

btp

by Saurabh Singh

Submission date: 21-Apr-2019 10:57PM (UTC+0530)

Submission ID: 1085300758

File name: BTP_11.pdf (1.89M)

Word count: 11855

Character count: 58831

Network Intrusion Detection in an Adversarial Setting

Report ⁹²
submitted in fulfillment of the requirements
for the B.Tech Project of

Third Year B.Tech.

by

Shreyansh Singh, 16075052

⁴
Under the guidance of
Prof. K.K. Shukla



Department of Computer Science and Engineering
INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY (BHU) VARANASI
Varanasi 221005, India
May 2019

⁴
Dedicated to

My parents, teachers

Declaration

We certify that

1. The work contained in this report is original and has been done by our team and the general supervision of my supervisor.
2. The work has not been submitted for any project.
3. Whenever we have used materials (data, theoretical analysis, results) from other sources, we have given due credit to them by citing them in the text of the thesis and giving their details in the references.
4. Whenever we have quoted written materials from other sources, we have put them under quotation marks and given due credit to the sources by citing them and giving required details in the references.

Place: IIT (BHU) Varanasi

Date:

Shreyansh Singh, B.Tech.

63
Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Indian Institute of Technology (BHU) Varanasi,
Varanasi, INDIA 221005.

⁸⁰
Certificate

This is to certify that the work contained in this report entitled “Network Intrusion Detection in an Adversarial Setting” being submitted by Shreyansh Singh (Roll No. 16075052) and carried out in the Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology (BHU) Varanasi, is a bona fide work of my supervision.

Place: IIT (BHU) Varanasi
Date:

⁵⁶
Prof. K.K. Shukla
Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Indian Institute of Technology (BHU) Varanasi,
Varanasi, INDIA 221005.

Acknowledgement

13

I have taken efforts in this project. However, it would not have been possible without the kind support and help of many individuals and our institute. We would like to extend our sincere thanks to all of them. We are highly indebted to our project supervisor Prof. K.K. Shukla for his guidance and constant supervision as well as for providing necessary information regarding the project and also for his support in completing the project.

Place: IIT (BHU) Varanasi

Date:

Shreyansh Singh

Contents

Introduction	1
1 Literature Review	3
74	
1.1 Introduction	3
1.2 Intrusion Detection	3
1.2.1 IDS Datasets	5
1.3 Adversarial Machine Learning	5
1.3.1 Attack Types	5
1.3.2 Adversarial Deep Learning	6
2 Data Collection and Analysis	10
2.1 KDD'99 and NSL-KDD	10
2.2 Data Preprocessing	12
3 Results	13
3.1 Baseline Models	13
3.2 Adversarial Test Set Generation	13
3.3 Model Evaluation on Adversarial Data	14
3.4 Feature Evaluation	15
4 Discussion	19
4.1 Data Modelling	19
4.2 Adversarial Test Set Generation	19
4.3 Model Evaluation on Adversarial Data	19
4.4 Feature Evaluation	20
5 Conclusion	21

Contents 7

5.1 Future Work	21
Appendices	23
A Source Code	25

List of Figures

1.1	Adversarial Machine Learning [Maria Rigaki 2017]	6
1.2	Adversarial example produced by image perturbation. The neural network believes the images on the right are ostriches. [Szegedy 2013a]	7
1.3	Images generated using evolutionary algorithms. [Nguyen 2015a]	7
1.4	Generating adversarial samples with FGSM [Goodfellow 2014a]	8
1.5	Generating adversarial samples with JSMA [Papernot 2016c]	9
3.1	MLP Training - accuracy vs. epochs	14
3.2	Architecture of underlying MLP	15
3.3	Decision Tree ROC curves	16
3.4	SVM ROC curves	16
3.5	Random Forest ROC curves	16
3.6	Voting Ensemble ROC curves	16
3.7	Most used features in adversarial sample generation	18

List of Tables

2.1	KDD'99 and NSL-KDD features	11
3.1	Test set results for 5-class classification	13
3.2	Adversarial feature statistics	14
3.3	Data point $x^{(17)}$ in original test set	14
3.4	Transformation of data point $x_{\text{adv}}^{(17)}$ using JSMA	15
3.5	Adversarial test set results for 5-class classification	16
3.6	Top 10 adversarial features using JSMA	17

Abstract

The origin of network-intrusion detection research was using signature-based detection approaches. But since the gain in the popularity of machine learning and anomaly detection techniques based on it, the domain of intrusion detection has also seen such techniques being used. The volume of attacks has been increasing everyday and the techniques adversaries are using for crafting the attacks is also evolving at a very fast pace. Hence with the improvements in big data analytics area, makes machine learning the go-to technique to solve the issue. The aim of this research is to show that although machine learning can prove to be a great tool for network intrusion detection, but the robustness of the classifiers should be evaluated before using such models in production.

The domain of Image classification has seen several adversarial techniques emerge from deep learning research. The main idea in such techniques is to make minor changes in the original input data that is not recognizable by humans but are enough to make a machine learning tool misclassify it. This research explores adversarial machine learning techniques that have emerged from the deep learning domain, against machine learning classifiers used for network intrusion detection.

In this study, we look at the well known and commonly used classifiers and study their performance under attack. The metrics we used are accuracy, F1-score and receiver operating characteristic (ROC). The approach used assumes no knowledge of the original classifier and examines targeted misclassification. Even using very simple methods for generating adversarial examples, we show that it is possible to lower the accuracy of intrusion detection classifiers from 2.5% to 32%. This is achieved by introducing a very small change (9.49% on average) the original sample to create the adversarial sample, which makes it a candidate for practical adversarial attacks.

Introduction

Although enterprise networks aim to deploy the best security measures, security breaches still remain a source of major concern. Malicious activities within a network can be categorized based on the origin of the attacker as:

- *External users:* These include the activities that are performed by external users and have the intention to get access to the internal network. Such activities could be successfully performed via a breach in the network perimeter using malware, social engineering, phishing attacks and so on. Getting inside the internal network is very dangerous as now it is difficult to distinguish the attacker from normal users since most often they use normal user or administrator credentials. The attackers can use such kind of access to install and run malicious software autonomously like bots, or install backdoors or rootkits on the system of the employees.
- *Internal users:* This is also known as “insider threat”. These include the activities that are performed by internal users and have the motive to misuse, attack or steal information.

Intrusion Detection

Intrusion detection is dealing with unwanted access to systems and information by any type of user or software. An intrusion detection system (IDS) is a device or software application that monitors a network or systems for malicious activity or policy violations. An Intrusion Prevention System (IPS) is an IDS which also has the ability to stop attacks. There are two major categories of IDS:

- **Network IDS**, which monitors network segments and analyzes network traffic at different layers in order to detect intruders.
- **Host based IDS**, which are installed in host machines and analyze different indicators such as processes, log files, unexpected changes in the host to determine the presence of malicious activities.

Handling (gathering, storing and processing) the amount of network traffic that is generated on a daily basis by large enterprise networks, is a difficult task. One way to deal with this is to discard parts of the data or log less information, however the emergence of Big Data Analytics

(BDA) as well as the improvement in memory, computing power and the decrease in storage costs, transforms the situation into a big data problem.

Regardless of the specific data set used for Intrusion detection analysis, the nature of the data associated with this class of problems exhibits certain general characteristics:

- Data is generated constantly and there is a time series nature (continuous or discrete) based on the data set and the processing approach.
- *Class imbalance*, i.e. Very few positive labels or lack of labels
- Attack types change a lot over time, with attackers developing novel methods all the time.
- Variety in the type of data: packets, flows, numerical, unstructured text (URLs) and so on.

Traditional approaches in the area of intrusion detection mainly revolve around signature and rule based approaches. The limitations to those is that they work only with known attack patterns and that they require extensive domain knowledge [Chuvakin 2012]. Anomaly detection techniques based on statistical or machine learning approaches promise more flexibility and less dependency in domain knowledge and are more scalable when it comes to big data.

Motivation of the Research Work

Network Intrusion Detection systems play an important role in ensuring the security of the networks of large enterprise systems or critical infrastructures. The aim of this research is to show how Adversarial Machine learning can be used to trick classifiers into misclassifying malicious network packets as legitimate ones. Most of the current work in Adversarial Machine Learning has been done for images like [Szegedy 2013b], [Goodfellow 2014b], [Nguyen 2015b], so our aim is to use the same attack techniques for Network Intrusion Detection systems as well.

Organization of the Report

The organization of the report is as follows:

Chapter 1 gives a description of the past work that has been done in the domain of adversarial machine learning and the research papers we have gone through as a prerequisite for our study. It also gives a description of the attack techniques that we will be using in our study.

Chapter 2 focuses on the dataset we have used and the preprocessing steps.

Chapter 3 discusses the results we obtained for every step in our study.

Chapter 4 gives an analysis of our results at every step.

Finally, we conclude our report in Chapter 5, and specify our future work.

Chapter 1

Literature Review

1.1 Introduction

We followed the framework proposed by [Vom Brocke 2009] for the literature review process. The first step involved defining the scope and creating a rough outline of the task to perform. This was followed by thorough literature survey and subsequent analysis of the work already done this field. Following these steps helped us to identify the research gaps that existed, and helped to formulate the research questions that we will attempt to answer through our work.

The literature review was conducted using exhaustive search over the following terms: “information security AND machine learning”, “machine learning AND IDS”, “anomaly detection AND IDS” and “adversarial machine learning”, “deep learning AND IDS”. Apart from keyword search and relevance, other selection criteria were the chronology of the papers and the quality of sources (peer reviewed journals and conferences).

The search engines utilized for this search were mainly the LTU library search and Google scholar search engines which aggregate results over a number of databases. The majority of the references comes from well known databases such as ACM, IEEE, Springer and Elsevier.

1.2 Intrusion Detection

The methodologies used in NIDS can be divided into various categories. The vast majority of the literature describe the following categorizations:

- **Misuse-based or signature based:** These types of systems perform simple signature matching using signatures or indicators extracted from previously known attacks. The problem with these types of systems is that they don't perform well when they encounter new types of attacks and the task of maintaining the signatures given the rising number of attacks today, is also difficult.
- **Anomaly based:** These types of systems try to model normal behavior in a network in contrast to what is anomalous and potentially malicious. These are better than signature

based systems because of the fact that they are better at adapting to new attacks. but a major concern with such systems is whether the system “learns” a good definition of what is anomalous or not. The system should be able to classify malicious behaviour as anomalous.

- **Hybrid systems:** These types of systems are the combination of the above approaches.

In many of the research papers we surveyed, we find that the terms “machine learning” and “anomaly detection” are used interchangeably. [Bhuyan 2014] make a broader presentation that includes not only classifiers such as the ones used in Machine Learning and Data Mining but also pure anomaly detection techniques which include statistical methods, clustering and outlier based methods, knowledge based methods and combination learners.

Anomaly Detection based systems promise to solve the issue of adaptation to new attacks, however, the problem of generalization still exists, which makes it difficult to prove whether they can be used widely in practice. [Sommer 2010a] present some challenges that are relevant even today. These challenges include:

- the data used to train the models is very unbalanced, which makes it difficult to apply unsupervised classification techniques,
- High False Positive rate (FPR) can become a problem because that would result in a large number of alarms to be analyzed that are generated by the NIDS, therefore, time and fatigue can be a problem
- interpretation of the results and taking action is not always possible with some ML techniques,
- the lack of high quality representative datasets can lead to problems in the evaluation of different approaches.

[Milenkoski 2015] identified four major categories of evaluation metrics that are used in majority of the studies:

- Attack detection accuracy with most common metrics the False Positive, False Negative, True Positive and True Negative rates, the Positive Predictive Value (PPV) or Precision and the Negative Predictive Value (NPV). The False Positive Rate (FPR) and the True Positive Rate (TPR) are used in the construction of Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves and the calculation of the Area Under the Curve (AUC).
- Performance overhead which the IDS is adding to the overall network environment.
- Attack coverage, which is the detection accuracy of the IDS without benign traffic.
- Workload processing, which is the amount of traffic that can be processed by an IDS vs. the amount of network traffic the IDS discards.

