

# Machine Learning based Malware Traffic Detection on IoT Devices using Summarized Packet Data

Masataka Nakahara, Norihiro Okui, Yasuaki Kobayashi and Yutaka Miyake

*KDDI Research, Inc., 3-10-10, Iidabashi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo, Japan*

**Keywords:** IoT Security, Anomaly Detection, Machine Learning.

**Abstract:** As the number of IoT (Internet of Things) devices increases, the countermeasures against cyberattacks caused by IoT devices become more important. Although mechanisms to prevent malware infection to IoT devices are important, such prevention becomes hard due to sophisticated infection steps and lack of computational resource for security software in IoT devices. Therefore, detecting malware infection of devices is also important to suppress malware spread. As the types of IoT devices and malwares are increasing, advanced anomaly detection technology like machine learning is required to find malware infected devices. Because IoT devices cannot analyze own behavior by using machine learning due to limited computing resources, such analysis should be executed at gateway devices to the Internet. This paper proposes an architecture for detecting malware traffic using summarized statistical data of packets instead of whole packet information. As this proposal only uses information of amount of traffic and destination addresses for each IoT device, it can reduce the storage space taken up by data and can analyze number of IoT devices with low computational resources. We performed the malware traffic detection on proposed architecture by using machine learning algorithms of Isolation Forest and K-means clustering, and show that high accuracy can be achieved with the summarized statistical data. In the evaluation, we collected the statistical data from 26 IoT devices (9 categories), and obtained the result that the data size required for analysis is reduced over 90% with keeping high accuracy.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The number of electronic devices that can be connected to the Internet (Internet of Things) is rapidly increasing, with 8.4 billion devices to be connected by 2020 and 20.4 billion devices to be connected by 2022 (Hassija et al., 2019). While IoT devices provide useful functions in people's lives, security measures are not sufficient compared to personal computers or smartphones, which have been the main terminals connected to the Internet so far. For example, in 2016, a malware botnet consisting of 2.5 million IoT devices was constructed by Mirai, and a DDoS (Distributed Denial of Service) attack occurred. In addition, Mirai's source code has been published, and attacks by variant malwares based on it have been generated one after another.

As countermeasures for threats to IoT devices, security vendors provide various solutions. These solutions have functions for preventing infection, such as preventing intrusion attempts and preventing access to malicious sites using a blacklist. On the other hand, existing solutions have limitations. For example, in

the case of security software for a home network, it can only detect DoS attacks using TCP packets, and those using UDP cannot be detected. Also, it cannot detect communications that attempt to spread infection like host scans or communications with C&C (Command and Control) servers that give commands to infected devices. As described above, there are still many problems in detecting malware infection of IoT devices, and many studies for improving accuracy have been conducted.

One of the reasons why it is difficult to detect malware infections in IoT devices is the limitation of the processing performance of the device (Zhang et al., 2014; Nguyen et al., 2019). Conventional devices such as PCs, servers, and smartphones are well-developed with anti-virus software and intrusion detection systems (Bekerman et al., 2015; Canfora et al., 2015). On the other hand, IoT devices have low processing power, it is difficult to detect infections in real time on each device using conventional methods. Therefore, it is necessary to have a mechanism that can collect and analyze packets not by the IoT device itself but by other equipment. Therefore, packet ag-

gregation and analysis may be performed at the home gateway through which IoT device packets flow to the Internet (Nguyen et al., 2019; Santoso and Vun, 2015). However, the home gateway cannot execute high-load processing such as packet payload analysis due to restrictions on the processing performance. From the above, it is desirable to detect malware infection of IoT devices under the constraints of low load on the home gateway.

In this paper, an anomaly detection system that satisfies such requirements is proposed. The proposed system converts packets passing through the home gateway into statistical data, sends them to the analysis server, and detects anomalies at the analysis server. Sending all packets that pass through the home gateway to the analysis server, including the payload, is not realistic from the viewpoint of processing load and traffic. However, statistical data is lightweight and can be sent to the analysis server. But an issue is whether or not anomalies can be detected accurately based only on statistical data.

Therefore, in this paper, we focused on the behavior of IoT devices before and after malware infection. By learning the behavior of IoT devices before malware infection, we could detect malware traffic behavior. We then evaluated the anomaly detection performance.

The contributions of this paper are followings:

- System architecture applicable for home network anomaly detection.
- Anomaly detection using lightweight data and unsupervised algorithm.
- Experiments for various type of IoT devices and malwares.

## 2 BACKGROUND

In this section, as a background to this paper, we introduce the trend of IoT security and malware, and related works.

