

Exploring a Service-Based Normal Behaviour Profiling System for Botnet Detection

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Abstract—Effective detection of botnet traffic becomes difficult as the attackers use encrypted payload and dynamically changing port numbers (protocols) to bypass signature based detection and deep packet inspection. In this paper, we build a normal profiling-based botnet detection system using three unsupervised learning algorithms on service-based flow-based data, including self-organizing map, local outlier, and k -NN outlier factors. Evaluations on publicly available botnet data sets show that the proposed system could reach up to 91% detection rate with a false alarm rate of 5%.

I. INTRODUCTION

The convenient and rapid Internet access not only facilitates many Internet services, but also accelerates the spreading of malicious software and making the detection efforts very difficult. One type of malicious software that takes the advantage of the Internet is a botnet, which spreads itself to other machines (via e-mail, OS vulnerabilities, etc), conducts resource-exhaustion attacks like such as Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) and steals user data. The detection on network traffic is critical in preventing botnet spreading, but has some challenges. One of those challenges is the existence of encrypted normal traffic, including encrypted web services such as social media (Facebook, Twitter) and VoIP (Voice over IP). Consequently, botnets can hide their payload characteristic by encryption. Furthermore, dynamic ports and change of protocols enable botnets to bypass signature-based firewalls and intrusion detection systems (IDS). For robust detection systems, several [1] [2] [3] flow-based botnet detection approaches have been proposed without packet payload information.

The analysis on known botnets shows that they have varying network access patterns, including single-packet information (e.g. layer-4 protocol) and flow-based statistical information (e.g. numbers of packets per flow). Moreover, some botnets have specific purposes that could be customized by the owners and are unconventional. Thus, anomaly based IDS on the normal traffic behaviors attract more attention from researchers [4] [5] to detect both known and unknown botnets.

In this paper, we employ three unsupervised learning algorithms namely self-organizing map (SOM), local outlier factor (LOF), and k -NN outlier (k -NN Outlier) factor to build a normal behaviour profiling system for detecting and analyzing

different botnet behaviours. SOM provides visualization of the clustering distribution in two-dimensional space. LOF and k -NN Outlier algorithms are two instance based clustering algorithms that are shown to work well in the literature [6] [7] anomaly detection which also uses only normal behaviour for training as our proposed system. In our proposed approach, the normal traffic data are separated by services to build service-specific sub-detectors, and the botnet detection is conducted by these sub-detectors. Our evaluations on publicly available normal and botnet traffic data sets show that the proposed system achieves over 91% for detection rate.

The rest of paper is organized as follows. The related work is summarized in Section II. The system framework and unsupervised algorithms are introduced in Section III. Section IV presents the experiments and results. Finally, conclusions are drawn and the future work is discussed in Section V.

II. RELATED WORK

Many researches have been conducted in botnet detection. Gu *et al.* in [1] demonstrated a botnet detection framework called BotMiner, which used A-Plane to monitor system logs to detect host-based attacks and the C-Plane to monitor the network traffic to detect network-based attacks. The system was tested on IRC, HTTP and P2P botnet traffic and had 75%-100% detection rate and less than 0.03% false positive rate. Feily *et al.* [8] surveyed botnet behaviours and detection techniques, and classified them to four categories: signature-based, anomaly-based, DNS-based, and mining-based. Zhang *et al.* [9] focused on two botnet mechanisms: Fast Flux and Domain Flux, while they are not flow-based. Mai and Park compared three unsupervised learning algorithms based on network flows [2]. The best detection rate of 97.11% was achieved by K-means learning algorithm. However, the false alarm rate was not given. Yin *et al.* [10] investigated neural network and genetic algorithms for botnet detection using their own captured flow-based data set. They reported a detection rate of 95.7% and false alarm rate of 4.3%. Al-Jarrah *et al.* proposed a system based on data randomization and cluster-based partitioning [11]. They achieved the best detection rate of 99.42% on the ISOT benchmark data set. Haddadi *et al.* proposed different aspects of their flow based botnet detection system using supervised learning algorithms [3].

