent over the ~ 3 hour duration of the chunk, with ~ 100 successful authentications and a single-digit number of failures in a typical second. There were 82,566 unique combinations of user and protocol information (columns 2-8). Of these, 82,310 succeeded at least once, 280 failed at least once, and only 24 had some successes and some failures within the chunk.

*Electronic address: evano@gravity.phys.uwm.edu

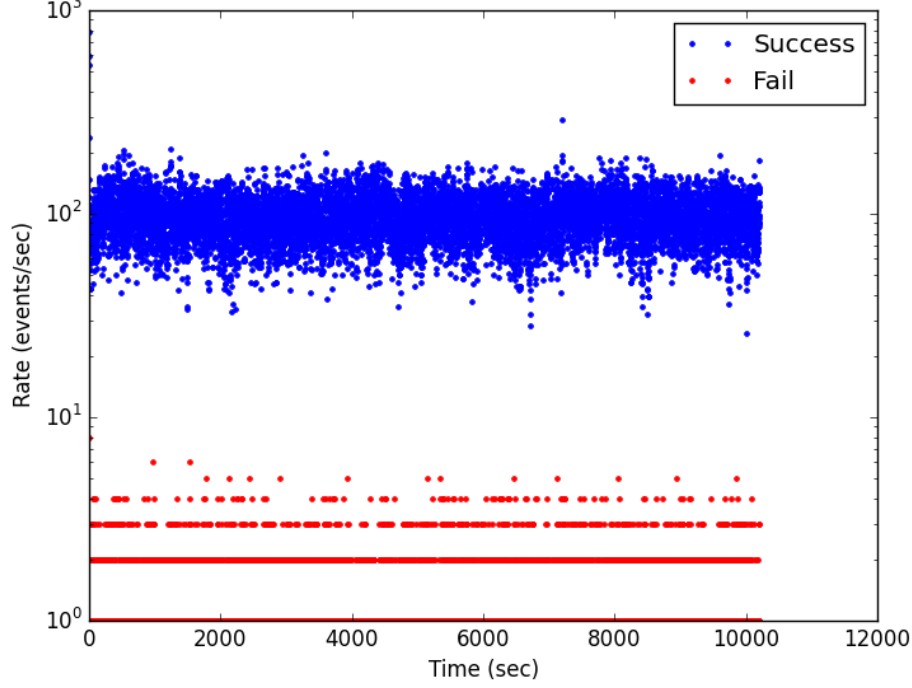


FIG. 1: Rate of successful and failed authentication attempts in the first data chunk. The absolute and relative rates of success and failure remain reasonably constant over the whole chunk.

II. BAYESIAN CLASSIFIER

Bayes' theorem gives us an expression to determine the posterior probability $p(r|\vec{x})$ of a result r (success or failure), given the other observed variables \vec{x} :

$$p(r|\vec{x}) = \frac{p(\vec{x}|r) p(r)}{p(\vec{x})} . \quad (2.1)$$

Here the *likelihood* $p(\vec{x}|r)$ is the probability of getting the observed variables \vec{x} if we assume the result is r . $p(r)$ is the prior, or our belief about the overall chances of success or failure. The denominator $p(\vec{x})$ is the *evidence*,

$$p(\vec{x}) = \sum_r p(\vec{x}|r) p(r) = p(\vec{x}|S) p(S) + p(\vec{x}|F) p(F) . \quad (2.2)$$

However, for our purposes, we need not worry about the evidence. We can cancel it out by working with a *Bayes factor*, in this case the relative probability of failure versus success:

$$B = \frac{p(F|\vec{x})}{p(S|\vec{x})} = \frac{p(\vec{x}|F) p(F)}{p(\vec{x}|S) p(S)} . \quad (2.3)$$

If $B > 1$, then failure is the most likely outcome, while the opposite is true when $B < 1$ (If $B = 1$, then we consider failure and success to be equally probable). Note that this classifier does not just predict success or failure, but quantifies the strength of that belief. Therefore, we can distinguish cases where we are confident in a result from more marginal cases. We might flag these cases where the Bayes factor is near 1 for closer study. We could even assign costs to each type of misclassification, and adjust the Bayes factor value at which we change our decision. For example, if we have a very strong desire to correctly predict failures, and do not mind a some reasonable number of false predictions of success, we could predict failure for some Bayes factors smaller than one, say anything above 0.5 or 0.1.

Note that all of the user and protocol variables draw values from discrete, finite sets. Therefore, at least in principle, we can consider each combination its own unique “user-protocol (UP) key” and tally how many times each key has

previously succeeded or failed to estimate the probability that future attempts with that same UP key will succeed or fail. Therefore, if $N_F(K)$ is the number of times we have seen a UP key K fail, and N_F is the total number of failures observed so far, then the likelihood of failure for key K is just:

$$p(K|F) = N_F(K)/N_F. \quad (2.4)$$

and similarly for the likelihood of success, $p(K|S)$.

