國 立 交 通 大 學

電信工程學系碩士班

碩 士 論 文

متقللان 針對掃描式蠕蟲做準確偵測之 適應性接續假設測試 minim

Adaptive Sequential Hypothesis Testing for Accurate

Detection of Scanning Worms

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中 華 民 國 九 十 八 年 六 月

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中文摘要

早期偵測掃描式蠕蟲的技術,是建立在惡意行為的主機具有較高掃描率的基 磁上。此種方法對於秘密的掃描並不適用,且一旦發出警告的掃描率門檻被攻擊 者所知悉,便能輕易躲過這種偵測。為了克服這樣的問題,「接續假設測試」便 成為一種替代方案。這種方法所需要觀測連線嘗試結果的次數較少,從這個角度 看來,它比起基於掃描率的方法,可以更快偵測出掃描式蠕蟲。然而,接續假設 測試的方法,對於正常主機與惡意行為主機的第一次連線嘗試的成功機率相當敏 感。如果事前不知道此機率,誤判率可能會比理想值高出許多。在這篇論文中, 我們提出一個簡單的適應性演算法,可以準確地估計出這些機率。實驗結果顯 示,我們提出的適應性估計演算法,對於原本的接續假設性測試法有很大的改 善,因為它使原本對於偵測掃描式蠕蟲的方法更加健全完善。

Adaptive Sequential Hypothesis Testing for Accurate Detection of Scanning Worms

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Abstract

Early detction techniques of scaning worms are based on simple observations of high port/address scanning rates of malicious hosts. Such apporaches are not able to 8 第 第 2 2 2 detect stealthy scanners and can be easily evaded once the threshold of scanning rate for generating alerts is known to the attackers. To overcome this problem, sequential hypothesis testing was developed as an alternative detection technique. It was found that the technique based on sequential hypothesis testing can detect scanning worms faster than those based on scanning rates in the sense that it needs fewer observations for the outcomes of connection attempts. However, the performance of the detection technique based on sequential hypothesis testing is sensitve to the probabilities of success for the first-contact connection attempts sent by benign and malicious hosts. The false positive and false negative probabilities could be much larger than the desired values if these probabilities are not known. In this paper, we presnt a simple adpative algorithm which provides accurate estimates of these probabilities. Numerical results show that the proposed adaptive estimation algorithm is an important enhancement of sequential hypothesis testing because it makes the technique robust for detection of scanning worms.

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Chapter 1.

Introduction

The rapid advances of computer and network technologies allow modern computer worms to spread at a speed much faster than human-mediated responses. The Code Red [6], Nimda [7], and Slammer [8] that were detected in recent years infected hundreds of thousands of computers on the Internet in a very short period of time and caused huge economic loss to our society. Fast and accurate detection of worms as they are spreading is, therefore, very important to prevent the majority of vulnerable systems from being infected and minimize the damage.

Current computer worm detection technologies can be classified into three categories, namely, protocol analysis, pattern matching, and behavior anomaly. Protocol analysis is a technique which examines the header of a packet to ensure there is no misuse of protocol fields. For example, the OID field of an SNMP packet should be a certain number of bytes. There is something wrong (say, an overflow attack) if the next expected field does not appear after this number of bytes. Pattern matching is a technique of looking for specific patterns in the

payload of a packet or across packets. A specific unique pattern or string of malicious codes can be extracted as the signature of a worm and be used in the detection process. Although pattern matching is accurate, it is limited to known worms with identified signatures. The majority of vulnerable systems could be infected if the signature of a new worm is not created quickly. Finally, behavior anomaly can be used to detect and prevent the outbreak of an attack because an infected host is likely to behave differently from a normal host. As an example, a host infected by some scanning worm may try to infect other vulnerable hosts on the Internet with port/address scanning. Therefore, one can detect an infected host with the observation of high new connection attempt rate or high failure ratio of first-contact connection attempts [1]. Worm detection based on behavior anomaly is receiving more and more attention because it can detect the so-called "zero-day" attacks and polymorphous worms without signatures.