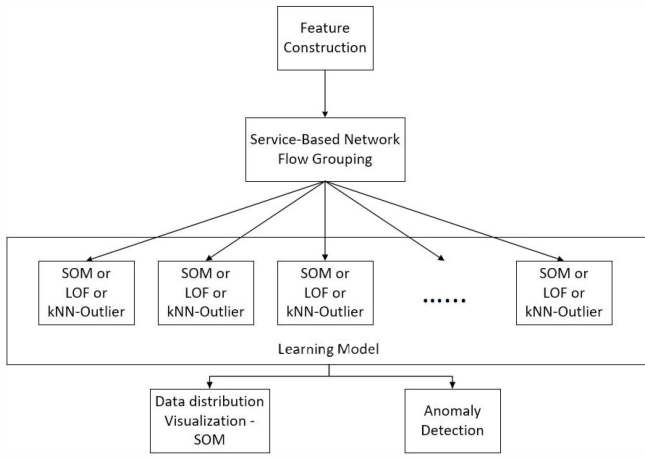


Fig. 1. Service-Based Normal Behaviour Profiling System framework

They achieved detection rates up to 100% with low false alarm rates. Liu *et al.* proposed an anomaly detection system named ‘Opprentice’ by making use of supervised learning algorithms and KPI features [12].

In summary, to the best of our knowledge, none of the above works have tested normal behaviour profiling using unsupervised learning algorithms and service based construction on network traffic flow data.

III. SYSTEM FRAMEWORK AND LEARNING ALGORITHMS

Figure 1 shows the service-based normal behaviour profiling system for botnet detection, which has three components: (i) feature construction; (ii) model building and learning; (iii) data visualization and anomaly detection. In the feature construction component, all the traffic flows¹ are grouped by the destination port numbers. For example, normal traffic to destination port 53 is typically a DNS request. This type of traffic is different from the network flows with the destination port number 80, i.e. HTTP requests. Hence, all the flows are put into 13 groups (detailed in following). In the proposed system, each group has its specified sub-detector. Sub-detectors are constructed based on one of the unsupervised learning algorithms, which are detailed in the following subsections.

Note that the proposed system uses only normal traffic flows in the training phase, that is why it is a normal behaviour profiling system. In this work, we aim to explore how far we can push an unsupervised learning system towards botnet detection without using any attack traffic during the training phase.

In our approach, the boundaries (in the clustering/grouping of data) are used to differentiate botnet traffic from normal traffic. Boundaries are based on the distribution of normal traffic. They represent the threshold of the distance from normal clustering/grouping in unsupervised learning algorithms. When testing the model on unforeseen traffic flows, if the

new flow is within the boundary, it is classified as normal, otherwise as suspicious (attack).

A. Self-organizing map (SOM)

Self-organizing map is an unsupervised clustering algorithm proposed by Kohonen [14]. SOM has been widely used for intrusion detection [15], [16], [17]. One of the advantages of SOM is the reduction and visualization to two-dimensional plane of the multidimensional input data.

SOM has three training steps: sampling, similarity matching, updating. These three steps are repeated until the map converges (or reaches the defined epochs). Each neuron i has a d -dimensional weight vector $W_i = \{W_{i1}, W_{i2}, \dots, W_{id}\}$. Given X as a d -dimensional input sample vector, the algorithm is described as the following:

- Initialization: Choose random values to initialize all the weight vectors $W_i(0), i = [1, M] \cap \mathbb{Z}$ where M is the total number of neurons in the self-organizing map.
- Sampling: Choose a sample data X from the input space following an order (e.g., randomized before sampling).
- Similarity Matching: For each sample X , find the best matching unit (BMU), i.e. winner neuron of X , denoted here by b . The BMU is the neuron to X with minimum Euclidean distance, at time step n (n_{th} training iteration), Eq. 1.

$$b = \arg \min_i \|X - W_i(n)\|, i = [1, M] \cap \mathbb{Z} \quad (1)$$

- Updating: Adjust weight vectors of all neurons, Eq. 2.

$$W_i(n+1) = W_i(n) + \eta(n)h_{b,i}(n)(X - W_i(n)) \quad (2)$$

Where $\eta(n)$ denotes the learning rate of the n_{th} training iteration and $h_{b,i}(n)$ is the selected neighbourhood kernel function centred on the winner neuron for SOM.