1.2.1 IDS Datasets

One of the most used dataset is KDD'99 [KDD] which was derived from the DARPA'98 dataset. The dataset was used in a competition that was held during the Fifth International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining and the main competition task was to create a predictive model that can be used in network intrusion detection. The KDD'99 dataset had some problems which were analyzed by researchers such as [McHugh 2000], [Sommer 2010b], [Brugger 2007], [Tavallaei 2009a]. The major issues were -

- There is a huge number of redundant records for about 78% and 75% are duplicated in the train and test set, respectively.
- This redundancy makes the machine learning training quite biased.

This led to the creation of an improved version of the KDD'99 dataset, which was called the NSL-KDD dataset [NSL-KDD] by [Tavallaei 2009a]. This dataset did not solve all the problems in the KDD'99 dataset and more importantly it did not erase the fact that it is quite outdated. Still, the NSL-KDD dataset has been used in many Network Intrusion Detection based works due to the lack of public datasets for network-based IDSs. It provides a good analysis on various machine learning techniques for intrusion detection. The advantages of using this dataset are -

- No redundant records in the train set, so the classifier will not produce any biased results
- No duplicate record in the test set which have better reduction rates.
- The number of selected records from each difficult level group is inversely proportional to the percentage of records in the original KDD data set.

1.3 Adversarial Machine Learning⁷⁸

Adversarial Machine Learning (AML) is the study of machine learning in the presence of an adversary that works against the ML system in an effort to reduce its effectiveness or extract information from it.

All aspects and phases of the machine learning process can be attacked by an adversary as can be seen in Figure 1.1.

1.3.1 Attack Types

If we see the problem from the attacker's perspective, we can define two types of attacks as poisoning attacks or evasion attacks. [Biggio 2012] and [Xiao 2015] describe different poisoning attacks. [Xiao 2015] devised attacks against the Ridge and Lasso linear classifiers by maximizing the classification error with regards to the training points. [Biggio 2012] performed poisoning

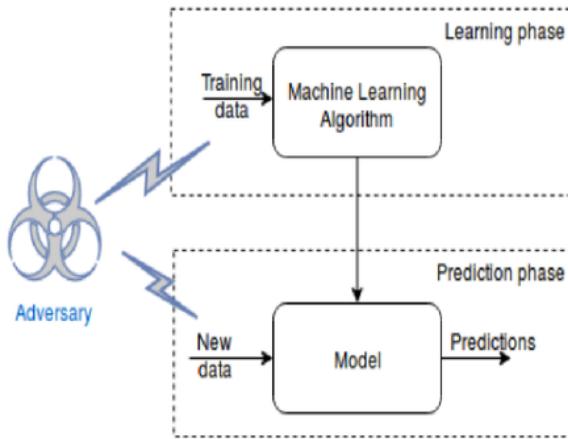


Figure 1.1: Adversarial Machine Learning [Maria Rigaki 2017]

attack on SVMs (Support Vector Machines). They injected samples to the training set ⁹⁰ in order to find the attack point that will maximize the classification error.

Evasion attacks were studied in the works of [Biggio 2013], [Biggio 2014] and [Ateniese 2015]. The latter, i.e. [Ateniese 2015] proposed a method in which a meta-classifier is created by training several classifiers on multiple training sets. This meta-classifier is used in order to extract statistical properties from the data but not the features themselves, which makes it an attack against privacy.

¹¹ 1.3.2 Adversarial Deep Learning

Deep Learning has become very successful in the recent years in the field of Natural Language Processing and Computer Vision. This also led to the development of Adversarial Deep Learning which was initially centered around the Computer Vision domain.

One of the first breakthroughs came in 2013, when [Szegedy 2013a] successfully demonstrated how one can fool Deep Learning classifiers by introducing small variations in an image. These variations were so small that they were imperceptible to humans but enough to fool the classifiers. Some examples of such images are shown in Figure 1.2. Another work [Nguyen 2015a], generated random images which appeared or had patterns in it, which did not mean anything, but the images were able to fool the Deep Learning classifiers into predicting them into valid object classes. Some reference images have been shown in Figure 1.3.

Although many different explanations have been given for the reason as to why this is possible, [Goodfellow 2014a] explains, contrary to the intuition of many people, that the main cause is the high ¹¹⁰ degree of linearity of the Deep Learning components. The linearity is brought about by the use of piece wise linear activation functions such as Rectified Linear Units (ReLUs). Such functions are used to achieve faster optimization as well as help to create decision boundaries

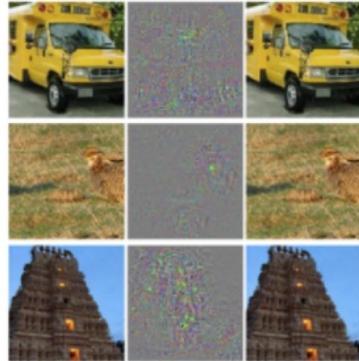


Figure 1.2: Adversarial example produced by image perturbation. The neural network believes the images on the right are ostriches. [Szegedy 2013a]

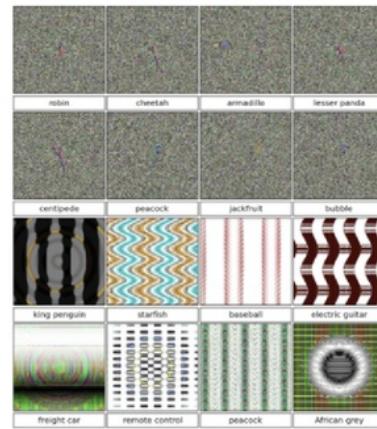


Figure 1.3: Images generated using evolutionary algorithms. [Nguyen 2015a]

that define much larger areas than the training data. This is the reason why when these classifiers encounter new examples (images), that have certain specific properties, they are misclassified ([Goodfellow 2014a] and [Nguyen 2015a]). Another very interesting property that was discovered by [Szegedy 2013a], [Goodfellow 2014a] and [Nguyen 2015a] was that the images that adversarial properties for one neural network can transfer these properties to other neural networks trained separately.

The only models that have shown some resistance to adversarial examples are the Radial Basis Function (RBF) networks but they are not used often as they don't generalize well [Goodfellow 2014a]. Other than those, even shallow linear models are also affected by the same problem and so are model ensembles.

The methods and algorithms to generate adversarial examples has also been researched upon. There are many such methods which have a trade-off on speed of production, performance and complexity. Some of the methods that have been proposed are given below -

- Evolutionary algorithms, proposed in [Nguyen 2015a]. But this method is very slow compared to the other two alternatives.
- ⁶⁸ Fast Gradient Sign Method (FGSM) proposed in [Goodfellow 2014a].
- Jacobian-based Saliency Map Attack (JSMA) ¹⁰⁰ [Papernot 2016c] is more computationally expensive than FGSM but it has the ability to create adversarial samples with less degree of distortion.

¹⁷ Both the FGSM and JSMA methods try to generate a small perturbation in the original sample so that it will exhibit adversarial characteristics. In FGSM a perturbation δ is generated by

17

computing the gradient of the cost function J in respect to the input x :

$$\delta = \epsilon \text{sign}(\nabla_x J(\theta, x, y)) \quad (1.1)$$

40

where θ are model parameters, x is the input to the model, y are the labels associated with x , ϵ is a very small value and $J(\theta, x, y)$ is the cost function used when training the neural network. This method is very fast because it requires the gradient which can be computed very efficiently using backpropagation. The perturbation is then added to the initial sample and the final result produces a misclassification. An example is shown in Figure 1.4.

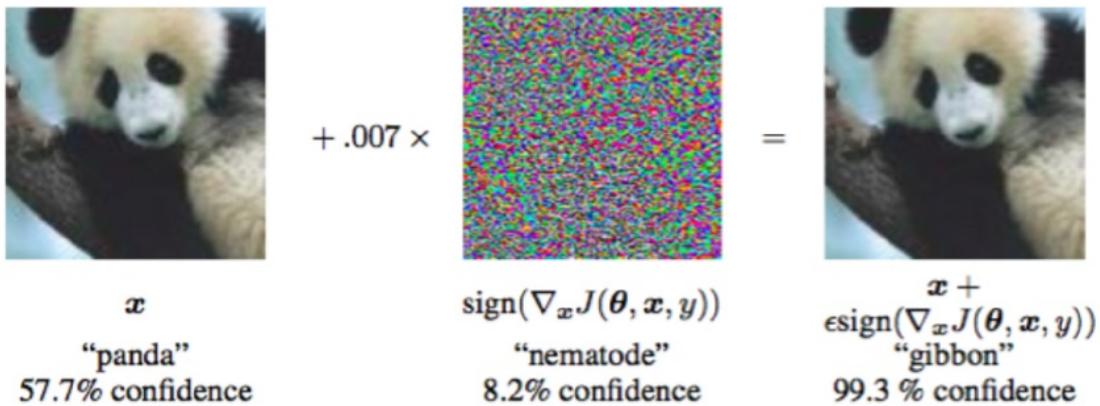


Figure 1.4: Generating adversarial samples with FGSM [Goodfellow 2014a]

89

JSMA, as the name suggests, generates adversarial sample perturbations based on the concept of saliency maps. The direction sensitivity of the sample in regards to the target class is calculated using a saliency map. Basically, the algorithm works by trying to determine which input features will be most likely to create a targeted class change. Using this sensitivity map one or more features are chosen as the possible perturbations and the model is checked to establish whether or not this change resulted in a misclassification. If it does not result in a misclassification, the next most sensitive feature is selected and a new iteration occurs until an adversarial sample that can fool the network is generated [Papernot 2016c]. The process is illustrated in Figure 1.5. Since the method usually takes a number of iterations, it is not as fast as FGSM.

Both FGSM and JSMA operate under the threat model of a strong attacker, e.g. an attacker that has knowledge of at least the underlying model. However if the attacker is not aware of the underlying model, it does not mean that the system cannot be exploited. If the attacker has only access to the model output and has some knowledge of the input to be provided, he can use the output of the model with different inputs to create an approximation of the model. And since the adversarial attacks have the transferability property, it is possible for the attacker to craft adversarial samples on the approximated model which can later be used as attack vectors against the original model [Papernot 2016b].

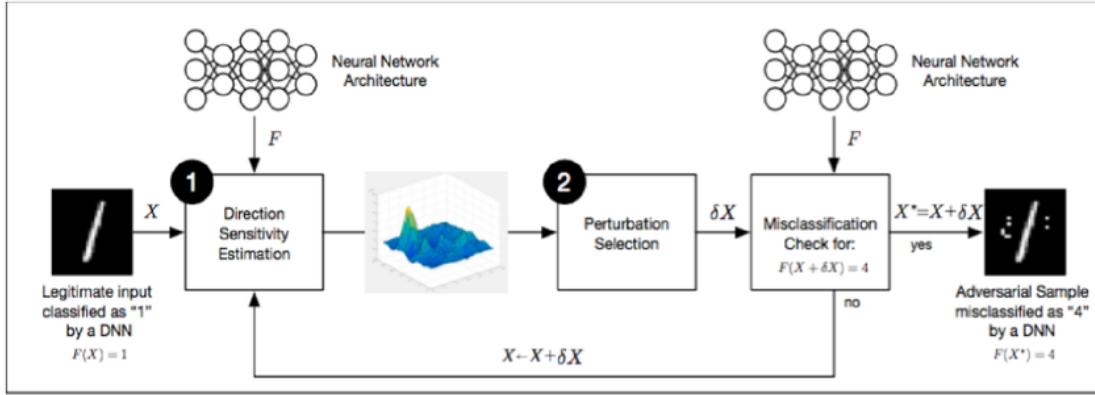


Figure 1.5: Generating adversarial samples with JSMA [Papernot 2016c]

An even weaker threat model is that in which the attacker has no access to the underlying model. These types of situations arise in face or voice recognition systems, i.e. in the physical domain. An attacker that can craft adversarial samples without access or knowledge of the underlying model or system could potentially fool these systems. [Kurakin 2016] demonstrated a successful attempt of such type of an attack.