Early behavior anomaly based scanning worm detection techniques were designed according to simple observations of high scanning rate by an infected host. For example, the criterion used in the Network Security Monitor (NSM) [5] is to detect any source IP address which connects to more than *M* distinct destination IP addresses within a given time window *T*. Snort [4] uses similar

rules. It detects a source IP address which sends connection attempts to more than *U* number of ports or *V* number of IP addresses within *S* seconds. An obvious drawback of such approaches is that an attacker can easily evade detection once the parameter values are known.

The authors of [1] observed from real traces that the failure probability of a connection attempt sent by an infected or malicious host is much higher than that of a connection attempt sent by a benign host. As a result, the technique of sequential hypothesis testing was developed for scanning worm detection. Their algorithm is called Threshold Random Walk (TRW). A failed (or successful) connection attempt causes the random walk to move upward (respectively, downward). A host is declared as malicious if the position of its corresponding random walk is greater than the upper threshold or as benign if it is smaller than the lower threshold. The step size of moving upward could be different from the step size of moving downward. Compared with previous detection techniques, the TRW algorithm is able to detect stealthy scanning and the detection process is fast in the sense that it need only observe a few connection attempts. A simplified algorithm which is suitable for both software and hardware implementations was presented in [3]. In this simplification, the step sizes of

moving upward and downward are identical. The reversed sequential hypothesis testing presented in [2] can detect malicious scanners faster than the TRW algorithm. However, it slightly increases the false positive probability. The TRW algorithm, its simplified version, and the reverse sequential hypothesis testing will be reviewed in Chapter 3.

A fundamental assumption of the TRW algorithm is that the success probabilities of connection attempts sent by malicious and benign hosts are known. These probabilities are used to compute the step sizes of moving upward and downward. Unfortunately, this assumption may not be valid in a real system. In this paper, we investigate the effect of using estimated probabilities to the false positive and the false negative probabilities. Results show that the performance of the TRW algorithm is sensitive to the estimated probabilities. The false positive and false negative probabilities could be significantly larger than the desired values if inaccurate estimates are used. In order to make TRW works properly, we develop an adaptive algorithm which estimates the success probabilities of connection attempts based on their outcomes. According to simulation results, our proposed adaptive algorithm provides estimates of success probabilities close to the real values and, therefore, the false positive and false

negative probabilities are also close to the desired values.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Chapter 2, we introduce some background about scanning worms and type I and type II errors. In Chapter 3, we review the TRW algorithm, its simplified version, and the reversed sequential hypothesis testing. In Chapter 4, we present our proposed adaptive algorithm for estimation of success probabilities of connection attempts. Experimental results are provided in Chapter 5. Finally, we draw conclusion in Chapter 6.

Chapter 2.

Background

2.1 Scanning worms

Computer worms are malicious software applications designed to spread via computer networks without human intervention. Scanning worms locate vulnerable hosts by generating a list of addresses to probe and then contact them. They can self-propagate among the hosts exploiting security or policy flaws in widely-used services [11]. An infected host initiates scans and infects the other \overline{u} benign hosts. Subsequently, the benign hosts may be infected and then join the army of scanning. Finally, more and more hosts on the Internet will be infected.

The list of addresses can be generated sequentially or pseudo-randomly. Local addresses are often preferentially selected because the communication between neighboring hosts will likely encounter fewer defenses [12]. Scans may take the form of TCP connection requests (SYN packets) or UDP packets. In the case of the connectionless UDP protocol, it is possible for the scanning

packet to also contain the body of the worm, such as the Slammer worms [8].

Scanning worms probe attempts to determine if a service is operating at a target IP address and then discover new victims. They have two basic scanning types – horizontal scans and vertical scans. The former look for an identical service on a large number of hosts, and the latter examine an individual host to discover all running services.

There are many kinds of techniques to generate a list of addresses for scanning worms, such as linear scanning of an IP address space (Blaster), fully random (Code Red), a bias toward local address (Code Red II and Nimda), or even more enhanced techniques (Permutation Scanning). While more and more \overline{u} scanning worms change their style of scanning to avoid being detected, all of them still have two common properties as follows. *Most of the scanning attempts may result in failure, and the infected hosts will send many connection attempts* [3]. As long as we look for a class of behavior rather than specific worm signatures, most of the new worms will be detected.