- Continuation: Continue until the SOM map converges or reached the defined maximum training epochs N .

In this work, we used a 10x10 SOM for each sub-detector and linked distance as the neighbourhood kernel function. The outlier factor from SOM is a weighted sum denoted by the distance to the first, second, and third BMUs, Eq 3.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SOF}(A) = & \|A - W_{\text{BMU}}(n)\| \\ & + 0.5 \times \|A - W_{\text{BMU-2nd}}(n)\| \\ & + 0.3 \times \|A - W_{\text{BMU-3rd}}(n)\| \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

B. Local outlier factor (LOF)

LOF is an unsupervised learning algorithm that detects outliers in a given data set. LOF is proposed by Breunig *et al.* [18] and has been used for intrusion detection in the literature [6] [7]. LOF works by first calculating the local reachability density of an instance A to its k_{th} nearest neighbours $N_k(A)$ using Eq. 4.

$$\text{lrd}(A) = 1 / \frac{\sum_{B \in N_k(A)} \text{reachableDist}_k(A, B)}{|N_k(A)|} \quad (4)$$

¹Traffic flow is defined as a logical equivalent for a call or a connection in association with a user specified group of elements [13]. The most common way to identify a traffic flow is to classify the 5-tuple from the packet header.

The reachable distance $\text{reachableDist}_k(A, B)$ is calculated using Eq. 5, where $\text{kDist}(B)$ is the distance of B to its k_{th} neighbour and $d(A, B)$ is the distance between A and B .

$$\text{reachableDist}_k(A, B) = \max\{\text{kDist}(B), d(A, B)\} \quad (5)$$

The LOF is computed with the local reachability density of an instance A and that of its neighbours using Eq. 6.

$$\text{LOF}(A) = \frac{\sum_{B \in N_k(A)} \text{lrd}(B)}{|N_k(A)|} / \text{lrd}(A) \quad (6)$$

The larger LOF means the higher probability of being an outlier. In this work, k is set to 3 (empirically) in the tests.

C. k -NN outlier

The k -NN outlier is an instance-based unsupervised learning algorithm with the concept of k -nearest-neighbour (KNN). It was first introduced by Ramaswamy *et al.* [19] for mining outliers from large data sets. The outlier uses the the distance of an instance to the k_{th} neighbour, calculated according to Eq. 7, where $\text{kDist}(A)$ is the distance of instance A to the k_{th} neighbour.

$$\text{KOF}(A) = \text{kDist}(A) \quad (7)$$

If an instance has large kNN value, it is likely to be an outlier. k -NN outlier has been evaluated for intrusion detection in the literature [7]. To be consistent with LOF, k is set to 3 in the following experiments.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL SETUPS AND RESULTS

We evaluated the proposed system based on the aforementioned unsupervised learning algorithms using CTU-13 data sets. These were captured at CTU and made publicly available [20].

A. CTU-13 data set

CTU-13 has 13 different datasets, each one is specified for a botnet, and in total 7 botnet malwares are analysed [21]. The botnet activities include email spam, click fraud, and DDoS. CTU labelled the traffic as: Background, Botnet, C&C Channels and Normal. In our work, the most frequent 11 destination port numbers are used to group the TCP/UDP flows, and the rest of the TCP/UDP and ICMP flows are grouped into two additional groups, respectively. Table I summarizes of the traffic flows based on different services using destination port numbers.