Since we deal with a likelihood ratio, when $p(K|S) = 0$, we are in danger of dividing by zero, and so must handle this case specially. If $p(K|S) = p(K|F) = 0$, then we have not seen any attempts with this UP key before. The data tells us nothing with our model of predicting based on past outcomes with the exact same parameters. Therefore, the data are uninformative, so we set the likelihood ratio to 1 and our Bayes factor just becomes the prior ratio. If $p(K|S) = 0$, but $p(K|F) > 0$, this means we have seen this key fail, but have never seen it succeed. It should be clear we will predict failure in this case. The likelihood ratio formally diverges under our model, but we can set it to some arbitrary large, finite value that will ensure we strongly predict failure.

By inspecting the first chunk, we have reasonable guesses for the priors, $p(F)$ and $p(S)$. Additionally, we see there are roughly $\sim 80,000$ unique UP keys. This is a manageable number to tally and track individually. Even in the worst case, where all million entries in a chunk have unique keys, this would still likely be a manageable number to tally.

It is unclear how many keys we can expect in the total set. Certainly it will grow over time and tracking all keys will become a more expensive task by the end of the dataset, possibly so expensive as to be problematic. Therefore, it seems sensible to track only keys from “recent” events and throw away information from older events.

Even apart from computational issues, it may make sense to give more weight to recent events. For example, suppose one computer intends to authenticate with another once a day. However, the connection failed when initially setup, and someone had to debug the issue making hundreds of failed authentication attempts at the beginning. If we store all events with equal weight, the model will predict failure until the system has worked correctly without failure for hundreds of days. If we weighted recent events more, we might start correctly predicting success much sooner. One might try many time-weighting schemes and attempt to learn which fit the real-world data best.

III. CODE DESIGN

The auth log was split into “chunks”, separate files containing one million lines each (chronological ordering preserved) using the `split` command line tool.

The code to process these chunks and classify each line was written by Python by defining an `AuthClassifier` class. The class reads in a chunk of the auth logs and processes each line chronologically in series. First, the auth log line is split into three value: time T , a user-protocol key K (columns 2-8 concatenated into a single string), and result R (a string that is either S or F). K is passed (importantly, R is not passed!) to a class method to compute the likelihood ratio in the manner described above in Eq. 2.4. This method looks up the tally for key K $N_r(K)$, in dictionaries holding the counts for each key in this and the previous chunk. Dictionary lookups are fast in Python, so this is an efficient storage scheme. The total number of successes in this and the previous scheme are simply stored as integers. The likelihood for R (either S or F) is computed as:

$$p(K|R) = \frac{N_{R,curr}(K) + N_{R,prev}(K)}{N_{R,curr} + N_{R,prev}}, \quad (3.1)$$

where “curr” and “prev” denote tallies from the current and previous chunks. The likelihood ratio is multiplied by the prior ratio to compute the Bayes factor B . If $B > 1$, it records a prediction of failure; if $B \leq 1$, it records a prediction of success.

After the prediction is made, it then updates the tally for the total number of successes and failures in this chunk, and updates the dictionary holding tallies of successes or failures for that key K in the current chunk. When a chunk is completely processed, it outputs the total success/failures counts and the tally-by-key dictionaries for this chunk into a pickle file. It also outputs a small JSON results file with the total counts and prediction results for this chunk. It can optionally output a pickle file containing arrays of time, UP key, prediction, result, and Bayes factor for every single event if one wishes to study a chunk in more detail. NumPy can efficiently manipulate such arrays to transpose, count unique values, histogram, etc.

When transitioning from one chunk to another, the tally-by-key dictionaries and total counts for what was the “current” chunk are moved to become the dictionaries and counts for the new “previous” chunk. They can either be copied in memory (for example if running inside a loop over chunks) or loaded from the pickle file (for example, for the first chunk in a loop). The prior ratio is estimated by reading in results files from all previous files and dividing

		Prediction	
		Success	Fail
Result	Success	98.75%	0.03%
	Fail	0.09%	1.13%

TABLE I: Breakdown of auth events by predicted outcome and actual result. Note that 99.88% of events were correctly classified.

the total number of failures by the total number of successes. From this workflow, it should be clear that the prior is updated only after each chunk, while the data to compute likelihood ratio is updated after every single event.

The first chunk was processed without predicting the outcome, in order to compute an initial prior ratio. All other 1,050 chunks were processed with the results predicted as described above. The code was run on my (quite ordinary, three-year-old) laptop and finished in roughly two hours.

IV. RESULTS

The first chunk of one million events was used as a training set to compute the prior ratio for success and failure. The remaining one billion plus events were processed by the Bayesian classifier code and the results tallied. The results are summarized in Table I.

Note that 99.88% of events were correctly classified. Of the successful authentications, only about 3 in 10,000 was misclassified as an expected failure. Of the failed authentications, about 91% were correctly predicted to be failures. If we think of these failures as anomalies we wish to detect, then this method detected $\sim 93\%$ of the anomalies with a false-alarm probability of 0.01%.

[1] A. D. Kent, in *Dynamic Networks in Cybersecurity* (Imperial College Press, 2015).

[2] A. D. Kent, *Comprehensive, Multi-Source Cyber-Security Events*, Los Alamos National Laboratory (2015).