



Telosian: Reducing False Positives in Real-Time Cyber Anomaly Detection by Fast Adaptation to Concept Drift

Iker Antonio Olarra Maldonado¹, Erik Meeuwissen¹, Puck de Haan¹ and Rob van der Mei²

¹Cyber Security Technologies, TNO, The Hague, The Netherlands

²Department of Stochastics, CWI, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

{iker.olarra, puck.dehaan, erik.meeuwissen}@tno.nl, r.d.van.der.mei@cw.nl

Keywords: Anomaly Detection, Real-Time, Concept Drift, Unsupervised Learning, Intrusion Detection, False Positives.


Abstract: We propose *Telosian*^{*}, an unsupervised anomaly detection model that dynamically adapts to concept drift. *Telosian* uses a novel update scheme that measures drift and adapts the model accordingly. We show that our update is faster than existing methods and results in an increased detection performance by reducing false positives. In practice this will also reduce the workload of security teams. Moreover, through our experiments, we show the importance of considering concept drift when deploying models. Further, the proposed model is designed to be easily implemented in practice, taking into account the ease of deployment and reducing operational costs without sacrificing detection performance. Additionally, we provide clear guidelines on how such an implementation should be done. Moreover, we investigate the presence of drift in popular datasets and conclude that the amount of drift is limited. We call on the academic community to develop more (cyber security) datasets that capture drift.


1 INTRODUCTION

The development of effective intrusion detection systems plays a strategic role in safeguarding commercial and military assets (Asif et al., 2013). Although extensive research has been done in developing supervised machine learning methods to perform this task, several challenges prevent state of the art methods to be used in practice. The practical implications of deploying proposed methods are often overlooked (Apruzzese et al., 2023b). These challenges in implementation are related to: (1) The high cost of labeling (Andresini et al., 2021), which makes labeled data hard to procure (Tufan et al., 2021). (2) The changes in the distribution of the data (concept drift), which degrades the models' performance over time (Lu et al., 2018), and results in a constant need to update deployed models. (3) The heteroge-

neous nature of networks, which makes the models difficult to transfer from one environment to another (Apruzzese et al., 2022), and finally (4) the high computational and technical requirements of some methods (Apruzzese et al., 2023a).

Specially in Cyber Security, labeling observations comes at a high cost (Andresini et al., 2021). In (Apruzzese et al., 2022), it was seen that a company can only afford to label 80 malware samples a day. Furthermore, alarms must be reviewed constantly by security analysts to stay up-to-date with the environment and reduce false positives (Alahmadi et al., 2022). These changes also produce label inaccuracy due to label shift (Arp et al., 2022). Combined, these factors could result in unreliable or outdated labeled datasets. To mitigate these issues, anomaly detection has become a central component in intrusion detection, as it can be used to develop more flexible and efficient solutions to detect new attacks which pass undetected to more traditional methods (Ahsan et al., 2022). The importance of anomaly detection lies in its flexibility to detect new outliers instead of learning specific cases (Zoppi et al., 2021). Besides, unsupervised anomaly detection algorithms do not require labeled datasets. This makes anomaly detection techniques highly relevant when exploiting large amounts of unlabeled data (Tufan et al., 2021).

^a <https://orcid.org/0009-0009-3665-6515>

^b <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5685-5310>

* The Telosian organ of cognition is housed inside a segmented body that buds and grows at one end while withering and shedding at the other. Every year, a fresh segment is added at the head to record the future; every year, an old segment is discarded from the tail, consigning the past to oblivion. - Ken Liu, *An Advanced Readers' Picture Book Of Comparative Cognition*.

Furthermore, concept drift has been increasingly identified as a main issue in the Cyber Security domain (Apruzzese et al., 2022), (Andresini et al., 2021), (Arp et al., 2022). *Concept drift* occurs when the underlying data distribution changes over time, deviating from known patterns (Benjelloun et al., 2019) and has been the cause of decreased performance in many information systems, such as early warning systems and decision support systems (Lu et al., 2018). Nevertheless, the assumption that data is stationary, independent and identically distributed is still prevalent in many methods (Andresini et al., 2021), (Barbero et al., 2022), (Apruzzese et al., 2023b). The only way of addressing concept drift is through a constant update of the ML systems with new data that reflects the current trends (Apruzzese et al., 2023a). However, deciding when and how to perform the update is difficult (Yang et al., 2021).