B. Feature preprocessing

We select 8 out of 14 features from the CTU-13 data set that are listed in Table II. They are regarded as basic features. Additionally, we introduce eight new derived features.

Based on the numerical distribution of features, such as duration, we observed that most flows have shorter duration than 350 seconds. However, there are still some flows with extremely long duration more than 3000 seconds.

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF THE DATA SETS BASED ON DIFFERENT NETWORK SERVICES

	Port number	IANA registered	# of normal flows	# of botnet flows
TCP/UDP	53	✓	222,516	145,920
	80	✓	100,495	26,546
	443	✓	21,331	34,268
	27015		2,325	2
	123	✓	1,406	49
	27016		358	0
	27017		286	1
	27031		266	1
	5222	✓	184	0
	8950		178	0
	27018		170	0
	Others	-	3,316	122,912
ICMP	-	-	3,292	114,997

TABLE II
FEATURES OF CTU-13 DATA

Features	Description
Duration	Duration of the connection in seconds
Protocol	Type of the protocol (TCP, UDP, ICMP)
DPort	The port of the connection destination
dTos	Type of Service from destination to source
SrcBytes	Total bytes from source to destination
TotBytes	Total bytes of the flow
TotPkts	Total packets of the flow
Dir	Direction of the flow
Derived Features	
BytesPerPkt	Average bytes per packet
SrcBytesRatioPerFlow	Ratio of SrcBytes within TotBytes
Duration ¹	Minimal value of Duration and threshold
Duration ²	Log value of Duration
TotBytes ¹	Minimal value of TotBytes and threshold
TotBytes ²	Log value of TotBytes
SrcBytes ¹	Minimal value of SrcBytes the threshold
SrcBytes ²	Log value of SrcBytes
TotPkts ¹	Minimal value of TotPkts the threshold
TotPkts ²	Log value of TotPkts

In order to emphasize the differences in durations after the normalization, instead of the original duration (Duration^O), we derived two features (Duration^1 and Duration^2). The derived features are calculated using Eq. 8 and 9. Eq. 8 aims to present the long durations using a threshold (Duration^T). On the other hand, Eq. 9 aims to show the differences of those short durations.

$$\text{Duration}^1 = \min(\text{Duration}^O, \text{Duration}^T) \quad (8)$$

$$\text{Duration}^2 = \log(\text{Duration}^O) \quad (9)$$

We used a similar approach to derive new features to represent: total bytes, total packets, and source bytes.

C. Traffic distribution for different services

After training the SOM map using the normal traffic data, we used U-Matrixes and Hit Histograms of SOM models to visualize the data distributions of different services. Generally, port 80 and 443 are ports associated with web traffic. Port 443 is associated with HTTPS, which is the secure (encrypted) HTTP protocol over TLS/SSL, and Port 80 is associated with

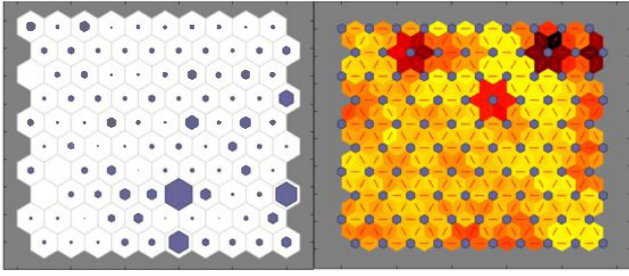


Fig. 2. Value Distribution of Durations for the traffic on Port 443

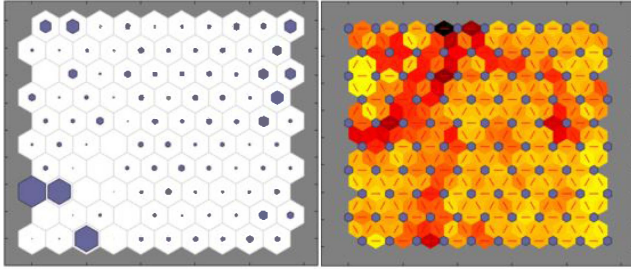


Fig. 3. Value Distribution of Durations for the traffic on Port 80

unencrypted HTTP traffic. Fig. 2 and 3 show the U-Matrix on port 443 and 80. The lighter the colour of the hexagon becomes, the shorter the distance is.