2.2 Type I and type II errors

In statistics, the terms Type I error (α error, or false positive) and type II error (β error, or a false negative) are used to describe possible errors made in a statistical decision process.

Type I error: the error of rejecting a null hypothesis when it is actually true. Plainly speaking, it occurs when we are observing a difference when in truth there is none.

Type II error: the error of failing to reject a null hypothesis when it is in fact not true. In other words, this is the error of failing to observe a difference when in truth there is one. $u_{\rm H111}$

Table 1 illustrates the ambiguity, which is one of the dangers of this wider use: They assume the speaker is testing for *guilt*; they could also be used in reverse, as testing for innocence; or two tests could be involved, one for guilt, the other for innocence. Table 2 illustrates the conditions we use in this paper.

Table 1: Definition of false positive and false negative

When a host is determined to be malicious or benign, it's possible to make an error, such as regarding a benign host as malicious one or regarding a malicious host as benign one. We hope that the scan detection mechanism can distinguish between malicious and benign hosts as precisely as possible. In other words, we hope the probability of false positive and false negative is as less as possible. In this paper, we use the false positive probability and false negative probability to judge whether an algorithm is suitable for the scan detection.

Chapter 3. Related Works

In the TRW algorithm, an event is generated and monitored when a remote source *r* makes a first-contact connection (FCC) request to a local destination *l*. An FCC request is a connection request which is addressed to a host the sender has not previously communicated. For simplicity, only TCP connections are considered and thus a TCP SYN packet indicates a connection request. The outcome of an FCC request is classified as either a "success" or a "failure". It is a success if host *l* replies a SYN-ACK packet or a failure if host *l* replies a RST packet or does not reply at all. When extended to UDP connections, the first UDP packet from *r* to *l* can be used to indicate a connection request and any UDP packet from *l* to *r* before timeout can be considered as successful establishment of the connection.

For a given remote host r , let X_i be a random variable that represents the outcome of the FCC request from *r* to the i^{th} distinct local host l_i , where

$$
X_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if the FCC request is a success} \\ 1 & \text{if the FCC request is a failure} \end{cases}
$$

The outcomes of X_1, X_2, \ldots , are observed so that host *r* can be determined to be either malicious or benign. There are two hypotheses: H_0 and H_1 , where H_0 is the null hypothesis that the remote host *r* is benign and H_1 is the hypothesis that *r* is malicious. To simplify the analysis, it is assumed that, conditioning on hypothesis H_j , the random variables $X_1 | H_j$, $X_2 | H_j$, ... are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) with probability mass function

$$
P[X_i = 0 | H_0] = \theta_0 \qquad P[X_i = 1 | H_0] = 1 - \theta_0
$$

\n
$$
P[X_i = 0 | H_1] = \theta_1 \qquad P[X_i = 1 | H_1] = 1 - \theta_1
$$

for some θ_0 and θ_1 which satisfy $\theta_0 > \theta_1$.

Given the two hypotheses, there are four possible decisions. The decision is called a *detection* if the algorithm selects H_1 when H_1 is true. On the other hand, it is called a *false negative* if the algorithm chooses H_0 when H_1 is true. Likewise, when H_0 is true, selecting H_1 constitutes a *false positive* and

selecting H_0 is called a *normal*. These four possible outcomes are represented as:

Detection: P[choose H₁ is true] =
$$
P_{DT}
$$

\n*False Negative*: P[choose H₀ | H₁ is true] = P_{FN} = 1- P_{DT}
\n*False Positive*: P[choose H₁ | H₀ is true] = P_{FP}
\n*Normal*: P[choose H₀ | H₀ is true] = P_{NM} = 1- P_{FP}

The desired performance of the TRW algorithm can be specified with the detection probability P_{DT} and the false positive probability P_{FP} . Let α represent the upper bound of false positive probability and β denote the lower bound of detection probability. In other words, we desire $P_{FP} \leq \alpha$ and $P_{DT} \geq \beta$

where typical values might be $\alpha = 0.01$ and $\beta = 0.99$.