### 2.1 IoT Security

Currently, IoT devices are spreading rapidly and the number of devices is increasing. Compared to PCs or smartphones that have been connected to the Internet, there are many different types of IoT devices. Therefore, security measures need to be taken from various viewpoints (Zhang et al., 2014; Hassan et al., 2019). For example, in the case of a smart camera installed in the home, measures against data leakage

are important from the viewpoint of privacy protection. For devices equipped with Android OS, it is necessary to deal with Android vulnerabilities as well as software vulnerabilities. In addition, the common problem with many devices is authentication. There are many cases where passwords are broken because the password has not been changed by the user on a device that is set with a simple password at the time of shipment. And malware is considered as the biggest threat. IoT devices often have lower processing capability than existing devices, and it may not be possible to secure the resources necessary for the original processing due to the operation of malware. Also, as represented by the large-scale DDoS attack by Mirai in 2016, various types of malware are currently appearing and becoming threats. Therefore, many malware detection methods have been studied.

### 2.2 Malware

The first IoT malware was Linux.Darlloz, discovered by Symantec in 2013 (Zhang et al., 2014). Linux.Darlloz is a worm that spreads by accessing a randomly generated IP address using a list of commonly used IDs and passwords and downloading samples. Not only did Linux-based surveillance cameras become infected and privacy protection problems became apparent, but subsequently another OS-based variant such as Android also emerged, so the importance and urgency of malware countermeasures in IoT security were increased.

The most representative malware for IoT is Mirai, which appeared in 2016 (Koliass et al., 2017). Like Darlloz, Mirai uses a list of frequently used IDs and passwords to spread and construct a botnet that operates in response to commands from the C&C server. The IoT device that becomes part of the botnet receives instructions from the C&C server and conducts further infection spread and DDoS attacks. In October 2016, attacks on websites with 620Gbps traffic and attacks on cloud hosting services with 1.1Tbps traffic occurred almost simultaneously. Later, Mirai's source code was published, and variants such as Hajime also appeared. While Mirai is a centralized architecture, Hajime is a distributed architecture, making it more difficult to detect malicious behavior. As countermeasures against malware infection, manual countermeasures such as frequently changing passwords are also taken, but there are limits to the number of IoT devices that continue to increase, and many automatic countermeasures are being considered.

## 2.3 Related Works

There are two types of malware countermeasures in IoT security: a method to prevent infection and a method to detect behavior after infection. Of these, the security products for home networks are currently being distributed to prevent infection. For example, if the user tries to access a malicious site such as a malware download destination, it can be blocked. On the other hand, detection of behavior after infection is not supported by currently distributed security products. In addition, malware infection routes are diverse, and it is difficult to take countermeasures just by preventing infection, and quick detection after infection is required. Therefore, a lot of researches on behavior detection after infection are carried out.

For example, (Mizuno et al., 2017) distinguish design and malware from a HTTP header using machine learning like SVM (Support Vector Machine), Random Forest, and deep learning. In (Su et al., 2018), a DDoS attack is detected using CNN (Convolutional Neural Network) by translation binary to an 8bit sequence and gray scale image. In (Alam and Vuong, 2013), Mirai scan, affection, and attack are detected using Random Forest and Ada Boost. (Meidan et al., 2017) recognizes which IoT device sends captured data using Random Forest and GBM (Gradient Boosting Machine). Furthermore, there are many studies of anomaly detection with supervised machine learning algorithms such as (Madeira and Nunes, 2016; Hasan et al., 2019; Doshi et al., 2018; Zolanvari et al., 2019; Kumar and Lim, 2019; Ding and Fei, 2013).

As introduced above, there are many researches that analyze IoT device communication by machine learning, but most of these use overall packet or supervised learning which have anomalies in training data. On the other hand, for anomaly detection on a home network, it is difficult to use overall packets including payload because of the restriction of processing resources of the home gateway. If the user's devices were not infected by malware, the anomaly packet is not included in the training period, so unsupervised learning is required. In order to detect anomalies with unsupervised learning, we need to focus on benign packets and learn their features. IoT device behavior is relatively limited, so learning normal behavior for each device enables us to detect anomalies without a supervisor.

Considering the above, we propose an anomaly detection system for the home network under the following conditions:

- Overall packet is not used.
- Unsupervised learning is used.
- Normal behavior is learned for each device.

## 3 PROPOSED SYSTEM

This section presents the proposed system for home network anomaly detection system. Figure 1 is an overview of the proposed system.

### 3.1 Home Gateway

IoT devices are connected to the home network, and each device sends packets to the public network through the home gateway. For example, a certain camera device sends the state of the home to an external server at regular intervals, and the state of the home can be confirmed from outside through a smartphone. Separately, it has communication to confirm the presence of the firmware update. All these communications go through the home gateway, so if the home gateway has a packet monitoring function, detecting an anomaly in the behavior of IoT devices is possible.

However, as described in Section 1, it is impossible to inspect all the packets in detail on the home gateway due to resource restriction. Therefore, the proposed system aggregates statistical data of packets, and reduces the processing load of the home gateway. An example of the statistical data is shown in Table 1.