Based on the U-Matrixes and the hit histograms, we can see that the distribution of the traffic on port 443 and port 80 are different. The fact that flows for Port 443 (HTTPS) is more centred. It supports the assumption that different types of normal traffic flows behave differently. The different behaviors might be caused by the different amount of data and durations in the traffic flows.

D. Outlier decision boundary calculation

The assumption of this work is that botnet (malicious) traffic flows vary from different normal traffic flows. Moreover, we assume that botnet flows are *outliers* compared to the normal traffic flows. The three unsupervised learning algorithms provided an outlier factor. Hence we need to identify an outlier decision boundary, which can be selected based on the distribution of the normal traffic.

In particular, the instances in the boundary are regarded as normal (in our prediction), otherwise as suspicious traffic, i.e. potential attacks to report to the system administrators. We use a naïve decision boundary calculation based on outlier factors in normal training data. With a training set of normal traffic for a specific service ($Normal_t$), the outlier factor value (OfV) is calculated for each normal traffic instance (flow). Then, the decision boundary value is set to the value of the β_{OF} percentile of the outlier factor values of all normal traffic flows during training. For example, if β_{OF} is set as 85%, then 15% of normal (training) traffic flows are regarded as false positives. The algorithm which is used to calculate the outlier decision boundary (DecBV), is given in Fig. 4.