[Papernot 2016a] thoroughly tested the concept of transferability. The authors tested several classifiers both as source for adversarial sample generation as well as target models. One thing to note, however, is that the testing was confined to image classifiers.

Chapter 2

Data Collection and Analysis

The most popular datasets in the domain of Intrusion Detection as discussed in Section 1.2.1 are the KDD'99 and the NSL-KDD datasets. These are the only ones that are labeled, include a variety of attacks and hence are widely used. Although these datasets are severely outdated, they have been chosen as a basis for this study mainly due to lack of better alternatives and secondly because the purpose of the study is the robustness of classifiers and not to make claims about prediction capabilities and generalization of our models.

2.1 ³² KDD'99 and NSL-KDD

KDD'99 is one of the most widely used datasets in the literature related to Intrusion Detection.⁴⁵ The attacks that are present in the dataset can be divided into four major categories: **Denial of Service (DoS)**, **User to Root (U2R)**, **Remote to Local (R2L)** and **Probing** attacks. A short description of these categories are given below -

- **DoS**⁶¹ attacks are an interruption in an authorized user's access to a computer network, in other words, they are attacks against availability. This category contains attacks such as *smurf*, *neptune*, *mailbomb*, *udpstorm*, etc.
- **U2R** attacks indicate attempts of privilege escalation. Some attacks of this type in the dataset are *buffer overflow*, *loadmodule*, *sqlattack* and *rootkit*.
- **R2L**¹¹³ attacks aim to gain remote access to a system by exploiting a vulnerability. Some examples of this type of attacks are *multihop*, *guesspasswd*, *httptunnel* and *xsnoop*.
- **Probe** attacks aim to gather information by using enumeration techniques like scanning or probing different parts of the network, for e.g. the ports. Although strictly speaking, they are not attacks but they are the first set of steps that an attacker will perform before attacking a network. Some examples of such types of attacks are *ipsweep*, *portsweep*, *nmap* and *mscan*.

Feature	Type	Feature	Type
duration	cont.	is_guest_login	sym.
protocol_type	sym.	count	cont.
service	sym.	srv_count	cont.
flag	sym.	serror_rate	cont.
src_bytes	cont.	rroror_rate	cont.
dest_bytes	cont.	rv_rerror_rate	cont.
land	sym.	diff_srv_rate	cont.
wrong_fragment	cont.	rv_diff_host_rate	cont.
urgent	cont.	dst_host_count	cont.
hot	cont.	dst_host_srv_count	cont.
num_failed_logins	cont.	dst_host_same_srv_rate	cont.
logged_in	sym.	dst_host_diff_srv_rate	cont.
num_compromised	cont.	dst_host_same_src_port_rate	cont.
root_shell	cont.	dst_host_srv_diff_host_rate	cont.
su_attempted	cont.	dst_host_serror_rate	cont.
num_root	cont.	dst_host_srv_serror_rate	cont.
num_file_creations	cont.	dst_host_rroror_rate	cont.
num_access_files	cont.	dst_host_srv_rerrorv_rate	cont.
num_outbound_cmds	cont.	is_host_login	sym.

Table 2.1: KDD'99 and NSL-KDD features

The detailed list of features is given in Table 2.1. The original dataset description used the term “symbolic” for categorical variables and the term “continuous” for numerical ones. The features in the dataset can be divided into three main categories: **Basic**, **Traffic** and **Content** related ones, as described in [Tavallaei 2009b].

Basic features are the ones related to connection information such as hosts, ports, protocols and services used.

Traffic features are calculated during a window interval as an aggregate. A further subdivision is “aggregates based on the same host” and “aggregates over the same service”. In the NSL-KDD dataset, the time window (in KDD'99) was substituted with a connection window of the last 100 connections.

Content features are extracted from the payload or packet data and they are related to the content of specific applications or protocol used.

The NSL-KDD dataset [NSL-KDD] has the same number of features as the KDD'99, but improved some shortcomings as described by [Tavallaei 2009a] which included the removal of redundant records in the training and testing sets and also adjusting the difficulty of classification for some attacks.

2.2 Data Preprocessing

For data preprocessing, the following steps were followed-

1. One-Hot encoding was used to convert the categorical features to numerical features.
2. All the features (now all numerical) were normalized using Min-Max Scaler as very large values can dominate the dataset and affect the performance of certain classifiers like SVM and the MLP.
3. The dataset had labels consisting of 39 distinct attack categories. These attacks were grouped into four major families - “Dos”, “U2R”, “R2L” and “Probe”. Hence the problem was transformed into a five-class classification problem (including the “normal” class).

47

After preprocessing, the final number of features are 122. The number of data points in the training set are 1,25,973 and in the test set 22,544.

Chapter 3

Results

3.1 Baseline Models

A number of ³⁵₂₄ different were trained and tested on the NSL-KDD dataset to establish a baseline. The results on the test set are given in Table 3.1.

Method	Accuracy	F1-Score	AUC (normal)
Decision Tree	0.989	0.992	0.992
Random Forest	0.993	0.994	0.994
Linear SVM	0.945	0.958	0.954
Voting Ensemble	0.993	0.993	0.746
MLP	0.985	-	-

Table 3.1: Test set results for 5-class classification

The variation of the accuracy with the epochs while training the MLP on the clean dataset is shown in Figure 3.1.

3.2 Adversarial Test Set Generation

Both the FGSM and JSMA methods were used in order to generate adversarial test sets from the original test set. The underlying model used to generate the adversarial examples was a pre-trained MLP. The architecture of the model is shown in figure 3.2. Table 3.2 below, shows the difference between the two methods in terms of changed features on average as well as the unique features changed for all data points in the test set.

Tables 3.3 and 3.4 show the transformation required for selected features using the JSMA method in order to for the specific data point to become “normal”. Some of the altered features for that data point are shown.

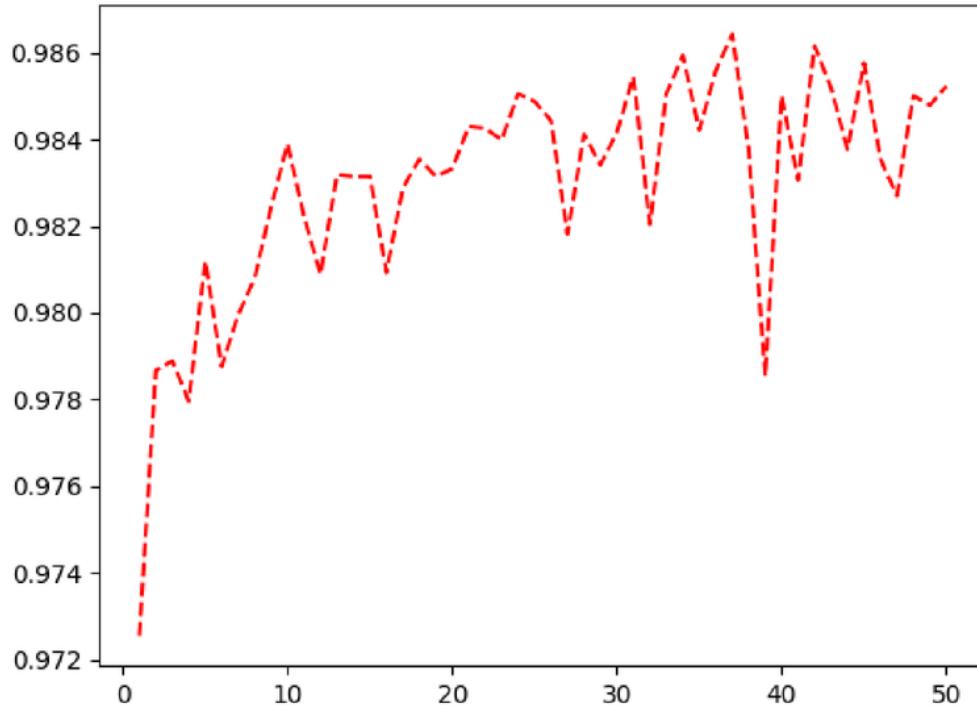


Figure 3.1: MLP Training - accuracy vs. epochs

Method	Num. of unique altered features	Avg. features changed per data point	Percentage of altered features
FGSM	122	76.47	62.68
JSMA	89	11.58	9.49

Table 3.2: Adversarial feature statistics

...	F26	...	F29	F30	...	F41	...	label
...	0.7	...	0.7	0.7	...	0.7	...	dos

Table 3.3: Data point $x^{(17)}$ in original test set

3.3 Model Evaluation on Adversarial Data

47

This section presents the results of the baseline models on the adversarial test set generated by the JSMA method in terms of Accuracy, F1-score and AUC (Table 3.5). One thing to note here

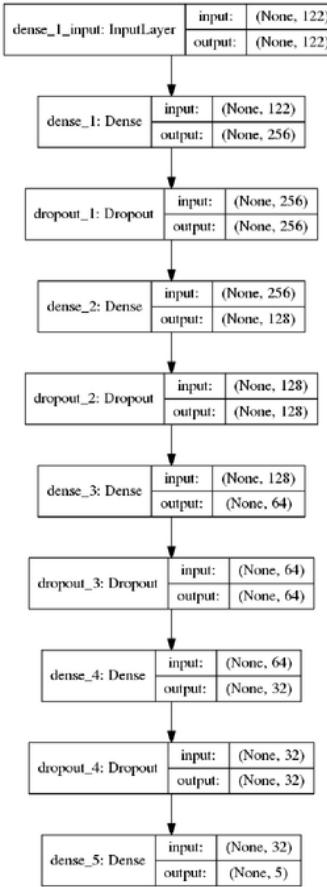


Figure 3.2: Architecture of underlying MLP

...	F26	...	F29	F30	...	F41	...	label
...	1.0	...	1.0	1.0	...	1.0	...	normal

Table 3.4: Transformation of data point $x_{\text{adv}}^{(17)}$ using JSMA

is that both the AUC results as well as the ROC curves in the figures below, are only presented for the the “normal” class, while the F1-score is an average score over all classes.