As the outcome of X_i is observed, we calculate the likelihood ratio:

$$
\Lambda(\mathbf{X}_n) \equiv \frac{\mathbf{P}[\mathbf{X}_n | \mathbf{H}_1]}{\mathbf{P}[\mathbf{X}_n | \mathbf{H}_0]} = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\mathbf{P}[X_i | \mathbf{H}_1]}{\mathbf{P}[X_i | \mathbf{H}_0]}
$$

where $\mathbf{X}_n = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ is the vector of outcomes observed so far.

Note that $\Lambda(\mathbf{X}_n)$ can be updated incrementally. Let $\phi(X_i)$ represent the likelihood ratio of the ith observation. It holds that

$$
\Lambda(\mathbf{X}_{n}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \phi(X_{i}) = \Lambda(\mathbf{X}_{n-1})\phi(X_{n}), \quad \Lambda(\mathbf{X}_{0}) = 1
$$

The updated likelihood ratio $\Lambda(\mathbf{X}_n)$ is compared with an upper threshold η_1 and a lower threshold η_0 . If $\Lambda(\mathbf{X}_n) \ge \eta_1$, then hypothesis H_1 is accepted. If $\Lambda(\mathbf{X}_n) \le \eta_0$, then hypothesis H_0 is accepted. More observations are needed if $\eta_0 < \Lambda(\mathbf{X_n}) < \eta_1$.

It can be shown that $\eta_1 \le P_{DT} / P_{FP}$ and $\eta_0 \ge (1 - P_{DT}) (1 - P_{FP})$ [9]. In real implementations, one can use the approximations $P_{FP} = \alpha$, $P_{DT} = \beta$ and set $\eta_1 = \beta/\alpha$ and $\eta_0 = (1 - \beta)/(1 - \alpha)$. Moreover, the log-likelihood ratio can be used to simplify computation.

The huge complexity of monitoring FCC requests of all remote hosts makes the TRW algorithm infeasible. In [3], a simplified version which uses one bit to indicate whether or not host *r* has sent any packet to host *l* and another bit for the opposite direction for a given connection that is determined by the remote IP address, local IP address, source port, destination port, and protocol ID. A hash function is adopted to reduce the space requirement. As a tradeoff, the false

negative probability is slightly increased. The step sizes of moving upward and downward are both set to one in the simplified version.

It is possible that a remote host is infected when its likelihood ratio is close to but larger than η_0 . In this case, it needs more observations for the TRW algorithm to declare the host to be malicious than doing so for a host who is infected when its likelihood ratio is equal to 1. The reversed sequential hypothesis testing proposed in [2] computes the likelihood ratio for the reversed vector of outcomes $\overline{\mathbf{X}}_n = (X_n, \dots, X_n)$ observed so far. For this algorithm, the likelihood ratio can be easily updated according to $\overline{\Lambda} (\mathbf{X}_n) = max(1, \overline{\Lambda} (\mathbf{X}_{n-1}) \phi(\mathbf{X}_n))$ with $\overline{\Lambda} (\mathbf{X}_0) = 1$. It can detect malicious hosts slightly faster than the TRW algorithm. However, it increases the false negative probability and does not detect benign hosts.

As mentioned before, the TRW algorithm assumes that θ_0 and θ_1 are known, which may not be true in a real network. According to the numerical results to be presented in Chapter 5, the false positive and false negative probabilities of the TRW algorithm could be much larger than the desired values if the adopted θ_0 and θ_1 are different from their true values. To overcome this problem, we propose in the next chapter an adaptive algorithm to estimate the

values of θ_0 and θ_1 based on observations of the outcomes of FCC requests.

Chapter 4.

Adaptive Sequential Hypothesis Testing

Our proposed adaptive sequential hypothesis testing provides estimates of θ_0 and θ_1 adaptively based on observations of the outcomes of FCC requests. We will consider only the estimation procedure of θ_0 . The estimation procedure for θ_1 is similar.