In our work, the SOM outlier factor of instance i is the

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1: procedure OFTHRESHOLD_CAL( $Normal_t, \beta_{OF}$ )
2:    $i \leftarrow 0$ 
3:   Calculate outlier factor value for each traffic based on
     three different learning algorithms
4:   while  $i \leq |Normal_t|$  do
5:      $OfV[i] \leftarrow SOF(Normal_t[i])$  ▷ SOM
6:     or
7:      $OfV[i] \leftarrow LOF(Normal_t[i])$  ▷ LOF
8:     or
9:      $OfV[i] \leftarrow KOF(Normal_t[i])$  ▷  $k$ NN
10:     $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
11:   $DecBV \leftarrow \beta_{OF}$  percentile of sorted  $OfV[1...|Normal_t|]$ 
12:  The sorting order is ascending.
13:  return DecBV

```

Fig. 4. Algorithm for the outlier factor threshold calculation

weighted sum of distances to its first, second, and third BMUs, as Eq. 3. The weights are 1, 0.5, and 0.3, respectively. For the LOF and k -NN, the outlier factors are from Eq. 6 and 7, respectively.

Note that our proposed approach is service-based, the value DecBV varies for each service group of flows.

E. Botnet detection results and discussion

In our evaluations, we used 70% of the normal flows for training and the remaining 30% of the normal flows and all botnet flows for testing. We did not use the flows labelled as “Background” traffic, given that the ground truth for those flows are unknown. We use the metrics of false positive rate (FPR) and detection rate (DR) to evaluate the performance of the proposed system according to Eq. 10 and 11.

$$FPR = \frac{\text{Number of Normal Detected as Attack}}{\text{Total Number of Normal Connections}} \quad (10)$$

$$DR = \frac{\text{Number of Detected Attacks}}{\text{Total Number of Attack Connections}} \quad (11)$$

In this work, we experimented with the β_{OF} value from 1% to 15%. Table III and IV shows the DR and FPR results of all three learning algorithms given different values of β_{OF} based on with and without derived features. Based on these results, k -NN outlier performs better than others in both scenarios. Without derived features, the detection rate is much lower, although the false positive rates are similar. With derived features, the proposed system achieved around 91% of detection rate with 5% false alarm rate (given that it is a normal profiling system).

As our proposed system is service-based normal profiling, we also investigate the performance on each service-based group. Fig. 5-10 show the performances of three unsupervised algorithms on different services where there is botnet traffic in the testing sets. It shows that all algorithms perform well on ICMP traffic flows, with approximately 100% detection rate and about 1% false positive rate. The detection rate of the botnet flows on port 80 and 53 does not increase with higher β_{OF} value. We assume that the reason behind is that the

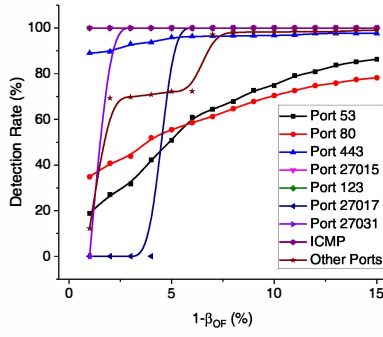


Fig. 5. Detection rates of SOM outlier

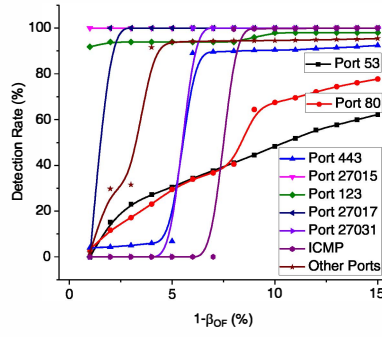


Fig. 6. Detection rates of LOF outlier

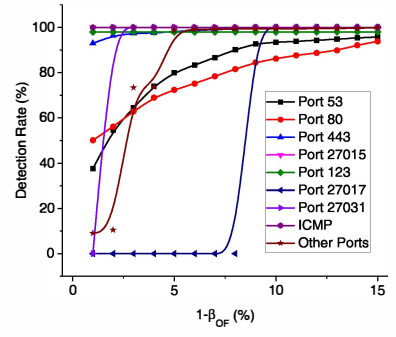


Fig. 7. Detection rates of k NN outlier

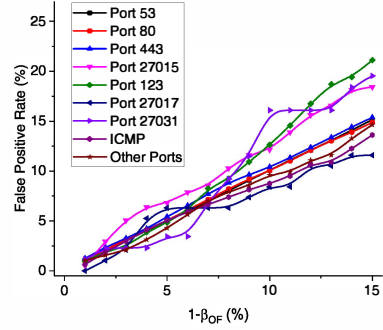


Fig. 8. False positive rates of SOM outlier

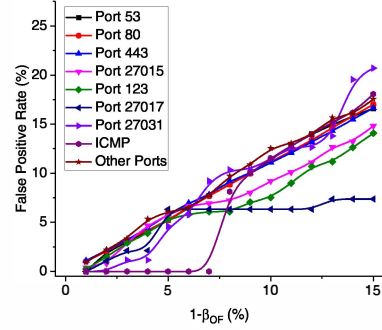


Fig. 9. False positive rates of LOF outlier

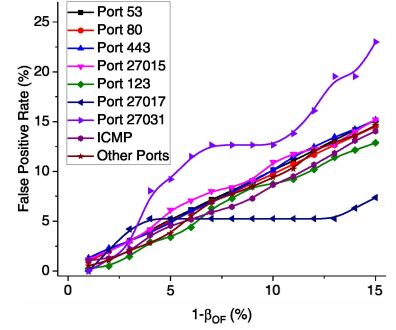


Fig. 10. False positive rates of k NN outlier

TABLE III
OVERALL EVALUATION RESULTS WITHOUT DERIVED FEATURES

$\beta_{OF}(\%)$	SOM		LOF		k -NN Outlier	
	DR	FPR	DR	FPR	DR	FPR
15	78.9	15.2	61.6	16.8	75.5	15.0
14	77.6	14.2	60.8	15.7	75.0	14.0
13	76.5	13.2	60.0	14.6	73.3	13.0