3.4 Feature Evaluation

After generating the adversarial test set using JSMA, a ranking of the features in terms of frequency with which they appear in the adversarial test set as changed was created. This was calculated by subtracting the original test set from the adversarial test set

$$\delta = X^* - X_{\text{test}}$$

Method	Accuracy	F1-Score	AUC (normal)
Decision Tree	0.660	0.802	0.744
Random Forest	0.968	0.977	0.986
Linear SVM	0.810	0.846	0.949
Voting Ensemble	0.914	0.914	0.723
MLP	0.670	-	-

Table 3.5: Adversarial test set results for 5-class classification

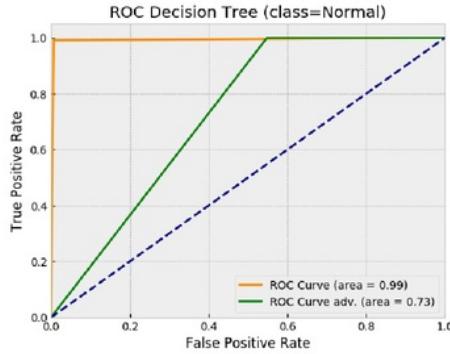


Figure 3.3: Decision Tree ROC curves

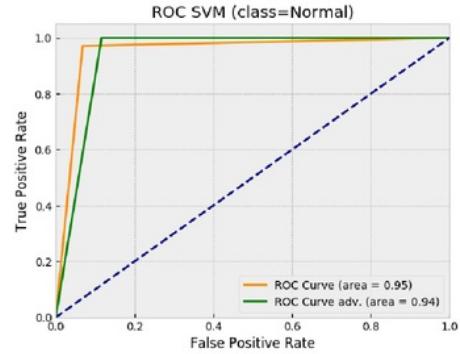


Figure 3.4: SVM ROC curves

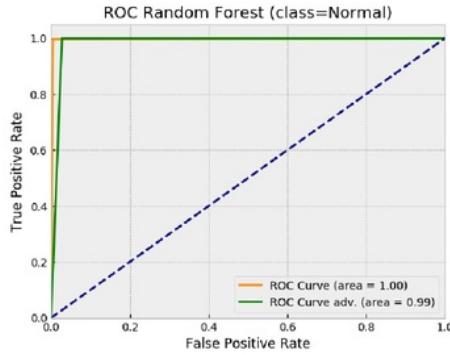


Figure 3.5: Random Forest ROC curves

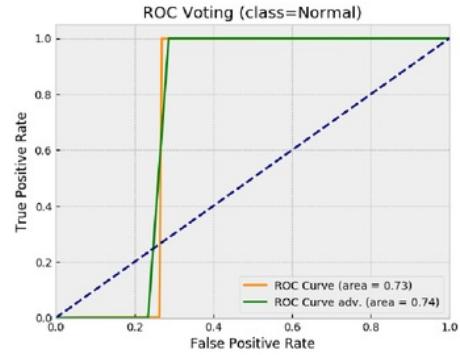


Figure 3.6: Voting Ensemble ROC curves

where X^* is the adversarial test set and X_{test} is the original test set. In order to find which features were altered for each data point $\delta^{(i)}$ we need to find the feature indexes j where feature $\delta_j^{(i)} = 0$.

The top ten features and their description are presented in Table 3.6. Figure 3.7 shows the top 20 features and their percentages.

Feature	Description
50 srv_count	number of connections to the same service as the current connection in the past 100 connections
21 count	number of connections to the same host as the current connection in the past 100 connections
dst_host_srv_count	number of connections to the same service and destination host as the current connection in the past 100 connections
dst_host_same_srv_rate	% of connections to the same service and destination host
20 src_bytes	number of data bytes from source to destination
same_srv_rate	% of connections to the same service
84 bytes	number of data bytes from destination to source
44 dst_host_diff_srv_rate	% of different services on the current host
dst_host_count	number of connections to the same destination host as the current connection in the past 100 connections
duration	duration of the connection

Table 3.6: Top 10 adversarial features using JSMA

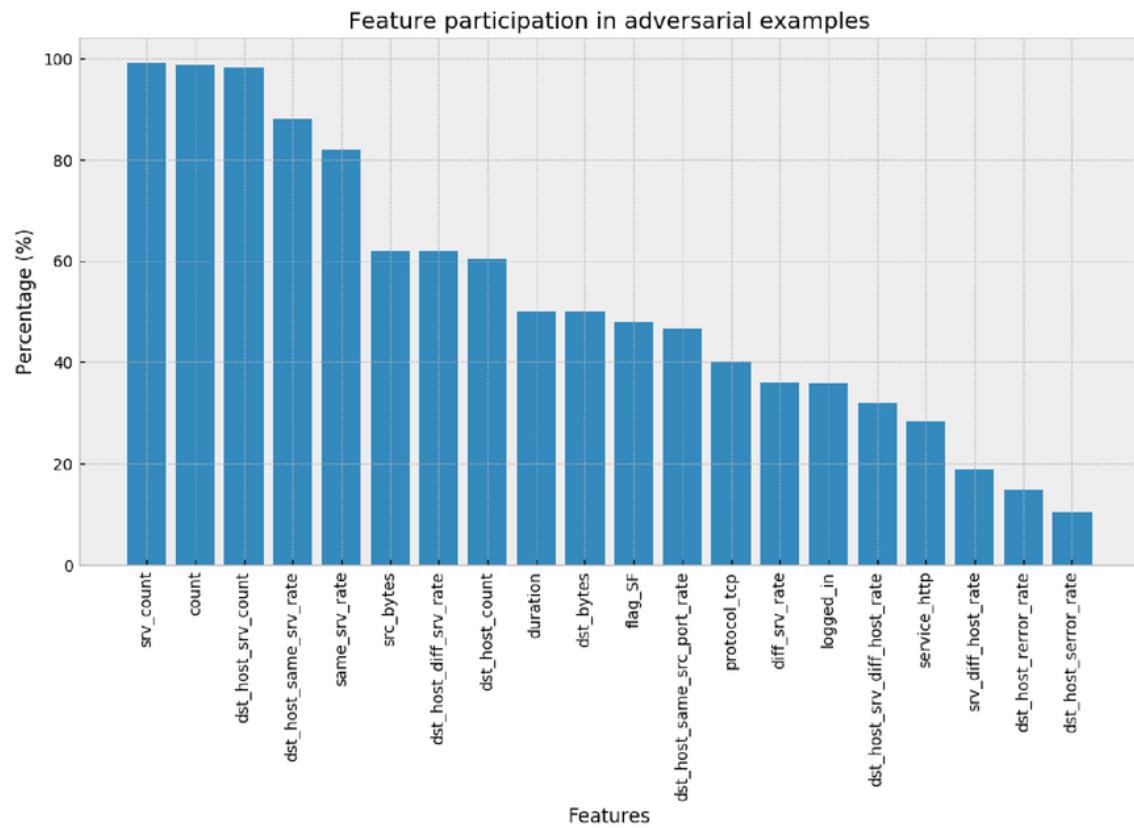


Figure 3.7: Most used features in adversarial sample generation

Chapter 4

Discussion

4.1 Data Modelling

Table 3.1 shows that all the models have an overall accuracy and F1-score around 99%. The AUC scores however show a major difference where we observe that the Decision Tree and the Random Forest classifier outperform the SVM and the Voting ensemble. This implies that the first two methods are performing slightly better in classifying the “normal” test samples exhibiting a lower False Positive Rate (FPR). This can also be observed in the ROC-AUC curves shown in Figures 3.3 to 3.6.

4.2 Adversarial Test Set Generation

As it was explained earlier, the FGSM method changes each feature very slightly while JSMA searches through the features of each data point and changes one at each iteration in order to produce an adversarial sample. This means that FGSM is not suitable for tasks like NIDS since the features are generated from network traffic and controlling them in a fine grained manner would not be possible for an adversary. On the contrary, JSMA changes only a few features at a time and although it takes more time to generate adversarial examples as it is iterative, it can form the basis for a practical attack due to the lower number of features that have to be changed. This is totally inline with the observations in [Huang 2011] where the importance of domain applicability is highlighted as a potential problem for an attacker.

4.3 Model Evaluation on Adversarial Data

In terms of overall classification accuracy all classifiers were affected. The most severely affected is the Decision Tree with a drop of 32.9% and the Decision Tree whose accuracy dropped by 13.5%. The Random Forest classifier showed some robustness with an accuracy drop of 2.5%.

When it comes to F1-score, the Decision Tree was affected the most and its score was reduced

by 19%. Linear SVM saw an F1-score reduction of 11.2%. The other two classifiers did not suffer as much and again the Random Forest showed the highest robustness by dropping only 1.7%.

The AUC over the normal class is an indicator of how robust were the classifiers against targeted misclassification towards the normal class. It provides a measure on how much was the increase on the FPR compared to the TPR, in other words, how many attacks were misclassified as normal traffic. The best performing classifier was the the Linear SVM, which only dropped 0.5%, follwed by the Random Forest whic dropped 0.8%. The Decision Tree classifier was severely affected, losing 24.8% percentage points.

³⁵ Based on the results, it seems that the only method that was robust across all metrics was the Random Forest. The Decision Tree was the worst performing classifier, which also corresponds with the result of [Papernot 2016a], in which also, Decision Tree was one of the worst performing methods.

4.4 Feature Evaluation

Table 5.6 gives an idea of the top-10 features which contribute most during the generation of adversarial samples. Among those features, the top two are about the number of connections to the same service/host as the current connection in the past 100 connections. The next two features are about the rate and the count of the connections to the same host and port. This tells us that one way an attacker could get around the detection would be to lessen the number of requests they generate. Exploiting this can be very helpful for running bots as one can generate connections to external command and control servers and can hide their traffic under normal traffic that a user creates. A similar type of reasoning can also be applied to other count and rate types of features. This type of discussion is also relevant to the Denial of Service (DoS) type of attacks and while this dataset is quite old, historically, there gave been attacks that followed the “low and slow” approach in order to appear as close to legitimate traffic as possible. When it comes to features related to service types, using common protocols like HTTP or HTTPS can be a goo strategy in order to hide into other normal traffic, instead of using protocols that might be easier to get discovered.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

¹⁷ From the results and discussion presented previously we can say that JSMA is more preferable in the intrusion detection domain in terms of applicability of attacks in terms of as compared to FGSM which cannot be used in a practical manner. We also observed the robustness exhibited by different classifiers which is also shown in [Papernot 2016a]. Also, it is clear that using a substitute model to generate adversarial samples can be successful and it is worth looking at adversarial ⁸³ security when deploying machine learning classifiers. This means that even when attackers do not have access to the training data, adversarial samples can transfer to different models under certain circumstances. This means that when machine learning is used, it should be accompanied with relevant adversarial training and testing and strengthening.

Also, one important thing to note is that in our case, we had a pre-processed dataset and not raw data which made it easier to attack. A physical attack would require some idea on how the raw network data are processed and the types of features that are generated. So, if we were to deal with raw data some knowledge would be required about how the data is preprocessed and how features are generated.

Finally, even if we know the features used, it would still require work to adjust the traffic profiles of the specific attack. Contrary to the image classification problem, where each bit in the image can be considered a feature which can be easily altered, not all traffic related characteristics can be changed, even when an adversary has the ability to craft specific network packets and payloads. To protect against adversaries, NIDS classifiers will have to use features that can not be easily manipulated by an attacker.