During one statistical cycle, all packets with the same source and destination MAC address, IP address, and port number are aggregated into a single record. This record is called the statistical record. In a statistical record, "count" shows the number of aggregated packets, and "length" shows the summation of the length of aggregated packets. In this example, the statistical cycle is 10 seconds. The record on the first line indicates that 294 bytes of packets are being sent in 10 seconds for one combination of source and destination. As the records in the 4th and 5th lines show, even if the statistical period is the same, if it is sent to another address or port, it will be another record.

The statistical cycle can be adjusted considering the processing load of the home gateway. The shorter the statistical cycle becomes, the more the processing load increases, but anomalies can be detected earlier. In this paper, the statistical cycle is set to 10 seconds so that attacks such as DoS and Hostscan could be detected early.

In the proposed system, these statistical packet records are sent to the analysis server in every statistical period. The analysis server detects anomalies for each received record, and if an anomaly record is found, notification is sent to the home gateway. If the home gateway receives an anomaly notification, it

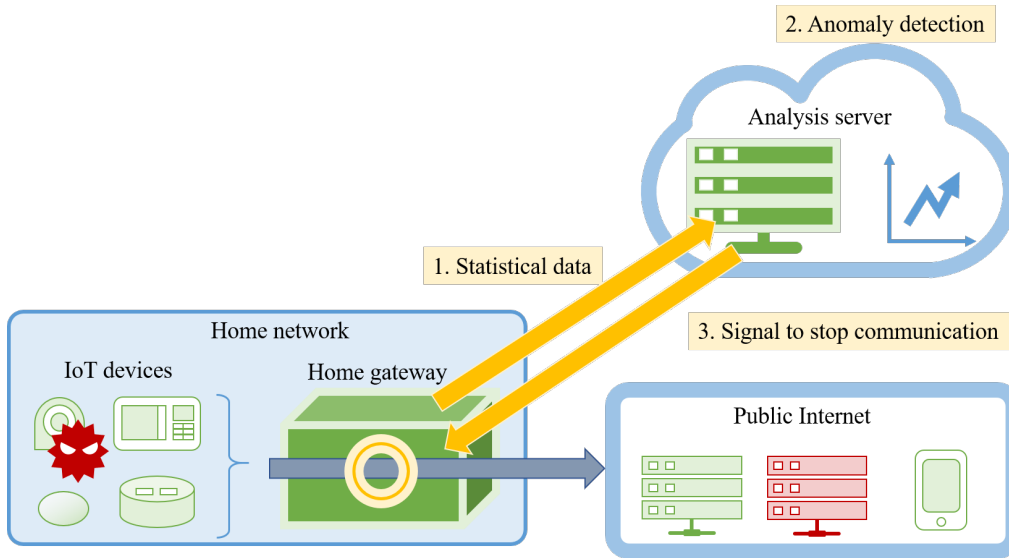


Figure 1: System model.

Table 1: An example of statistical information of packets.

Timestamp	mac_src	mac_dst	ip_src	ip_dst	port_src	port_dst	protocol	count	length
2019-06-30 15:00:10	a1:b1:c1:d1:e1:f1	a3:b3:c3:d3:e3:f3	192.168.1.121	239.255.255.xxx	48993	1900	udp	2	294
2019-06-30 15:00:10	a2:b2:c2:d2:e2:f2	a4:b4:c4:d4:e4:f4	192.168.1.122	239.255.255.yyy	48993	1900	udp	1	76
2019-06-30 15:00:10	a2:b2:c2:d2:e2:f2	a4:b4:c4:d4:e4:f4	192.168.1.122	239.255.255.yyy	8883	53612	tcp	1	91
2019-06-30 15:00:20	a2:b2:c2:d2:e2:f2	a4:b4:c4:d4:e4:f4	192.168.1.122	239.255.255.yyy	8883	53612	tcp	1	156
2019-06-30 15:00:20	a2:b2:c2:d2:e2:f2	a5:b5:c5:d5:e5:f5	192.168.1.122	239.255.255.zzz	48993	1900	udp	1	173

sends notification to the user or stops communication of the device, and so forth.

### 3.2 Analysis Server

The analysis server receives statistical data processed by the home gateway as described in Section 3.1, and detects anomaly packets. Since the analysis server is deployed outside the home network, such as in the cloud, processing with a heavy load that cannot be performed by the home gateway can be performed. Thus, we used the machine learning approach in anomaly detection on the analysis server.

For a certain period after the device is connected to the home network, the home gateway sends statistical data to the analysis server as training data. At this point, we assume that the device is not infected by malware during the training period and only the device's original communication is performed. Using training data, the analysis server learns benign communication of the device, and creates the model. Concrete features and learning algorithms are described in Section 4.