 The basic idea of our proposed estimation procedure is as follows. An estimate of θ_0 , denoted by $\hat{\theta}_0$, is generated when the total number of remote hosts that are detected as benign is greater than or equal to *K*, where *K* is a design parameter. Let S_i and F_i represent, respectively, the numbers of successful and failed FCC requests sent by r_i when it is detected as benign. Furthermore,

let $N_i = S_i + F_i$. The estimate of θ_0 is given by $\hat{\theta}_0 = \frac{\sum_i S_i}{N}$ *i i S N* $\ddot{\theta}_0 =$ ∑ $\sum_{i=1}^{i} N_i$, for all *i* such that r_i

is detected as benign.

In the beginning, we need a data structure as shown in Table 3. When a remote host *r* makes an FCC request to a local destination, its likelihood ratio is updated according to the outcome, i.e., success or fail, of the FCC. If the FCC request is classified as success, S_i of $Hash(r)$ is increased by one, where *Hash(r)* represents the hash result of IP address r . On the contrary, if the FCC request is classified as fail, F_i of $Hash(r)$ is increased by one.

Hash(r)	$\Lambda(\mathbf{X}_n)$	\boldsymbol{S}	\pmb{F}_i
611	5.545177		$\overline{2}$
849	6.415920		4
965	-4.674434	3	
1540	-5.361835	896	2
\ddotsc	\cdots	\ddotsc	\ddotsc

Table 3: Data structure of the adaptive sequential hypothesis testing algorithm.

The remote host *r* is detected as benign if its likelihood ratio is lower than threshold η_0 . On the other hand, if its likelihood ratio is higher than threshold η_1 , the remote host *r* is declared as malicious. Once remote host *r* is decided as benign or malicious, the corresponding S_i and F_i values are added to the data structure shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Data structure for updating $\hat{\theta}_0$ and $\hat{\theta}_1$.

The estimates of θ_0 and θ_1 are obtained from Table 2. Initially, we set $\hat{\theta}_0 = 0.55$ and $\hat{\theta}_1 = 0.45$. Note that choosing a small value for $\hat{\theta}_0$ and a large value for $\hat{\theta}_1$ (as we did here) require more time to classify a remote host as benign or malicious. However, it achieves better accuracy and thus is worthwhile to sacrifice the decision time. In our design, $\hat{\theta}_0$ and $\hat{\theta}_1$ are updated for the first time when a total of *K* remote hosts are decided as benign or malicious, respectively. Based on ordered statistics [10], for a group of benign remote hosts which issue FCC requests randomly to local hosts, the first few hosts that are detected as benign tend to have zero or very few failed FCC requests. Similarly, the first few malicious remote hosts that are detected as malicious tend to have zero or very few successful FCC requests. Consequently, the estimates may largely deviate from the real values if we set $K = 1$. In general, a large value of

K provides better accuracy but longer detection time. We select $K = 10$ in our experiments presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 5.

Experimental Results

In this chapter, we present simulation results for the TRW algorithm (with known θ and unknown θ) and our proposed adaptive sequential hypothesis testing algorithm. The desired false positive and false negative probabilities are both set to 0.01. In other words, we choose $\alpha = 0.01$ and $\beta = 0.99$ in our experiments. Simulations are performed for 900 benign hosts and 100 malicious hosts. The probabilities of success for an FCC request generated by a benign host or a malicious host are equal to θ_0 and θ_1 , respectively. We performed simulations for different values of θ_0 and θ_1 .