Additionally, systems become increasingly complex and dynamic, which calls for more efficient and flexible detection methods (Zoppi et al., 2021). Also, the heterogeneity between environments makes transfer learning hard; what is anomalous in one setting could be normal in another one (Apruzzese et al., 2022). This calls for models that are able to adapt quickly to changes in the environment.

Finally, despite the advances in Machine Learning for intrusion detection, the proposed solutions are seldom used in practice. For instance, in (Alahmadi et al., 2022) only two out of 20 survey participants reported using ML-based tools in their daily operations. Oftentimes, proposed solutions focus on benchmarks instead of building practical solutions (Apruzzese et al., 2023b). This has led to large and complex methods that are costly to maintain and operate (Nadeem et al., 2023). For example, deep learning models have not shown a clear superiority over existing methods while their cost and complexity is evidently higher (Apruzzese et al., 2023a). Therefore, there is need to develop effective solutions that require few prerequisites, are easy to operate and are able to perform in heterogeneous environments.

To address the challenges above, we propose *Telosian*. A model that requires no labels and that is designed to swiftly adapt when concept drift or sudden changes are present in the data, reducing false positives. Additionally, it has few requirements making it easy to implement in heterogeneous environments at a low cost. Our contributions are the following:

- We propose an update scheme that leverages drift measurement to dynamically adapt to different kinds of drift.
- We introduce *Telosian*, a model that extends the

iForest algorithm by incorporating our proposed update scheme, allowing it to dynamically adapt to drift.

- We compare *Telosian* to *BWOAIF* (Hannák et al., 2023), a state of the art model that adapts to drift. We show that *Telosian* is able to reduce the number of false positives due to its dynamic adaptation.
- We quantify the drift of existing benchmark datasets and determine they have limited drift. We make a call to the scientific community to generate more datasets that capture drift.
- We modify a real-world dataset to simulate drift. The dataset can be used as a benchmark for drift detection.
- To ensure the model’s applicability in practice, we perform thorough experimentation on several datasets, to study the effect of the model parameters and be able to provide clear guidelines for deployment of the model in a new environment.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we discuss anomaly detection methods. We also introduce *iForest*. Then, in Section 3 we explain the importance of addressing concept drift and ways to detect it. We also describe the *NNDVI* algorithm. Afterwards, in Section 4, we discuss the importance of considering drift when building anomaly detection models. We also introduce the *BWOAIF* algorithm. Then, in Section 5, we present *Telosian*. Subsequently, in Section 6, we describe our experiment design as well as the SMD dataset used for the experiments. Afterwards, in Section 7, we analyze the experiments’ results and quantify the benefits of dynamically adapting to drift. Finally, in Section 8, we synthesize the results of the research and the advantages of *Telosian*.

2 ANOMALY DETECTION

The goal of this research is to propose a method capable of performing unsupervised anomaly detection in real-time streams of network data, taking concept drift into account. In this section, we summarize some of the proposed solutions to perform intrusion detection. First, we will discuss different anomaly detection methods and their application in the cyber security domain. Then, we give a more in-depth explanation of *iForest*, an accurate and efficient anomaly detection algorithm.

The value of anomaly detection relies on the capacity to quickly identify anomalous patterns in data

without a need for previous knowledge of the nature of the anomalous observations. Identifying these anomalies reduces the amount of information that needs to be carefully analyzed and results in a more efficient use of resources. Anomaly detection is used in multiple sectors. For example, in fraud detection, anomaly detection is used to infer complexities and dynamic changes in criminal behaviour (Gomes et al., 2021), or in a military context, it is used on marine traffic data to identify suspicious vessels (Bistrion and Piotrowski, 2021). In this section, we will discuss different methods that can be used to detect anomalies.