After the training period, the home gateway sends statistical data for detection, and the analysis server judges whether the received data are benign or

anomalous. If anomaly records are found, it notifies the home gateway.

## 4 DETECTION METHOD

This section presents anomaly detection on the analysis server which is described in Section 3.

### 4.1 Feature Vector

As described in Section 3, in this paper, we use machine learning for anomaly detection on the analysis server. For machine learning, we need to generate feature vectors from statistical data sent from the home gateway. In this paper, 21 dimensional features are generated from the destination IP address, number of packets, protocol, etc. included in the statistical data. Description of the features are shown in Table 2.

Thresholds of the "Num of packets" and "Length of packets" have several variations. The number of packets is below average, average+standard deviation $\sigma$ , average+2 $\sigma$ , average+3 $\sigma$ , and more than average+3 $\sigma$ . Length thresholds are set as the same.

In order to clarify the features of each record, each feature was encoded as a binary value of 0 or 1. For

Table 2: Feature vectors.

Feature	Definition
Dest IP	Destination IP address is included in dictionary data.
Dest IP (24bit)	The first 24 bit of destination IP is included in dictionary data.
Dest port	Destination port is included in dictionary data.
Dest IP&port pair	Pair of destination IP and port is included in dictionary data.
Well known port	Destination port number is below 1024.
Protocol	Protocol is TCP.
Has response	It has same source IP& port pair as destination IP& port pair.
Response count	The number of response packets is larger than the record.
Response length	The length of response packets is larger than the record.
Has similar packet	There are different packets only for the destination port or source port.
Num of packets	The number of packets is below threshold
Length of packets	The length of packets is below threshold
Outbound	It is from internal network to outside.

example, in the case of Dest IP, a method of linking one number to one address is also conceivable. However, the linked number and the address value have no relation, so it leads to erroneous learning. Therefore, we used one hot encoding with the definitions shown in Table 2.

As for Dest IP or port, we created a list of destinations during a particular period, and if the IP in one record is included in the list, Dest IP of the record is set to 1, otherwise, 0. Here, the list is called a dictionary data, and the period used to create the dictionary data is called the dictionary period. The dictionary period is different from the training term of machine learning. It is a part of the training term or a period before the training term. By using the dictionary period, it becomes possible to train considering the jitter of destination during the training term, and it contributes to reduction of the false detection rate. For example, in the case of a smart speaker, it is assumed to communicate with a new destination because of new usage even if it is a benign communication. Unless it is a dictionary period, the benign communication with the new destination can be judged as an anomaly. However, using the dictionary period, it becomes possible to learn the communication with the new destination as benign behavior because there are both communications that are included in the dictionary data and that are not included during the training term. Thus we adopted the dictionary period for generating features.

## 4.2 Classifier

Based on the features generated above, the analysis sever distinguishes between benign and anomalous statistical records. One method adopted in this paper is Isolation Forest. Isolation Forest builds an ensemble of trees for a given data set, then anomalies are detected as instances which have short average path

lengths on the trees (Liu et al., 2008). The depth of the trees means the number of partitions required to separate instances. Anomaly instances should be far from other instances, so a smaller number of partitions is needed and path length on the tree is short. Isolation Forest focuses on the property whereby anomalies have attribute-values that are very different from those of normal instances. Therefore, it matches our approach that creates a model from the normal behavior of IoT devices.

Isolation Forest can detect anomaly from test data even if anomaly data is not included in the training term. Other algorithms need anomaly data in the training term because they classify test data based on classes that appeared in the training term. Furthermore, as Isolation Forest works at high speed, we adopted Isolation Forest in this paper.

Isolation Forest has the following parameters: the sub-sampling size and the number of trees. According to (Liu et al., 2008), even if the number of trees were larger than 10, average path length means the anomaly score would not greatly change, so we set the numbers of trees as 10. As for the sub-sampling size, we used 10, 50, 90 and 100% of each of the statistical records. As a result, the case of 90% showed the best performance, so the results shown on following session is those of 90%.

## 4.3 Clustering

As for unsupervised learning, clustering is still one of the popular algorithms for classification tasks. Clustering groups similar data into partitions which are called clusters and several algorithms are proposed. We selected K-Means clustering (MacQueen et al., 1967) which is one of the most popular clustering methods and applied it to anomaly detection.

In the training phase, clusters of normal data are created from train data which contains only benign



data. Since packet contents differ from device to device, cluster configurations such as the size of each cluster or the number of clusters also differ from device to device. The training phase is shown in Figure 2.

In the case of K-Means, the number of clusters is needed to set as a parameter before the training of K-Means and we use silhouette score (Rousseeuw, 1987) to determine the best number of clusters.