12	75.8	12.2	57.2	13.4	64.5	12.0
11	73.9	11.2	55.6	12.1	64.0	11.0
10	72.6	10.2	54.0	11.0	63.7	10.1
9	46.6	9.1	52.8	9.7	63.1	9.0
8	44.7	8.1	51.0	8.6	62.5	8.1
7	42.9	7.0	24.0	7.3	61.6	7.1
6	41.4	6.0	22.5	6.2	60.4	6.0
5	40.0	5.1	20.8	5.1	59.3	5.0
4	37.8	4.1	18.7	4.1	57.3	4.0
3	36.5	3.1	15.8	3.1	51.7	3.0
2	36.1	2.2	12.3	2.0	47.7	2.0
1	33.3	1.1	6.9	0.3	40.9	1.0

TABLE IV
OVERALL EVALUATION RESULTS WITH DERIVED FEATURES

$\beta_{OF}(\%)$	SOM		LOF		k -NN Outlier	
	DR	FPR	DR	FPR	DR	FPR
15	93.8	15.2	84.4	16.7	98.2	15.0
14	93.3	14.1	83.5	15.8	97.9	14.0
13	92.6	13.2	82.6	14.8	97.6	13.0
12	91.6	12.2	81.6	13.7	97.3	12.0
11	90.9	11.2	80.1	12.6	97.1	11.0
10	89.2	10.2	78.8	11.3	96.8	10.0
9	88.4	9.2	77.3	10.2	96.5	9.0
8	86.5	8.1	74.7	8.9	95.4	8.0
7	84.9	7.1	47.5	7.6	94.1	7.1
6	76.7	6.1	46.2	6.5	92.7	6.1
5	73.2	5.1	38.3	5.3	91.3	5.1
4	69.6	4.1	36.1	4.1	82.1	4.1
3	65.3	3.1	17.7	3.1	78.6	3.1
2	63.2	2.1	14.2	2.0	57.5	2.1
1	44.3	1.1	1.0	0.4	50.8	1.0

traffic flows destined to these two port numbers (80 and 53) are sparser than the others. Moreover, k -NN outlier performs the best in this case, on destination port 80 (HTTP) and 53 (DNS) compared to the other two algorithms. On ports 27015, 27017, and 27031, although there are only one or two (see Table I) botnet traffic flows in the test data set, our proposed system is still able to detect this one to two flows under very unbalanced (normal to attack) conditions. In these cases, the detection rate raised to 100% when the false positive rate was around 7% to 8%. Based on the overall results on the CTU-13 dataset, k -NN Outlier performs better than the other two algorithms in general. However, SOM performs better on the traffic of

some specific port number, such as 27017. This implies that the combination of the algorithms might return better results. The investigation of other unsupervised algorithms and the combinations of the algorithms are left for future work.

V. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this research, we explored three unsupervised learning algorithms: SOM, LOF and k -NN outlier for service-based botnet detection using normal behaviour profiling. Data sets from CTU-13 have been used to evaluate the proposed system. The overall results show that k -NN outlier performs better than the others. Moreover, SOM provided the advantage of

visualization of data distribution with the SOM U-matrix and hit-histogram.

The detection rates and false alarm rates on CTU-13 data sets showed that without any *a priori* knowledge of the botnet attacks, *k*-NN achieves over 91% detection rate with around 5% false alarm rate. These results show that the derived features we propose seem to improve the performance.

In this work, a naïve decision boundary calculation method is used. For the future work, we plan to employ more robust and adaptive functions to calculate the decision boundary based on the overall distribution of the normal behaviours. The proposed normal profiling system has shown promising performances on 13 different datasets (over 90% detection rate with very low false alarm rates) to detect new suspicious behaviors. Even better performances can be gained by combining this system with supervised learning algorithms when there are known anomalies in the traffic. In the future, we also aim to evaluate the system on other traffic datasets, such as SimpleWeb SSH datasets [22] [23] and extend the proposed system to other anomaly detection tasks, as normal profiling is a robust and practical approach for anomaly detection without positive samples.

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