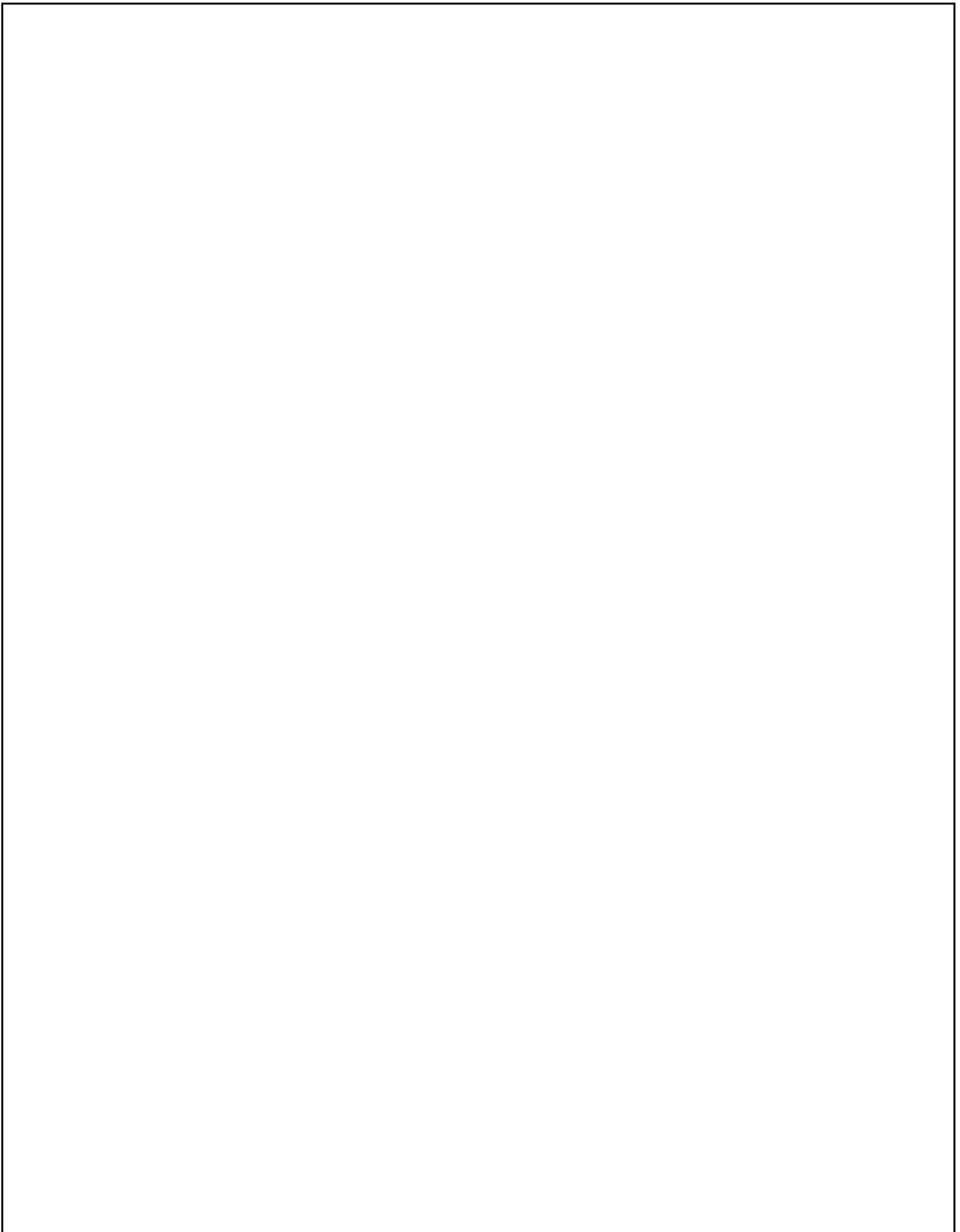
5.1 Future Work

This study presented an attempt to transfer adversarial methods from the Deep Learning image classification domain to the NIDS domain. While defenses have been proposed against these methods in several studies, these defenses do not generalize very well. A future study would be to examine some of these defenses and establish whether they improve the situation or not especially in the NIDS domain.

In our study a neural net was used as the source model for preparing the adversarial examples. An extension of this study could be to use other models as the source as well.

Finally, further study is also required to understand the effect of the adversarial methods in different attack classes which would potentially yield a better overview of which features are more important for each attack type when it comes to adversarial sample generation. This can eventually be used by adversaries to select strategies that would allow them to hide their malicious traffic depending on the chosen attack.

Appendices



Appendix A

Source Code

```
29 import numpy as np
30 import pandas as pd
31 import sys
32 from keras.models import Sequential
33 from keras.layers import Dense, Dropout
34 from keras.optimizers import RMSprop, adam
35 from keras import backend as K
36
37 from cleverhans.attacks import FastGradientMethod, SaliencyMapMethod
38 from cleverhans.utils_tf import model_train, model_eval, batch_eval, model_argmax
39 from cleverhans.attacks_tf import jacobian_graph
40 from cleverhans.utils import other_classes
41 from cleverhans.utils_keras import KerasModelWrapper
42
43 95
44 import tensorflow as tf
45 from tensorflow.python.platform import flags
46
47 38
48 from sklearn.multiclass import OneVsRestClassifier
49 from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
50 from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier, VotingClassifier
51 from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
52 from sklearn.svm import SVC, LinearSVC
53
54 69
55 from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score, roc_curve, auc, f1_score
56 43 in sklearn.preprocessing import LabelEncoder, MinMaxScaler
57 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
58 import pickle
59 plt.style.use('bmh')
60
61 K.set_learning_phase(1)
62
63 FLAGS = flags.FLAGS
64
65 flags.DEFINE_integer('nb_epochs', 50, 'Number of 7 epochs to train model')
66 flags.DEFINE_integer('batch_size', 64, 'Size of training batches')
67 flags.DEFINE_float('learning_rate', 0.005, 'Learning rate for training')
68 flags.DEFINE_integer('nb_classes', 5, 'Number of classification classes')
69 flags.DEFINE_integer('source_samples', 10, 'Nb of test set examples to attack')
70
71 22
72 print()
73 print()
74 39 print("===== Start of preprocessing stage <
75 =====")
76
77 names = ['duration', 'protocol', 'service', 'flag', 'src_bytes', 'dst_bytes', 'land', '\
78 wrong_fragment', 'urgent', 'hot', 'num_failed_logins', 'logged_in', 'num_compromised', '\
79
```

```

6   'root_shell', 'su_attempted', 'num_root', 'num_file_creations', 'num_shells', '\
7   num_access_files', 'num_outbound_cmds', 'is_host_login', 'is_guest_login', 'count', '\
8   srv_count', 'serror_rate', 'srv_serror_rate', 'rerror_rate', 'srv_rerror_rate', '\
9   same_srv_rate', 'diff_srv_rate', 'srv_diff_host_rate', 'dst_host_count', '\
10  dst_host_srv_count', 'dst_host_same_srv_rate', 'dst_host_diff_srv_rate', '\
11  dst_host_same_src_port_rate', 'dst_host_srv_diff_host_rate', 'dst_host_serror_rate', '\
12  dst_host_srv_serror_rate', 'dst_host_rerror_rate', 'dst_host_srv_rerror_rate', '\
13  attack_type', 'other']
14
15 df_train = pd.read_csv('../NSL_KDD/KDDTrain+txt', names=names, header=None)
16 df_test = pd.read_csv('../NSL_KDD/KDDTest-21.txt', names=names, header=None)
17 print("Initial training and test data shapes: ", df_train.shape, df_test.shape)
18
19 full = pd.co[88]t([df_train, df_test])
20 assert full.shape[0] == df_train.shape[0] + df_test.shape[0]
21
22 full['label'] = full['attack_type']
23
24 # DoS Attacks
25 full.loc[full.label == 'neptune', 'label'] = 'dos'
26 full.loc[full.label == 'back', 'label'] = 'dos'
27 full.loc[full.label == 'land', 'label'] = 'dos'
28 full.loc[full.label == 'pod', 'label'] = 'dos'
29 full.loc[full.label == 'smurf', 'label'] = 'dos'
30 full.loc[full.label == 'teardrop', 'label'] = 'dos'
31 full.loc[full.label == 'mailbomb', 'label'] = 'dos'
32 full.loc[full.label == 'processstable', 'label'] = 'dos'
33 full.loc[full.label == 'udpstorm', 'label'] = 'dos'
34 full.loc[full.label == 'apache2', 'label'] = 'dos'
35 full.loc[full.label == 'worm', 'label'] = 'dos'
36
37 # User-to-root (U2R)
38 full.loc[full.label == 'buffer_overflow', 'label'] = 'u2r'
39 full.loc[full.label == 'loadmodule', 'label'] = 'u2r'
40 full.loc[full.label == 'perl', 'label'] = 'u2r'
41 full.loc[full.label == 'rootkit', 'label'] = 'u2r'
42 full.loc[full.label == 'sqlattack', 'label'] = 'u2r'
43 full.loc[full.label == 'xterm', 'label'] = 'u2r'
44 full.loc[full.label == 'ps', 'label'] = 'u2r'
45
46 # Remote-to-local (R2L)
47 full.loc[full.label == 'ftp_write', 'label'] = 'r2l'
48 full.loc[full.label == 'guess_passwd', 'label'] = 'r2l'
49 full.loc[full.label == 'imap', 'label'] = 'r2l'
50 full.loc[full.label == 'multihop', 'label'] = 'r2l'
51 full.loc[full.label == 'phf', 'label'] = 'r2l'
52 full.loc[full.label == 'spy', 'label'] = 'r2l'
53 full.loc[full.label == 'warezclient', 'label'] = 'r2l'
54 full.loc[full.label == 'warezmaster', 'label'] = 'r2l'
55 full.loc[full.label == 'xlock', 'label'] = 'r2l'
56 full.loc[full.label == 'xsnoop', 'label'] = 'r2l'
57 full.loc[full.label == 'snmpgetattack', 'label'] = 'r2l'
58 full.loc[full.label == 'httptunnel', 'label'] = 'r2l'
59 full.loc[full.label == 'snmpguess', 'label'] = 'r2l'
60 full.loc[full.label == 'sendmail', 'label'] = 'r2l'
61 full.loc[full.label == 'named', 'label'] = 'r2l'
62
63 # Probe attacks
64 full.loc[full.label == 'satan', 'label'] = 'probe'
65 full.loc[full.label == 'ipsweep', 'label'] = 'probe'
66 full.loc[full.label == 'nmap', 'label'] = 'probe'
67 full.loc[full.label == 'portsweep', 'label'] = 'probe'
68 full.loc[full.label == 'saint', 'label'] = 'probe'
69 full.loc[full.label == 'mscan', 'label'] = 'probe'
70
71 full = full.drop(['other', 'attack_type'], axis=1)

```

```

103 print("Unique labels", full.label.unique())
104 full = full.sample(frac=1).reset_index(drop=True)
105 # Generate One - Hot encoding
106 full2 = pd.get_dummies(full, drop_first=False)
107
108 # Separate training and test sets again
109 features = list(full2.columns[:-5]) # Due to One-Hot encoding
110 y_train = np.array(full2[0: df_train.shape[0]][['label_normal', 'label_dos', 'label_probe' \
    , 'label_r2l', 'label_u2r']])
111 X_train = full2[0: df_train.shape[0]][features]
112
113 y_test = np.array(full2[df_train.shape[0]: ][['label_normal', 'label_dos', 'label_probe', \
    'label_r2l', 'label_u2r']])
114 X_test = full2[df_train.shape[0]: ][features]
115
116 # Scale data
117 scaler = MinMaxScaler().fit(X_train)
118 X_train_scaled = np.array(scaler.transform(X_train))
119 X_test_scaled = np.array(scaler.transform(X_test))
120
121 # Generate label encoding for Logistic regression
122 labels = full.label.unique()
123 le = LabelEncoder()
124 le.fit(labels)
125 y_full = le.transform(full.label)
126 y_train_l = y_full[0: df_train.shape[0]]
127 y_test_l = y_full[df_train.shape[0]: ]
128
129 print("Training dataset shape", X_train_scaled.shape, y_train.shape)
130 print("Test dataset sha[42, X_test_scaled.shape, y_test.shape")
131 print("Label encoder y shape", y_train_l.shape, y_test_l.shape)
132
133 print("===== End of preprocessing stage =====")
134 print()
135 print()
136
137 print("===== Start of adversarial sample generation =====")
138 print()
139 print()
140
141 def mlp_model():
142     """
143         Generate a Multilayer Perceptron model
144     """
145     model = Sequential()
146     model.add(Dense(256, activation='relu', input_shape=(X_train_scaled.shape[1], )))
147     model.add(Dropout(0.4))
148     model.add(Dense(256, activation='relu'))
149     model.add(Dropout(0.4))
150     model.add(Dense(FLAGS.nb_classes, activation='softmax'))
151     model.compile(loss='categorical_crossentropy', optimizer='adam', metrics=['\n        accuracy'])
152
153     model.summary()
154     return model
155
156 def mlp_model2():
157     """
158         Generate a Multilayer Perceptron model
159     """
160     model = Sequential()
161     model.add(Dense(256, activation='relu', input_shape=(X_train_scaled.shape[1], )))
162     model.add(Dropout(0.2))
163     model.add(Dense(128, activation='relu'))