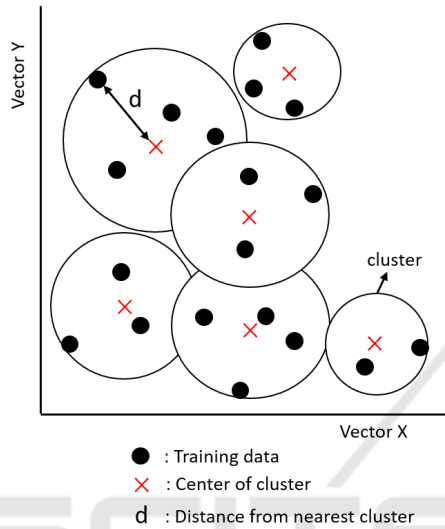


Figure 2: Training phase of K-Means.

After the training phase, we calculate distances between each data and the center of the nearest cluster from the data. One of the distances is indicated by  $d$  in Figure 2. The distance included up to a certain value of cumulative probability is used as a threshold to separate benign data and anomaly data. The values also differ from device to device.  $P$  indicates the values in Figure 3.

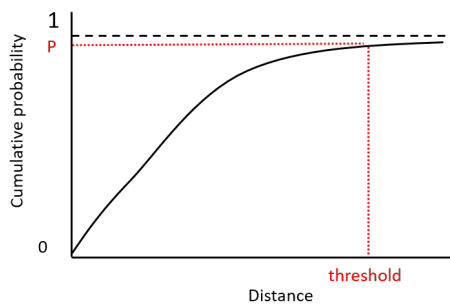


Figure 3: Threshold of Distance.

In the test phase, the distance between each data and the center of the nearest cluster from the data is calculated. If the distance is farther than the threshold, the data is regarded as anomaly data.

## 5 PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

This section presents how to evaluate the performance of the proposed anomaly detection system and its results.

### 5.1 Evaluation Data

In order to evaluate the performance of anomaly detection, both benign and anomaly communication are required. In this section, we describe how to prepare each data.

#### 5.1.1 Benign Data

For benign data, we operated actual IoT devices about twice a week, and captured their packets. For example, in the case of a smart camera, we took or browsed a picture through a smart phone, and in the case of a smart speaker, we listened to the weather of the current location or ask translation of some words. The categories of the IoT device are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: IoT device list.

Category	No. of devices
Smart camera	7
Smart speaker	5
IoT device controller	4
Door phone	3
Environment sensor	2
Light	2
Cleaner	1
Smart TV	1
Remote controller	1
Total	26

In our experiment environment, there are some gateways. Some of these gateways are associated with the IoT device and they translate the IoT device's specific communication protocol into an IP packet. These gateways are categorized as the original device. For example, the category "Door phone" includes the actual door phone and gateway for the door phone. Other gateways integrate communications of several IoT devices, and they are categorized as the "IoT device controller".

For our evaluation, one-month data was extracted from the captured packets, and processed into statistical records as described in Section 3. Among them, the statistical records for the first two weeks were used as training data, and the remainder were combined with the anomaly communications as test data. The dictionary period described in Section 4 is set as the first week in their training term.

Here, the size of raw packet data is 42GB. It includes packets of 26 devices for one-month. After processing into statistical records, the data size was reduced to 2.9GB. We succeeded in reducing the data size by 93%.

### 5.1.2 Anomaly Data

As anomaly data, we created packets and their statistical records that simulate the major behavior of malware in IoT devices; communication with a C&C server, host scan, and DoS attack. Simulated malwares are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Malware list.

Type	Cycle	No. of records
C&C	0.33[sec]	56506
	1[min]	43287
	1[hour]	721
	12[hour]	61
	24[hour]	31

Type	No. of dest per sec	No. of records
Host scan	100	120000
	200	120000
	500	120000
	1000	120000
	3000	120000

Type	No. of packets per sec	No. of records
DoS	100	103740
	500	103740
	1000	103740
	1500	103740
	3000	103740

In order to evaluate the performance of detection in detail, we created 5 patterns for each type of behavior so that the detection difficulty differed.

As for C&C, the cycle of communication is varied. For a host scan, the number of scan targets is varied. The values in the above table shows the number of targets in one second. As for DoS, the number of packets is varied.

At the timing of evaluation, one of these 15 types of malware behaviors is selected and combined into benign communication of test data, and it is determined whether the system can detect an anomaly correctly or not.

## 5.2 Evaluation Flow

The evaluation flow is shown in Figure 4.