Figure 1 and Figure 2 compare, respectively, the false positive and false negative probabilities of the TRW algorithm with or without knowing θ_0 and θ_1 and our proposed adaptive algorithm, for various values of θ_0 and θ_1 . We assume that $\theta_0 = 0.8$ and $\theta_1 = 0.2$ are used for the TRW algorithm without knowing θ_0 and θ_1 . As one can see, the false positive and false negative probabilities are very low for the TRW algorithm with perfect knowledge of θ_0

and θ_1 . However, without knowing the real values of θ_0 and θ_1 , its false positive and false negative probabilities of TRW could be much greater than the desired values when θ_0 is small and θ_1 is large (say, $\theta_0 = 0.6$ and $\theta_1 = 0.4$). The reason is that the step size of moving upward using $\hat{\theta}_0 = 0.8$ and $\hat{\theta}_1 = 0.2$ is significantly larger than the step size of moving upward using $\theta_0 = 0.6$ and $\theta_1 = 0.4$. Using our proposed scheme (i.e., Adaptive SHT), the false positive and false negative probabilities are almost lower than 5% for all cases (except for $\theta_0 = 0.55$ and $\theta_1 = 0.45$). The results are close to the desired values because the estimates of θ_0 and θ_1 in our proposed scheme are quite accurate (as Table 5 shows). Note that in our proposed scheme, the false positive probabilities are larger than false negative probabilities when θ_0 is large and θ_1 is small. This is because the number of benign hosts is much larger than the number of malicious hosts. As a result, $\hat{\theta}_0$ is updated much earlier than $\hat{\theta}_1$. As mentioned before, the earlier detected benign hosts tend to have many more successful FCC requests than failed ones. This implies $\hat{\theta}_0$ tends to be larger than the real value which makes it easier to detect a remote host as benign.

Figure 2: Comparison of false negative probabilities.

θ_0	0.95	0.90	0.85	0.80	0.75	0.70	0.65	0.60	0.55
θ_{1}	0.05	0.10	0.15	0.20	0.25	0.30	0.35	0.40	0.45
$\hat{\theta}_0$	0.9499	0.9001	0.8500	0.8002	0.7502	0.7004	0.6505	0.6006	0.5502
$\hat{\theta}_1$	0.0529	0.1041	0.1559	0.2064	0.2598	0.3150	0.3718	0.4327	0.4934

Table 5: Estimates of θ_0 and θ_1 for the proposed adaptive algorithm.

Table 6 and Table 7 show, respectively, the average number of FCC requests sent by a remote host to be detected as benign or malicious. The TRW algorithm with unknown θ_0 and θ_1 is fast in making a decision because the large step sizes. Unfortunately, as illustrated in Figures 1 and 2, its false positive and false negative probabilities are not satisfactory. The average number of FCC requests for our proposed adaptive algorithm are comparable to those for the TRW algorithm with known θ_0 and. Let $\hat{\theta}$ and $\hat{\theta}$ ^t be two successive estimates of θ. One can stop updating $\hat{\theta}$ if $\|\hat{\theta} - \hat{\theta}\| < \varepsilon$ for a given ε to speed up the detection time. In other words, the time spent to obtain a stable estimate of θ can be regarded as the period of training. Of course, to adapt to a changing

environment, the training procedure should be reactivated once in a while.

Table 6: The average number of FCC requests to detect a remote host as benign.

θ_{0}	95%	90%	85%	80%	75%	70%	65%	60%	55%
$\theta_{\scriptscriptstyle \!\!1}$	5%	10%	15%	20%	25%	30%	35%	40%	45%
TRW (known θ_0 and θ_1)	2.21	3.74	4.23	6.63	9.91	14.78	26.42	59.15	224.71
TRW (unknown θ_0 and θ_1)	4.45	5.01	5.71	6.63 SELLE	7.80	9.36	11.24	13.38	15.24
Adaptive_SHT	15.33	17.13	19.33	22.11	25.98	31.75	41.43	61.81	139.21
1896 mm									

Table 7: The average number of FCC requests to detect a remote host as malicious.

Chapter 6.

Conclusion

We have presented in this paper an adaptive sequential hypothesis testing algorithm for accurate detection of scanning worms. Numerical results show that our proposed adaptive algorithm provides accurate estimates of θ_0 and θ_1 and thus achieves false positive and false negative probabilities close to the desired values. The proposed adaptive estimation procedure for θ_0 and θ_1 is an important enhancement of the sequential hypothesis testing algorithm because it makes the algorithm much more robust to variation of θ_0 and θ_1 . The proposed adaptive detection algorithm is only suitable for scanning worms. How to effectively detect other types of worms remains to be further studied.

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