```

```

164     model.add(Dropout(0.2))
165     model.add(Dense(64, activation='relu'))
166     model.add(Dropout(0.2))
167     model.add(Dense(32, activation='relu'))
168     model.add(Dropout(0.2)) 11
169     model.add(Dense(FLAGS.nb_classes, activation='softmax'))
170     model.compile(loss='categorical_crossentropy', optimizer='adam', metrics=['accuracy'])
171
172     model.summary()
173     return model
174
175 acc_list = []
176 count = 0
177 def evaluate():
178     """
179         Model evaluation function
180     """
181     global count
182     count += 1
183
184     eval_params = {'batch_size': FLAGS.batch_size}
185     accuracy = model_eval(sess, x, y, predictions, X_test_scaled, y_test, args=\
186                           eval_params)
187     global acc_list
188     acc_list.append((count, accuracy))
189     print("Test accuracy on legitimate test samples: " + str(accuracy))
190
191 # TensorFlow placeholder variables
192 x = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, shape=(None, X_train_scaled.shape[1]))
193 y = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, shape=(None, FLAGS.nb_classes))
194
195 tf.set_random_seed(42)
196 model = mlp_model2()
197 sess = tf.Session()
198 diction = model(x)
199 init = tf.global_variables_initializer()
200 sess.run(init)
201
202 # Train the model
203 train_params = {'nb_epochs': FLAGS.nb_epochs, 'batch_size': FLAGS.batch_size, '\
204                  learning_rate': FLAGS.learning_rate, 'verbose': 0}
205
206 model_train(sess, x, y, predictions, X_train_scaled, y_train, evaluate=evaluate, args=\
207             train_params)
208
209 file = open("scores.pkl", "wb")
210 pickle.dump(acc_list, file)
211 file.close()
212 # sys.exit()
213 # Generate adversarial samples for all test datapoints
214 source_samples = X_test_scaled.shape[0]
215
216 # Jacobian-based Saliency Map
217 results = np.zeros((FLAGS.nb_classes, source_samples), dtype='i')
218 perturbations = np.zeros((FLAGS.nb_classes, source_samples), dtype='f')
219 grads = jacobian_graph(predictions, x, FLAGS.nb_classes)
220
221 X_adv = np.zeros((source_samples, X_test_scaled.shape[1]))
222
223 models = KerasModelWrapper(model)
224 jsma = SaliencyMapMethod(models, sess=sess)
225 jsma_params = {'theta': 1., 'gamma': 0.1, 'clip_min': 0., 'clip_max': 1., 'y_target': None}
226
227 for sample_ind in range(0, source_samples):

```

```

226     sample = X_test_scaled[sample_ind:(sample_ind+1)]
227     # We want to find an adversarial example for each possible target class
228     # (i.e. all classes that differ from the label given in the dataset)
229     current_class = int(np.argmax(y_test[sample_ind]))
230
231     # Only target the normal class
232     for target in [0]:
233         if current_class == 0:
234             break
235
236     print('Generating adv. example for target class {} for sample {}'.format(\u202a
237         target, sample_ind), end='\r')
238
239     # This call runs the Jacobian - based saliency map approach
240     one_hot_target = np.zeros((1, FLAGS.nb_classes), dtype=np.float32)
241     one_hot_target[0, target] = 1
242     jsma_params['y_target'] = one_hot_target
243     adv_x = jsma.generate_np(sample, **jsma_params)
244
245     # Check if success was achieved
246     res = int(model_argmax(sess, x, predictions, adv_x) == target)
247
248     # Computer number of modified features
249     adv_x_reshape = adv_x.reshape(-1)
250     test_in_reshape = X_test_scaled[sample_ind].reshape(-1)
251     nb_changed = np.where(adv_x_reshape != test_in_reshape)[0].shape[0]
252     percent_perturb = float(nb_changed) / adv_x.reshape(-1).shape[0]
253
254     X_adv[sample_ind] = adv_x
255     results[target, sample_ind] = res
256     perturbations[target, sample_ind] = percent_perturb
257
258     print()
259     print(X_adv.shape)
260     34  print("===== Evaluation of MLP Performance \u202a
261     =====")
262
263 eval_params = {'batch_size': FLAGS.batch_size}
264 accuracy = model_eval(sess, x, y, predictions, X_test_scaled, y_test, args=eval_params)
265 print("Test accuracy on normal examples: {}".format(accuracy))
266
267 accuracy_adv = model_eval(sess, x, y, predictions, X_adv, y_test, args=eval_params)
268 print("Test accuracy on adversarial examples: {}".format(accuracy_adv))
269 print()
270 8  print("===== Decision tree Classifier \u202a
271     =====") 54
272 dt = OneVsRestClassifier(DecisionTreeClassifier(random_state=42))
273 dt.fit(X_train_scaled, y_train)
274 y_pred = dt.predict(X_test_scaled)
275
276 # Calculate FPR for 3 normal class only
277 fpr_dt, tpr_dt, _ = roc_curve(y_test[:, 0], y_pred[:, 0])
278
279 roc_auc_dt = auc(fpr_dt, tpr_dt) 3
280 print("Accuracy score: {}".format(accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)))
281 print("F1 Score: {}".format(f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='micro')))
282 print("AUC score: {}".format(roc_auc_dt))
283
284 # Predict using adversarial test samples
285 y_pred_adv = dt.predict(X_adv)
286 fpr_dt_adv, tpr_dt_adv, _ = roc_curve(y_test[:, 0], y_pred_adv[:, 0])
287 roc_auc_dt_adv = auc(fpr_dt_adv, tpr_dt_adv) 48
288 print("Accuracy score adversarial: {}".format(accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred_adv)))

```

```

289 print("F1 Score adversarial: {}".format(f1_score(y_test, y_pred_adv, average='micro')))
290 print("AUC score adversarial: {}".format(roc_auc_dt_adv))
291
292 plt.figure()
293 l = 2
294 plt.plot(fpr_dt, tpr_dt, color='darkorange', lw=lw, label="ROC Curve (area = %0.2f)" % roc_auc_dt)
295 plt.plot(fpr_dt_adv, tpr_dt_adv, color='green', lw=lw, label="ROC Curve adv. (area = %0.2f)" % roc_auc_dt_adv)
296 plt.plot([0, 1], [0, 1], color='navy', lw=lw, linestyle='--')
297 plt.xlim([0.0, 1.0])
298 plt.ylim([0.0, 1.05])
299 plt.xlabel("False Positive Rate")
300 plt.ylabel("True Positive Rate")
301 plt.title("ROC Decision Tree (class=Normal)")
302 plt.legend(loc="lower right")
303 plt.savefig('ROC_DT.png', bbox_inches = "tight")
304 print()
305
306 print()
307 print("===== Random Forest Classifier =====")
308 rf = OneVsRestClassifier(RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=200, random_state=42))
309 rf.fit(X_train_scaled, y_train)
310 y_pred = rf.predict(X_test_scaled)
311
312 # Calculate FPR for normal class only
313 fpr_rf, tpr_rf, _ = roc_curve(y_test[:, 0], y_pred[:, 0])
314
315 roc_auc_rf = auc(fpr_rf, tpr_rf)
316 print("Accuracy score: {}".format(accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)))
317 print("F1 Score: {}".format(f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='micro')))
318 print("AUC score: {}".format(roc_auc_rf))
319
320 # Predict using adversarial test samples
321 pred_adv = rf.predict(X_adv)
322 fpr_rf_adv, tpr_rf_adv, _ = roc_curve(y_test[:, 0], y_pred_adv[:, 0])
323 roc_auc_rf_adv = auc(fpr_rf_adv, tpr_rf_adv)
324 print("Accuracy score adversarial: {}".format(accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred_adv)))
325 print("F1 Score adversarial: {}".format(f1_score(y_test, y_pred_adv, average='micro')))
326 print("AUC score adversarial: {}".format(roc_auc_rf_adv))
327
328 plt.figure()
329 l = 2
330 plt.plot(fpr_rf, tpr_rf, color='darkorange', lw=lw, label="ROC Curve (area = %0.2f)" % roc_auc_rf)
331 plt.plot(fpr_rf_adv, tpr_rf_adv, color='green', lw=lw, label="ROC Curve adv. (area = %0.2f)" % roc_auc_rf_adv)
332 plt.plot([0, 1], [0, 1], color='navy', lw=lw, linestyle='--')
333 plt.xlim([0.0, 1.0])
334 plt.ylim([0.0, 1.05])
335 plt.xlabel("False Positive Rate")
336 plt.ylabel("True Positive Rate")
337 plt.title("ROC Random Forest (class=Normal)")
338 plt.legend(loc="lower right")
339 plt.savefig('ROC_RF.png', bbox_inches = "tight")
340 print()
341
342 print()
343 print("===== Linear SVC Classifier =====")
344 sv = OneVsRestClassifier(LinearSVC(C=1., random_state=42, loss='hinge'))
345 sv.fit(X_train_scaled, y_train)
346 y_pred = sv.predict(X_test_scaled)
347
348 # Calculate FPR for normal class only