First, normal communications of the IoT devices and malware communications are prepared as de-

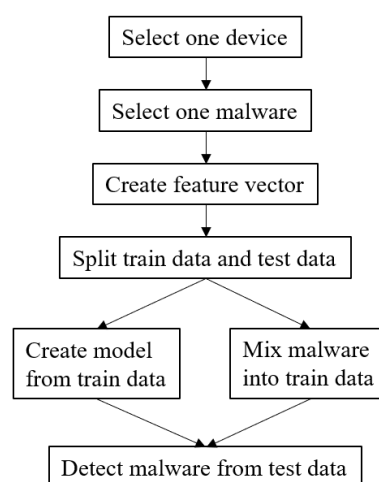


Figure 4: Evaluation flow.

scribed above. Next, we extracted all communications of one device and all communications of one malware from the input data. At this time, 0 is assigned to the record of normal communication and 1 is assigned to the record of abnormal communication as correct labels for training and accuracy evaluation. Then, we created features using the IP address and protocol and so on as described in Section 4. After that, these data were divided into training data and test data, and a model is generated from the training data. Malware communications were then mixed into the test data, and created a state where the device was infected with malware. Test data was input to the model, and it was judged whether each statistical record is benign or anomalous.

Next, the malware to be mixed was changed to another type and the above operation was performed. For example, if C&C communication with a communication cycle of 0.33s was targeted, C&C communication with another cycle or the host scan will be mixed instead. The above operation was repeated for all the devices to be evaluated, and the detection results were obtained.

The detection results were obtained in the form of a confusion matrix. Here, the anomaly to be detected is Positive, and benign is Negative. For the evaluation metric, we used TPR (True Positive Rate), FPR (False Positive Rate), and MCC (Matthew’s Correlation Coefficient). MCC is a metric used for prediction accuracy evaluation when the ratio of normal data and abnormal data is unbalanced (Matthews, 1975). In this evaluation, we used many types of devices and malwares, and in many cases, the number of data is unbalanced. For example, in the case of a device with a small number of communications, the ratio of abnormal communication becomes large, so even if all

communications are judged abnormal, the accuracy increases. Therefore, we used MCC instead of precision or accuracy. MCC takes a value of 1 if the prediction results are all correct and -1 if they are all incorrect. Using TP (True Positive), FN (False Negative), FP (False Positive), TN (True Negative) in the confusion matrix, these metrics are defined as the following equations:

$$\bullet TPR = \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$$

$$\bullet FPR = \frac{FP}{FP+TN}$$

$$\bullet MCC = \frac{(TP \times TN) - (FP \times FN)}{\sqrt{(TP+FP) \times (TP+FN) \times (TN+FP) \times (TN+FN)}}$$

### 5.3 Evaluation Result for Isolation Forest

First, we mixed one smart camera with C&C communication whose cycle is 0.33 seconds. The result of anomaly detection is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Result of C&C detection from one smart camera.

		Prediction	
		Malware	Benign
Answer	Malware	56506	0
	Benign	1587	115714

The number of records of the original device is 117301, and that of malware is 56506. Here, TPR is 1 and FPR is 0.014. As the MCC is 0.980, it indicates a high detection accuracy even when data imbalance is taken into account.

Next, the above evaluation was performed on 15 types of malware and 26 devices, and the results of averaging TPR and FPR in each device for each malware type are shown in Table 6.

**Time Evaluation.** Anomaly detection should finish within the statistical cycle. In this paper, the statistical cycle is 10 seconds, so detection should finish within 10 seconds. Then, we measured the detection time for data in which the normal communication of each device was mixed with host scan communication with 3000 destinations per second. As the target, we chose 10 seconds with the highest number of statistical records during the test period. And considering the specification of the statistical record which counts communications with different destinations as different records, host scan has the largest number of records in malware behavior. The number of target records is 30,027 on average per device. As a result, the maximum time to detect for one device was 0.37

Table 6: Result of detection for all devices.

Type	Cycle	TPR	FPR
C&C	0.33s	1.000	0.078
	1m	0.965	0.078
	1h	0.965	0.078
	12h	0.977	0.078
	1d	0.965	0.078

Type	No. of dest per sec	TPR	FPR
Host scan	100	1.000	0.078
	500	1.000	0.078
	1000	1.000	0.078
	1500	1.000	0.078
	3000	1.000	0.078

Type	No. of packets per sec	TPR	FPR
DoS	100	1.000	0.078
	200	1.000	0.078
	500	1.000	0.078
	1000	1.000	0.078
	3000	1.000	0.078

seconds, and total time for all devices was 3.22 seconds, indicating the possibility of detection within the statistical cycle.

**Accuracy Evaluation.** As for TPR, results of the host scan and DoS are 1, so all malwares are detected. As for C&C, TPR is over 0.95, but did not achieve 1.

As for FPR, all the results are the same, because the benign records are common. They are 0.078, but it is higher than the result of Table 5. The average MCC was 0.755, because there are many false positive on some devices. So it is doubtful that a successful model can be generated only in particular conditions. Then, in order to evaluate each device, the detection results of all malware were aggregated for each device type. Average TPR and FPR are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Result of malware detection for each device type.