2.1 Anomaly Detection Methods

One of the challenges in anomaly detection is to define what normal behaviour entails. In this subsection we will explore some of the methods that have been proposed to detect anomalies. These methods can be divided into the following main categories: density-based methods, clustering methods, and isolation-based methods (Benjelloun et al., 2019). All have a different approach in identifying anomalies, which can be useful in different contexts.

Firstly, clustering- and density-based anomaly detection methods rely on the computation of distances between data points in the feature space in order to find patterns. Clustering methods partition the dataset into groups, whose elements share similar characteristics. Once the clusters are determined, points that do not belong to any of these clusters or are the furthest from them, according to a predefined metric, are labeled as anomalies (Zoppi et al., 2021). An example of this approach is the *k-Medoids* algorithm, which identifies anomalies by checking which points are furthest from the central element of a cluster (Chitrakar and Chuanhe, 2012). Density based methods, on the other hand, group subsets of points that are close to each other according to a chosen distance measure. Then, the areas with lower density are used to find anomalies (Togbe et al., 2020). The Local Outlier Factor (LOF) algorithm (Breunig et al., 2000) is an example of a density based method. Density-based methods are more sensitive towards local outliers, while clustering-based algorithms are more suited to identify global anomalies (Benjelloun et al., 2019). These approaches require pairwise distance calculation to compare the data instances, which makes them ineffective in large datasets (Tufan et al., 2021). These algorithms are still used in practice to this day, for example in (Andresini et al., 2021), a Nearest Centroid Neighbor classifier is used as a label estimator.

Contrarily, isolation-based methods rely on the assumption that anomalies are few, different and that

the values of their attributes significantly differ from those of normal instances of the data (Liu et al., 2008). Hence, by separating the data based on individual attributes, isolation-based methods can identify anomalies without the need for computing distances, which reduces their complexity and allows them to process larger amounts of data (Togbe et al., 2020). In (Siddiqui et al., 2019), for example, the isolation-based algorithm *iForest* was used to rapidly identify anomalies in a database of over 300 million data instances, which shows the scalability of this kind of method. In the next section we discuss how anomaly detection has been used in the cyber security context.

2.2 Anomaly Detection in Cyber Security

In cyber security, anomaly detection has gained importance as conventional methods have become insufficient to detect the increasing number of incidents (Ahsan et al., 2022). Although mechanisms to detect known attacks are already present, such as rule-based intrusion detection systems, these mechanisms lack the flexibility needed to discover novel types of attacks (Tufan et al., 2021). It has been recognized that adequate cyber defense requires the capabilities of AI to address the new threats that arise everyday (Leenen and Meyer, 2021), (Layton, 2021). Algorithms such as Random Forest, Naive Bayes and Neural Networks have been successfully utilized in the cyber security context. In (Ahsan et al., 2022) a summary of the good performance of such algorithms on multiple benchmark datasets is given. However, as stated before, high-quality labeled datasets are uncommon in the cyber security field, which poses a major obstacle for supervised algorithms. Existing labeled datasets are often outdated or capture only a limited spectrum of the cyber domain (Apruzzese et al., 2022). Additionally, to make it possible for supervised algorithms to detect new attacks, examples of them must be recorded, labeled and used to retrain the algorithm. This is time consuming and requires human labeling.

Semi-supervised methods have also gained importance recently. For example, *insomnia* (Andresini et al., 2021) trains a model with an existing set of labeled data, the model then self-learns from the new data by automatically labeling uncertain observations with the aid of an assisting model (oracle). However, this approach relies on the accuracy of the oracle. On the other hand, new attacks could be labeled with high confidence to an existing class, leading to misleading results (Yang et al., 2021). Another example is (Siddiqui et al., 2019), where anomaly detection is combined with expert feedback to increase accuracy and

reduce the number of false positives in future runs.