```

```

349 fpr_sv, tpr_sv, _ = roc_curve(y_test[:, 0], y_pred[:, 0])
350
351 roc_auc_sv = auc(fpr_sv, tpr_sv) 3
352 print("Accuracy score: {}".format(accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred))) 3
353 print("F1 Score: {}".format(f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='micro'))))
354 print("AUC score: {}".format(roc_auc_sv))
355
356 # Predict using adversarial test samples
357 y_pred_adv = sv.predict(X_adv)
358 fpr_sv_adv, tpr_sv_adv, _ = roc_curve(y_test[:, 0], y_pred_adv[:, 0])
359 roc_auc_sv_adv = auc(fpr_sv_adv, tpr_sv_adv) 3
360 print("Accuracy score adversarial: {}".format(accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred_adv)))
361 print("F1 Score adversarial: {}".format(f1_score(y_test, y_pred_adv, average='micro'))))
362 print("AUC score adversarial: {}".format(roc_auc_sv_adv))
363
364 plt.figure()
365 1 = 2
366 plt.plot(fpr_sv, tpr_sv, color='darkorange', lw=lw, label="ROC Curve (area = %0.2f)" % \
    roc_auc_sv)
367 plt.plot(fpr_sv_adv, tpr_sv_adv, color='green', lw=lw, label="ROC Curve adv. (area = %0.2f" \
    ")" % roc_auc_sv_adv)
368 plt.plot([0, 1], [0, 1], color='navy', lw=lw, linestyle='--')
369 plt.xlim([0.0, 1.0])
370 plt.ylim([0.0, 1.05])
371 plt.xlabel("False Positive Rate")
372 plt.ylabel("True Positive Rate")
373 plt.title("ROC SVM (class=Normal)")
374 plt.legend(loc="lower right")
375 plt.savefig('ROC_SVM.png', bbox_inches = "tight")
376 print()
377 7
378 print()
379 9 ===== Voting Classifier =====
380 vot = VotingClassifier(estimators=[('dt', dt), ('rf', rf), ('sv', sv)], voting='hard')
381 vot.fit(X_train_scaled, y_train_l)
382 y_pred = vot.predict(X_test_scaled)
383
384 # Calculate FPR for no 53 class only
385 fpr_vot, tpr_vot, _ = roc_curve(y_test_l, y_pred, pos_label=1, drop_intermediate=False)
386 43
387 roc_auc_vot = auc(fpr_vot, tpr_vot) 3
388 print("Accuracy score: {}".format(accuracy_score(y_test_l, y_pred)))
389 print("F1 Score: {}".format(f1_score(y_test_l, y_pred, average='micro'))))
390 print("AUC score: {}".format(roc_auc_vot))
391
392 # Predict using adversarial test samples
393 y_pred_adv = vot.predict(X_adv)
394 fpr_vot_adv, tpr_vot_adv, _ = roc_curve(y_test_l, y_pred_adv, pos_label=1, \
    drop_intermediate=False)
395 roc_auc_vot_adv = auc(fpr_vot_adv, tpr_vot_adv) 3
396 print("Accuracy score adversarial: {}".format(accuracy_score(y_test_l, y_pred_adv)))
397 print("F1 Score adversarial: {}".format(f1_score(y_test_l, y_pred_adv, average='micro'))))
398 print("AUC score adversarial: {}".format(roc_auc_vot_adv))
399
400 plt.figure()
401 1 = 2
402 plt.plot(fpr_vot, tpr_vot, color='darkorange', lw=lw, label="ROC Curve (area = %0.2f)" % \
    roc_auc_vot)
403 plt.plot(fpr_vot_adv, tpr_vot_adv, color='green', lw=lw, label="ROC Curve adv. (area = \
    %0.2f)" % roc_auc_vot_adv)
404 plt.plot([0, 1], [0, 1], color='navy', lw=lw, linestyle='--')
405 plt.xlim([0.0, 1.0])
406 plt.ylim([0.0, 1.05])
407 plt.xlabel("False Positive Rate")
408 plt.ylabel("True Positive Rate")
409 plt.title("ROC Voting (class=Normal)")
```

```

410 plt.legend(loc="lower right")
411 plt.savefig('ROC_Vot.png', bbox_inches = "tight")
412 print()
413
414 # Print overall ROC curves [46]
415 plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
416 plt.plot(fpr_dt_adv, tpr_dt_adv, label = 'DT (area = %0.2f)' % roc_auc_dt_adv)
417 plt.plot(fpr_rf_adv, tpr_rf_adv, label = 'RF (area = %0.2f)' % roc_auc_rf_adv) [43]
418 plt.plot(fpr_sv_adv, tpr_sv_adv, label = 'SVM (area = %0.2f)' % roc_auc_sv_adv)
419 plt.plot(fpr_vot_adv, tpr_vot_adv, label = 'Vot (area = %0.2f)' % roc_auc_vot_adv)
420
421 plt.xlabel('False positive rate')
422 plt.ylabel('True positive rate')
423 plt.title('ROC curve (adversarial samples)')
424 plt.legend(loc = 'best')
425 plt.savefig('ROC_curves_adv.png', bbox_inches = "tight")
426
427
428 # ROC curves for normal samples [52]
429 plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
430 plt.plot(fpr_dt, tpr_dt, label = 'DT (area = %0.2f)' % roc_auc_dt)
431 plt.plot(fpr_rf, tpr_rf, label = 'RF (area = %0.2f)' % roc_auc_rf) [46]
432 plt.plot(fpr_sv, tpr_sv, label = 'SVM (area = %0.2f)' % roc_auc_sv)
433 plt.plot(fpr_vot, tpr_vot, label = 'Vot (area = %0.2f)' % roc_auc_vot)
434
435 plt.xlabel('False positive rate')
436 plt.ylabel('True positive rate')
437 plt.title('ROC curve (normal samples)')
438 plt.legend(loc = 'best')
439 plt.savefig('ROC_curves.png', bbox_inches = "tight")
440 print()
441
442 # Adversarial Feature Statistics [2]
443 print("===== Adversarial Feature Statistics =====")
444
445 feats = dict()
446 total = 0
447 g_attack = X_test_scaled - X_adv
448 for i in range(0, orig_attack.shape[0]): [58]
449     ind = np.where(orig_attack[i, :] != 0)[0]
450     total += len(ind)
451     for j in ind:
452         if j in feats:
453             feats[j] += 1
454         else:
455             feats[j] = 1
456
457 # The number of features that where changed for the adversarial samples
458 print("Number of unique features changed with JSMA: {}".format(len(feats.keys())))
459 print("Number of average features changed per datapoint with JSMA: {}".format(total/len(orig_attack)))
460
461 top_10 = sorted(feats, key=feats.get, reverse=True)[:10]
462 top_20 = sorted(feats, key=feats.get, reverse=True)[:20]
463 print("Top ten features: ", X_test.columns[top_10])
464
465 top_10_val = [100*feats[k] / y_test.shape[0] for k in top_10]
466 top_20_val = [100*feats[k] / y_test.shape[0] for k in top_20]
467
468 plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
469 plt.bar(np.arange(20), top_20_val, align='center')
470 plt.xticks(np.arange(20), X_test.columns[top_20], rotation='vertical')
471 plt.title('Feature participation in adversarial examples')
472 plt.ylabel('Percentage (%)')
473 plt.xlabel('Features')
474 plt.savefig('Adv_features.png', bbox_inches = "tight")
475

```

```

12
475 # Craft adversarial examples using Fast Gradient Sign Method (FGSM)
476 fgsm = FastGradientMethod(models, sess=sess)
477 fgsm_params = {'eps': 0.3}
478 adv_x_f = fgsm.generate(x, **fgsm_params)
479 # adv_x_f = tf.stop_gradient(adv_x_f)
480 X_test_adv, = batch_eval(sess, [x], [adv_x_f], [X_test_scaled])
481
482 # Evaluate accuracy
483 eval_par = {'batch_size': FLAGS.batch_size}
484 accuracy = model_eval(sess, x, y, predictions, X_test_adv, y_test, args=eval_par)
485 print("Test accuracy on adversarial examples: {}".format(accuracy))
486
487 # Comparison of adversarial and original test samples (attack)
488 feats = dict()
489 total = 0
490 orig_attack = X_test_scaled - X_test_adv
491
58
492 for i in range(0, orig_attack.shape[0]):
493     ind = np.where(orig_attack[i, :] != 0)[0]
494     total += len(ind)
495     for j in ind:
496         if j in feats:
497             feats[j] += 1
498         else:
499             feats[j] = 1
500
501 # The number of features that where changed for the adversarial samples
502 print("Number of unique features changed with FGSM: {}".format(len(feats.keys())))
503 print("Number of average features changed per datapoint with FGSM: {}".format(total/len(\
    orig_attack)))

```

Bibliography

- [Ateniese 2015] Mancini L.V. Spognardi A. Villani A. Vitali D. Ateniese G. et G. Felici. *Hacking smart machines with smarter ones: How to extract meaningful data from machine learning classifiers.* International Journal of Security and Networks 10(3), 137–150, 2015.
- [Bhuyan 2014] Bhattacharyya D.K. Bhuyan M.H. et J.K Kalita. *Network anomaly detection: methods, systems and tools.* IEEE communications surveys tutorials 16(1), 303–336, 2014.
- [Biggio 2012] Nelson B. Biggio B. et P. Laskov. *Poisoning attacks against support vector machines.* arXiv preprint arXiv:1206.6389, 2012.
- [Biggio 2013] Corona I. Maiorca D. Nelson B. Srndić N. Laskov P. Giacinto G. and Roli F. Biggio B. *Evasion attacks against machine learning at test time.* Joint European Conference on Machine Learning and Knowledge Discovery in Databases, 2013.
- [Biggio 2014] Fumera G. Biggio B. et F. Roli. *Security evaluation of pattern classifiers under attack.* IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering 26(4), 984–996, 2014.
- [Brugger 2007] S. T. Brugger et J. Chow. *An assessment of the darpa ids evaluation dataset using snort.* UCDAVIS department of Computer Science 1(2007), 22, 2007.
- [Chuvakin 2012] Schmidt K. Chuvakin A. et C. Phillips. *Logging and log management: The authoritative guide to understanding the concepts surrounding logging and log management.* Newnes, 2012.
- [Goodfellow 2014a] Shlens J. Goodfellow I. J. et C. Szegedy. *Explaining and harnessing adversarial examples.* arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6572, 2014.
- [Goodfellow 2014b] Shlens J. Goodfellow I. J. et C. Szegedy. *Explaining and harnessing adversarial examples.* arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6572, 2014.
- [Huang 2011] Joseph A. D. Nelson B. Rubinstein B. I. Huang L. et J. Tygar. *Adversarial machine learning.* Proceedings of the 4th ACM workshop on Security and artificial intelligence, ACM, pp. 43–58, 2011.
- [KDD | KDD. *KDD Cup 1999 Data.* <http://kdd.ics.uci.edu/databases/kddcup99/kddcup99.html>.

- [Kurakin 2016] Goodfellow I. Kurakin A. et S. Bengio. *Adversarial examples in the physical world.* arXiv preprint arXiv:1607.02533, 2016.
- [Maria Rigaki 2017] Ahmed Elragal Maria Rigaki. *Adversarial Deep Learning Against Intrusion Detection Classifiers.* ST-152 Workshop on Intelligent Autonomous Agents for Cyber Defence and Resilience, 2017.
- [McHugh 2000] J. McHugh. *Testing intrusion detection systems: a critique of the 1998 and 1999 darpa intrusion detection system evaluations as performed by lincoln laboratory.* ACM Transactions on Information and System Security (TISSEC) 3(4), 262–294, 2000.
- [Milenkoski 2015] Vieira M. Kounev S. Avritzer A. Milenkoski A. et B.D. Payne. *Evaluating computer intrusion detection systems: A survey of common practices.* ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR) 48(1), 12, 2015.
- [Nguyen 2015a] Yosinski J. Nguyen A. et J. Clune. *Deep neural networks are easily fooled: High confidence predictions for unrecognizable images.* Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, 2015.
- [Nguyen 2015b] Yosinski J. Nguyen A. et J. Clune. *Deep neural networks are easily fooled: High confidence predictions for unrecognizable images.* Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pp. 427-436, 2015.
- [NSL-KDD] NSL-KDD. *NSL-KDD Dataset.* <http://www.unb.ca/cic/research/datasets/ns1.html>.
- [Papernot 2016a] McDaniel P. Papernot N. et I. Goodfellow. *Transferability in machine learning: from phenomena to black-box attacks using adversarial samples.* arXiv preprint arXiv:1605.07277, 2016.
- [Papernot 2016b] McDaniel P. Goodfellow I. Jha S. Celik Z. B. Papernot N. et A. Swami. *Practical black-box attacks against deep learning systems using adversarial examples.* arXiv preprint arXiv: 1602.02697, 2016.
- [Papernot 2016c] McDaniel P. Jha S. Fredrikson M. Celik Z.B. Papernot N. et A. Swami. *The limitations of deep learning in adversarial settings.* Security and Privacy (Euro SP), 2016 IEEE European Symposium on, IEEE, pp. 372–387, 2016.
- [Sommer 2010a] R. Sommer et V. Paxson. *Outside the closed world: On using machine learning for network intrusion detection.* 2010 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP), IEEE, pp. 305–316, 2010.
- [Sommer 2010b] R. Sommer et V. Paxson. *Outside the closed world: On using machine learning for network intrusion detection.* 2010 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP), IEEE, p. 305–316, 2010.
- [Szegedy 2013a] Zaremba W. Sutskever I. Bruna J. Erhan D. Goodfellow I. Szegedy C. et R. Fergus. *Intriguing properties of neural networks.* arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.6199, 2013.

- [Szegedy 2013b] Zaremba W. Sutskever I. Bruna J. Erhan D. Goodfellow I. and Fergus R. Szegedy C. *Intriguing properties of neural networks.* arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.6199, 2013.
- [Tavallae 2009a] ¹⁰ Bagheri E. Lu W. Tavallae M. et A. A. Ghorbani. *A detailed analysis of the kdd cup 99 data set.* Computational Intelligence for Security and Defense Applications, 2009. CISDA 2009. IEEE Symposium on, IEEE, pp. 1–6, 2009.
- [Tavallae 2009b] ¹⁰ Bagheri E. Lu W. Tavallae M. et A. A. Ghorbani. *A detailed analysis of the kdd cup 99 data set.* Computational Intelligence for Security and Defense Applications, 2009. CISDA 2009. IEEE Symposium on IEEE, pp. 1–6., 2009.
- [Vom Brocke 2009] ³⁶ Simons A. Niehaves B. Riemer K. Plattfaut R. Cleven A. et al. Vom Brocke J. *Reconstructing the giant: On the importance of rigour in documenting the literature search process.* ECIS, Vol. 9, pp. 2206–2217, 2009.
- [Xiao 2015] ²³ Biggio B. Nelson B. Xiao H. Eckert C. Xiao H. et F. Roli. *Support vector machines under adversarial label contamination.* Neurocomputing 160, 53–62, 2015.