Device type	No. of dev	TPR	FPR
Smart camera	7	1.000	0.033
Smart speaker	5	1.000	0.163
IoT device controller	4	0.945	0.062
Door phone	3	1.000	0.066
Environment sensor	2	0.999	0.055
Light	2	1.000	0.108
Cleaner	1	1.000	0.034
Smart TV	1	1.000	0.128
Remote controller	1	1.000	0.037

This result shows that malwares can be detected on many devices with high TPR, but smart speakers and smart TV are higher FPR. These devices have many patterns of behavior, so it is difficult to distinguish malwares and new benign behavior.



## 5.4 Evaluation Result for K-means Clustering

Subsequently, we performed the same evaluation as above with K-means clustering. The results of averaging TPR, FPR for 26 devices and 15 types of malware detection are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Result of detection for all devices (K-means).

Type	Cycle	TPR	FPR
C&C	0.33s	1.000	0.003
	1m	0.999	0.003
	1h	0.999	0.003
	12h	0.997	0.003
	1d	0.995	0.003

Type	No. of dest per sec	TPR	FPR
Host scan	100	0.856	0.003
	500	0.856	0.003
	1000	0.856	0.003
	1500	0.856	0.003
	3000	0.856	0.003

Type	No. of packets per sec	TPR	FPR
DoS	100	1.000	0.003
	200	1.000	0.003
	500	1.000	0.003
	1000	1.000	0.003
	3000	1.000	0.003

**Time Evaluation.** Similar to the Isolation Forest, we measured the time for detection of records in 10 seconds.

Time required depends on the number of clusters: the case of 40 clusters, the total time for detection of all devices was 8.4 seconds. The average number of clusters used here is 34, so it is also possible to detect malware within the statistical cycle.

**Accuracy Evaluation.** FPR is 0.003, and it is much better than the results of the Isolation Forest.

As for TPR, the results of DoS is 1, but host scan result is lower than that of Isolation Forest. This can be attributed to some devices having similar length and count records as the host scan packets. Both benign and anomaly records use a well-known port. Therefore, the distance between benign and anomaly records is shortened. On the other hand, for C&C, TPR is over 0.99 even in the case of longer cycles. The distance between C&C and benign records seems to be long.

The average MCC is 0.816, which is higher than that of the Isolation Forest. MCC of Isolation Forest was low in C&C detection, but K-means succeeded in detecting C&C without false positive, so MCC became higher.

Next, the aggregated result of all malware detection for each device type is shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Result of malware detection for each device type (K-means).

Device type	No. of dev	TPR	FPR
Smart camera	7	0.915	0.002
Smart speaker	5	0.917	0.007
IoT device controller	4	1.000	0.0005
Door phone	3	0.972	0.0006
Environment sensor	2	0.958	0.0001
Light	2	0.958	0.0007
Cleaner	1	1.000	0.0002
Smart TV	1	1.000	0.025
Remote controller	1	1.000	0.0004

For almost all device types, FPRs are lower than 0.001. Only smart TV is higher than 0.01. As described above, smart TV has many patterns of behavior, so it is difficult to distinguish.

Finally, a comparison of the result between Isolation Forest and K-means is summarized in Table 10.

Table 10: Comparison of two methods).

	Isolation	K-means
TPR	O	X
FPR	X	O
MCC	X	O
C&C detection	X	O
Host scan detection	O	X
DoS detection	O	O
Speed	O	O

Isolation Forest was better in TPR. On the contrary, FPR and MCC were much better in K-means. C&C was difficult for Isolation Forest, but K-means showed good detection. However, Isolation Forest could detect the host scan better than K-means. Both methods could detect DoS attack. Speed was sufficient for detecting within the statistical cycle in both methods.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we proposed a system to detect the abnormalities of IoT devices in the home network by sending the statistical information at the home gateway to the analysis server. Although the information that used in anomaly detection is reduced in the statistical information, we confirmed that anomalies of many devices in the experiment can be detected. Proposed system could reduce the data size required for analysis over 90% and still able to achieve high accuracy with Isolation Forest and K-means clustering. Future issues include improved detection performance for more devices such as smart speakers or

smart TVs, improved detection performance for devices with less data during the learning period, and countermeasures when devices are infected with malware during the learning period. And the evaluation of load and latency on the home gateway is important. Additionally, the IoT traffic dataset we used in this paper includes limited use case. If we use more realistic dataset such as collected from several actual homes, our proposed system becomes more significant.