Since unlabeled data is abundant in cyber security, unsupervised methods are of particular importance. First, most of the publicly available datasets in the cyber security domain have quality issues such as lack of representation of existing attacks, class imbalance and noisy or non-existent class labels (Ahsan et al., 2022). Secondly, the continuous streams of data require algorithms to be efficient and scalable. However, the assumption that anomalies are rare and show deviating behavior holds for streaming data (Togbe et al., 2020). This means that the traditional methods could be adapted to process streaming data (Benjelloun et al., 2019). Few models are able to handle the large amounts of data in combination with the necessity for real time processing (Benjelloun et al., 2019). Due to its scalability, efficiency and detection performance, we consider *iForest* (Liu et al., 2008) to be an ideal model to be extended to address concept drift. The algorithm is explained in more detail below.

2.3 *iForest*

iForest (Liu et al., 2008), is an unsupervised ensemble model designed to detect anomalies by isolation. It uses recursive random partitioning of the data to determine which instances are the most abnormal. It is built under the assumption that anomalies are few and different, and therefore easier to isolate than “normal” instances of the data. The main advantages that make *iForest* relevant for this research are: (1) its focus on finding anomalies rather than profiling normal points, (2) the fact that it **does not require a labeled dataset** and (3) its **high scalability** (Liu et al., 2008). In this section, we first explain the algorithm and then describe the characteristics that provide it with the aforementioned advantages.

First, the algorithm is trained on a dataset of n points where each point is composed of Q features or attributes. To construct a single *iTree*, first, an attribute is chosen from the data and then a random split value is selected between the minimum and maximum value of this attribute. The split results in two partitions of the original dataset which are subsequently divided by selecting another random attribute and split value for each sub-dataset. This process is repeated recursively until: (1) every partition reaches a minimum size, or (2) a predefined number of splits (*iTree* height) is reached. Following this process results in an *iTree* where the most anomalous points are closer to the root of the tree. To build an *iForest*, T *iTrees* are created from T independent samples of size ψ taken without replacement of the dataset X . These trees are used in an ensemble to assign an anomaly

score to each instance of the entire dataset X .

Once the trees are trained, the average path length $h_t(x)$ of the point x across the *iTree* $t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$ is calculated. Then the average path length of an unsuccessful search in BST is used to calculate the anomaly score (Liu et al., 2008).

Despite its advantages, the algorithm is insufficient to address significant changes in the data (drift). However, we can leverage its ensemble nature to perform partial updates of the model.

3 CONCEPT DRIFT

Concept drift refers to how the underlying distribution of the data changes over time and is one of the main challenges in cyber security data (Layton, 2021) (Andresini et al., 2021) (Arp et al., 2022). Addressing it is of paramount importance, as it can turn high-performing models into outdated low-accuracy models. The only real way of addressing concept drift is by continuously updating the model with data that captures the new reality (Apruzzese et al., 2023a). However, when and how to perform such task is not trivial (Barbero et al., 2022).

Concept drift occurs in various ways. For example, computer networks may present small gradual changes due to an organic growth of the user base, but also experience sudden changes caused by a new type of attack. The different types of change can be grouped in the following four categories: *sudden* drift, *gradual* drift, *incremental* drift and *reoccurring concepts* (Lu et al., 2018). In sudden drift (Figure 1.a), the underlying distribution of the data changes in a short period of time. Meanwhile, gradual drift (Figure 1.b) occurs when the previous concept is progressively replaced by the new one. Incremental drift (Figure 1.c) is when the previous drift starts to transform into the new one with a smooth transition. Lastly, recurring concepts (Figure 1.d) refer to cases where old concepts reoccur after some time. In cyber security, both malicious and benign behavior experience drift, the former being sudden while the latter is usually gradual (Andresini et al., 2021), (Apruzzese et al., 2023a). It is important that models are able to detect different kinds of concept drift in order to be effective. In (Henriksen, 2023), for example, a model trained to detect gradual and seasonal (reoccurring) drift was shown to obtain better results than when only one type of drift was considered. In the next subsection, we will go through some methods used to detect concept drift.