28%

SIMILARITY INDEX

22%

INTERNET SOURCES

19%

PUBLICATIONS

21%STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1**www.wildcardconsulting.dk**

Internet Source

2%**2****arxiv.org**

Internet Source

2%**3****Submitted to Bournemouth University**

Student Paper

1%**4****Submitted to Banaras Hindu University**

Student Paper

1%**5****export.arxiv.org**

Internet Source

1%**6****docs.mipro-proceedings.com**

Internet Source

1%**7****www.stats.ox.ac.uk**

Internet Source

1%**8****faculty.salisbury.edu**

Internet Source

1%**9****open.library.ubc.ca**

Internet Source

1%

10	www.ijcaonline.org Internet Source	1 %
11	Dipanjan Sarkar, Raghav Bali, Tushar Sharma. "Practical Machine Learning with Python", Springer Nature, 2018 Publication	1 %
12	Zheng Wang. "Deep Learning Based Intrusion Detection With Adversaries", IEEE Access, 2018 Publication	1 %
13	www.mjret.in Internet Source	1 %
14	Submitted to The University of Memphis Student Paper	<1 %
15	hal.archives-ouvertes.fr Internet Source	<1 %
16	brahma.top Internet Source	<1 %
17	"Mobile and Wireless Technology 2018", Springer Nature, 2019 Publication	<1 %
18	George Clark, Michael Doran, William Glisson. "A Malicious Attack on the Machine Learning Policy of a Robotic System", 2018 17th IEEE International Conference On Trust, Security	<1 %

And Privacy In Computing And
Communications/ 12th IEEE International
Conference On Big Data Science And
Engineering (TrustCom/BigDataSE), 2018

Publication

- | | | |
|----|---|------|
| 19 | www.qou.edu
Internet Source | <1 % |
| 20 | Submitted to De Montfort University
Student Paper | <1 % |
| 21 | media.proquest.com
Internet Source | <1 % |
| 22 | twiki.ph.rhul.ac.uk
Internet Source | <1 % |
| 23 | "ECML PKDD 2018 Workshops", Springer
Nature, 2019
Publication | <1 % |
| 24 | www.aungz.com
Internet Source | <1 % |
| 25 | www.campus020.com
Internet Source | <1 % |
| 26 | citeseerx.ist.psu.edu
Internet Source | <1 % |
| 27 | www.groundai.com
Internet Source | <1 % |

28	Submitted to UT, Dallas Student Paper	<1 %
29	Submitted to University of Bristol Student Paper	<1 %
30	Sangeeta Bhattacharya, Subramanian Selvakumar. "LAWRA: a layered wrapper feature selection approach for network attack detection", Security and Communication Networks, 2015 Publication	<1 %
31	Zheng Wang. "Deep Learning-Based Intrusion Detection With Adversaries", IEEE Access, 2018 Publication	<1 %
32	Submitted to National College of Ireland Student Paper	<1 %
33	www.bansalonsecurity.com Internet Source	<1 %
34	www.docstoc.com Internet Source	<1 %
35	Bostani, Hamid, and Mansour Sheikhan. "Hybrid of binary gravitational search algorithm and mutual information for feature selection in intrusion detection systems", Soft Computing, 2015. Publication	<1 %

36	unipub.lib.uni-corvinus.hu Internet Source	<1 %
37	www.diology.com Internet Source	<1 %
38	Submitted to Imperial College of Science, Technology and Medicine Student Paper	<1 %
39	www.dpi.ufv.br Internet Source	<1 %
40	Submitted to University of Florida Student Paper	<1 %
41	Submitted to Manchester Metropolitan University Student Paper	<1 %
42	Navin Kumar Manaswi. "Deep Learning with Applications Using Python", Springer Nature, 2018 Publication	<1 %
43	Manohar Swamynathan. "Mastering Machine Learning with Python in Six Steps", Springer Nature, 2017 Publication	<1 %
44	Submitted to University of Hertfordshire Student Paper	<1 %

45	Internet Source	<1 %
46	azure.microsoft.com Internet Source	<1 %
47	research-repository.st-andrews.ac.uk Internet Source	<1 %
48	Submitted to Deakin University Student Paper	<1 %
49	Submitted to Yonsei University Student Paper	<1 %
50	Submitted to Mercy College Student Paper	<1 %
51	Guanqiu Qi, Wei-Tek Tsai, Wu Li, Zhiqin Zhu, Yong Luo. "A cloud-based triage log analysis and recovery framework", Simulation Modelling Practice and Theory, 2017 Publication	<1 %
52	Submitted to University College London Student Paper	<1 %
53	www.procrastist.com Internet Source	<1 %
54	Submitted to University of Teesside Student Paper	<1 %
55	Om, Hari, and Alok Gupta. "Feature Selection	

and Decision Tree: A Combinational Approach for Intrusion Detection", Case Studies in Secure Computing, 2014.

Publication

<1 %

56

hkiceas.org

Internet Source

<1 %

57

innovate.ee.ucla.edu

Internet Source

<1 %

58

Andreas François Vermeulen. "Practical Data Science", Springer Nature, 2018

Publication

<1 %

59

www.mnddc.org

Internet Source

<1 %

60

Submitted to University of Southern California

Student Paper

<1 %

61

Submitted to Croydon College

Student Paper

<1 %

62

www.ias.ac.in

Internet Source

<1 %

63

www.scipublish.com

Internet Source

<1 %

64

Submitted to University of Greenwich

Student Paper

<1 %

65

Submitted to University of Warwick

Student Paper

<1 %

66	brage.bibsys.no Internet Source	<1 %
67	eprints.ums.edu.my Internet Source	<1 %
68	trustable.ai Internet Source	<1 %
69	Submitted to National University of Singapore Student Paper	<1 %
70	Submitted to British Institute of Technology and E-commerce Student Paper	<1 %
71	Chu-Hsing Lin, Jung-Chun Liu, Chia-Han Ho. "Anomaly Detection Using LibSVM Training Tools", 2008 International Conference on Information Security and Assurance (isa 2008), 2008 Publication	<1 %
72	Submitted to University of Edinburgh Student Paper	<1 %
73	Kevric, Jasmin, Samed Jukic, and Abdulhamit Subasi. "An effective combining classifier approach using tree algorithms for network intrusion detection", Neural Computing and Applications, 2016. Publication	<1 %

74	Submitted to Lebanese American University Student Paper	<1 %
75	Srinivas, Suraj, Ravi Kiran Sarvadevabhatla, Konda Reddy Mopuri, Nikita Prabhu, Srinivas S. S. Kruthiventi, and R. Venkatesh Babu. "A Taxonomy of Deep Convolutional Neural Nets for Computer Vision", Frontiers in Robotics and AI, 2016. Publication	<1 %
76	Submitted to King's College Student Paper	<1 %
77	Jojo Moolayil. "Learn Keras for Deep Neural Networks", Springer Nature, 2019 Publication	<1 %
78	Submitted to Associate K.U.Leuven Student Paper	<1 %
79	www.cs.utexas.edu Internet Source	<1 %
80	www.coursehero.com Internet Source	<1 %
81	www.cleverhans.io Internet Source	<1 %
82	repositorio.uam.es Internet Source	<1 %

- 83 Nicolas Papernot, Patrick McDaniel, Ian Goodfellow, Somesh Jha, Z. Berkay Celik, Ananthram Swami. "Practical Black-Box Attacks against Machine Learning", Proceedings of the 2017 ACM on Asia Conference on Computer and Communications Security - ASIA CCS '17, 2017
Publication <1 %
- 84 d-nb.info Internet Source <1 %
- 85 www.softcomputing.net Internet Source <1 %
- 86 code.ulb.ac.be Internet Source <1 %
- 87 www.birpublications.org Internet Source <1 %
- 88 datasciencecelatam.com Internet Source <1 %
- 89 Communications in Computer and Information Science, 2014. Publication <1 %
- 90 "Computational Science and Technology", Springer Nature, 2019 Publication <1 %
- 91 De la Hoz, Eduardo, Emiro De La Hoz, Andrés

- Ortiz, Julio Ortega, and Beatriz Prieto. "PCA filtering and probabilistic SOM for network intrusion detection", Neurocomputing, 2015. <1 %
Publication
-
- 92 www.cs.ucla.edu <1 %
Internet Source
-
- 93 Submitted to Xianjiatong-Liverpool University <1 %
Student Paper
-
- 94 Umberto Michelucci. "Applied Deep Learning", Springer Nature America, Inc, 2018 <1 %
Publication
-
- 95 Adnan Masood, Adnan Hashmi. "Cognitive Computing Recipes", Springer Nature, 2019 <1 %
Publication
-
- 96 En Cheng. "Network-Based Anomaly Detection Using an Elman Network", Lecture Notes in Computer Science, 2005 <1 %
Publication
-
- 97 www.aclweb.org <1 %
Internet Source
-
- 98 chewitt.me <1 %
Internet Source
-
- 99 bengio.abracadoudou.com <1 %
Internet Source
-
- 100 Chi-Hsuan Huang, Tsung-Han Lee, Lin-huang

Chang, Jhih-Ren Lin, Gwoboa Horng. "Chapter 17 Adversarial Attacks on SDN-Based Deep Learning IDS System", Springer Nature America, Inc, 2019

Publication

<1 %

101 www.science.gov <1 %
Internet Source

102 www.lib.umd.edu <1 %
Internet Source

103 manualzz.com <1 %
Internet Source

104 pdfs.semanticscholar.org <1 %
Internet Source

105 Ali A. Ghorbani, Wei Lu, Mahbod Tavallaee. "Network Intrusion Detection and Prevention", Springer Nature, 2010 <1 %
Publication

106 www.patrickmcdaniel.org <1 %
Internet Source

107 "Computer Vision – ECCV 2018", Springer Nature America, Inc, 2018 <1 %
Publication

108 Yu-Xin Meng. "The practice on using machine learning for network anomaly intrusion detection", 2011 International Conference on <1 %

Machine Learning and Cybernetics, 2011

Publication

- 109 Taghi M. Khoshgoftaar. "Indirect classification approaches: a comparative study in network intrusion detection", International Journal of Computer Applications in Technology, 2006 <1 %
Publication
-
- 110 "Automated Technology for Verification and Analysis", Springer Nature, 2017 <1 %
Publication
-
- 111 "Neural Information Processing", Springer Nature, 2017 <1 %
Publication
-
- 112 Lecture Notes in Computer Science, 2008. <1 %
Publication
-
- 113 Tarfa Hamed, Jason B. Ernst, Stefan C. Kremer. "Chapter 2 A Survey and Taxonomy of Classifiers of Intrusion Detection Systems", Springer Nature, 2018 <1 %
Publication
-

Exclude quotes

Off

Exclude matches

Off

Exclude bibliography

Off

btp

PAGE 1

PAGE 2

PAGE 3

PAGE 4

PAGE 5

PAGE 6

PAGE 7

PAGE 8

PAGE 9

PAGE 10

PAGE 11

PAGE 12

PAGE 13

PAGE 14

PAGE 15

PAGE 16

PAGE 17

PAGE 18

PAGE 19

PAGE 20

PAGE 21

PAGE 22

PAGE 23

PAGE 24

PAGE 25

PAGE 26

PAGE 27

PAGE 28

PAGE 29

PAGE 30

PAGE 31

PAGE 32

PAGE 33

PAGE 34

PAGE 35

PAGE 36

PAGE 37

PAGE 38

PAGE 39

PAGE 40

PAGE 41

PAGE 42

PAGE 43

PAGE 44

PAGE 45

PAGE 46