## REFERENCES

- Alam, M. S. and Vuong, S. T. (2013). Random forest classification for detecting android malware. In *2013 IEEE International Conference on Green Computing and Communications and IEEE Internet of Things and IEEE Cyber, Physical and Social Computing*, pages 663–669. IEEE.
- Bekerman, D., Shapira, B., Rokach, L., and Bar, A. (2015). Unknown malware detection using network traffic classification. In *2015 IEEE Conference on Communications and Network Security (CNS)*, pages 134–142. IEEE.
- Canfora, G., De Lorenzo, A., Medvet, E., Mercaldo, F., and Visaggio, C. A. (2015). Effectiveness of opcode ngrams for detection of multi family android malware. In *2015 10th International Conference on Availability, Reliability and Security*, pages 333–340. IEEE.
- Ding, Z. and Fei, M. (2013). An anomaly detection approach based on isolation forest algorithm for streaming data using sliding window. *IFAC Proceedings Volumes*, 46(20):12–17.
- Doshi, R., Apthorpe, N., and Feamster, N. (2018). Machine learning ddos detection for consumer internet of things devices. In *2018 IEEE Security and Privacy Workshops (SPW)*, pages 29–35.
- Hasan, M., Islam, M. M., Zarif, M. I. I., and Hashem, M. (2019). Attack and anomaly detection in iot sensors in iot sites using machine learning approaches. *Internet of Things*, 7:100059.
- Hassan, W. H. et al. (2019). Current research on internet of things (iot) security: A survey. *Computer Networks*, 148:283–294.
- Hassija, V., Chamola, V., Saxena, V., Jain, D., Goyal, P., and Sikdar, B. (2019). A survey on iot security: Application areas, security threats, and solution architectures. *IEEE Access*, 7:82721–82743.
- Kolias, C., Kambourakis, G., Stavrou, A., and Voas, J. (2017). Ddos in the iot: Mirai and other botnets. *Computer*, 50(7):80–84.
- Kumar, A. and Lim, T. J. (2019). Edima: Early detection of iot malware network activity using machine learning techniques. In *2019 IEEE 5th World Forum on Internet of Things (WF-IoT)*, pages 289–294.
- Liu, F. T., Ting, K. M., and Zhou, Z.-H. (2008). Isolation forest. In *2008 Eighth IEEE International Conference on Data Mining*, pages 413–422. IEEE.
- MacQueen, J. et al. (1967). Some methods for classification and analysis of multivariate observations. In *Proceedings of the fifth Berkeley Symposium on Mathematical Statistics and Probability*, volume 1, pages 281–297. Oakland, CA, USA.
- Madeira, R. and Nunes, L. (2016). In *2016 Eleventh International Conference on Digital Information Management (ICDIM)*, pages 145–150.
- Matthews, B. W. (1975). Comparison of the predicted and observed secondary structure of t4 phage lysozyme. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Protein Structure*, 405(2):442–451.
- Meidan, Y., Bohadana, M., Shabtai, A., Guarnizo, J. D., Ochoa, M., Tippenhauer, N. O., and Elovici, Y. (2017). Profiliot: A machine learning approach for iot device identification based on network traffic analysis. In *Proceedings of the Symposium on Applied Computing*, pages 506–509. ACM.
- Mizuno, S., Hatada, M., Mori, T., and Goto, S. (2017). Botdetector: A robust and scalable approach toward detecting malware-infected devices. In *2017 IEEE International Conference on Communications (ICC)*, pages 1–7. IEEE.
- Nguyen, T. D., Marchal, S., Miettinen, M., Fereidooni, H., Asokan, N., and Sadeghi, A.-R. (2019). Diot: A federated self-learning anomaly detection system for iot. In *2019 IEEE 39th International Conference on Distributed Computing Systems (ICDCS)*, pages 756–767. IEEE.
- Rousseeuw, P. (1987). Silhouettes: A graphical aid to the interpretation and validation of cluster analysis. *J. Comput. Appl. Math.*, 20(1):53–65.
- Santoso, F. K. and Vun, N. C. (2015). Securing iot for smart home system. In *2015 International Symposium on Consumer Electronics (ISCE)*, pages 1–2. IEEE.
- Su, J., Vasconcellos, V. D., Prasad, S., Daniele, S., Feng, Y., and Sakurai, K. (2018). Lightweight classification of iot malware based on image recognition. In *2018 IEEE 42nd Annual Computer Software and Applications Conference (COMPSAC)*, volume 2, pages 664–669. IEEE.
- Zhang, Z.-K., Cho, M. C. Y., Wang, C.-W., Hsu, C.-W., Chen, C.-K., and Shieh, S. (2014). Iot security: Ongoing challenges and research opportunities. In *2014 IEEE 7th International Conference on Service-Oriented Computing and Applications*, pages 230–234. IEEE.
- Zolanvari, M., Teixeira, M. A., Gupta, L., Khan, K. M., and Jain, R. (2019). Machine learning-based network vulnerability analysis of industrial internet of things. *IEEE Internet of Things Journal*, 6(4):6822–6834.