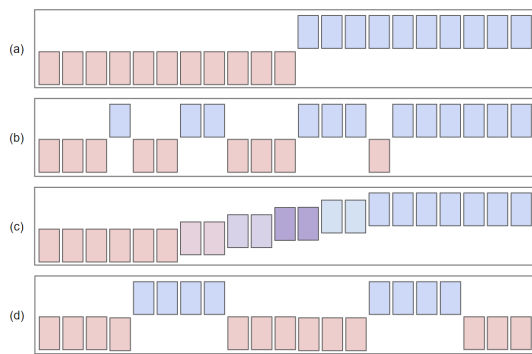


Figure 1: Types of concept drift (Lu et al., 2018).

3.1 Concept Drift Detection

There are a number of ways to detect concept drift, however, most of the existing methods are supervised approaches, which makes them unsuitable in sectors where such data is scarce. For instance, in (Iwashita and Papa, 2018), only two of the 59 surveyed methods constitute unsupervised concept drift detection methods. We focused on unsupervised approaches, since the implementation of supervised methods can be infeasible in cyber security application due to the lack of reliable labels. Further, we identified three main approaches to detect concept drift in an unsupervised way: (1) assuming that drift exists, (2) tracking a specific statistic, and (3) measuring the discrepancies between batches of data.

The first approach simply assumes that concept drift exists and periodically updates the model. This approach is followed by (Tan et al., 2011) and (Andresini et al., 2021), where the model is updated with every new batch or time window. Although simple and effective, it can result in excessive training as the models are replaced regardless of the existence of drift and also, patterns learnt by the model could be prematurely discarded.

On the other hand, the statistic tracking approach consists of monitoring specific metrics of the model to determine the existence of concept drift. When the statistic changes significantly, an update is triggered. In (Ding and Fei, 2013) and (Li et al., 2019), this method is leveraged by tracking the average anomaly rate of an anomaly detector. A more recent example is (Yang et al., 2021), where a non-conformity measure is used to assess whether a record belongs to a class. If this non-conformity measure is too big, then it is assumed that drift is present. Nevertheless, this approach is not effective for all types of concept drift (Hannák et al., 2023) and relies on the accuracy of the underlying model.

Finally, a more robust method relies on measuring

the differences between subsets of data. Samples are taken from a reference batch and compared to samples in a future window (Liu et al., 2018). This approach is more sensitive to local drifts and is also application-independent, because the subset can be taken from any type of streaming data (Gemaque et al., 2020). The *NNDVI* algorithm leverages this technique and is explained below.

3.2 Nearest Neighbor-Based Density Variation Identification

The *NNDVI* algorithm (Liu et al., 2018) compares dissimilarities between samples taken from different batches of the data. It has two main components: a data modeling component, which builds a representation of the data instances, and a distance function, which quantifies the dissimilarity between two datasets. Below we elaborate on both components.

The **data modeling** component creates a representation of the data to make different batches comparable (i.e., batches of data). *NNDVI* uses the Nearest Neighbor-based Partitioning Schema (*NNPS*). The schema groups similar data instances into partitions and then compares the differences in density between the partitions to assess their dissimilarity. The process is similar to comparing two (high-dimensional) histograms. *NNPS*, however, can be used for high dimensional data and is more robust than other approaches (Liu et al., 2018).

The *NNPS* assumes that closely located data instances are related to each other. It expands each data instance into a hypersphere like in Figure 2. In this example, each point d_i was expanded and this resulted in three partitions p_i . The intersection p_3 is the similarity between the instances. For high-dimensional data, *NNPS* defines the hyperspheres as *multisets* of particles. A *multiset* summarizes the relationship between a set of particles and its k -nearest neighbors by taking into account the density of points around each instance and the closeness with their neighbors. The assumption is that if the distribution of the data changes significantly, the closeness between neighbors and areas of density would change as well. Under this assumption, a distance metric is used to compute the similarity between two multisets, according to the intersection between their elements.

Distance Function. To compare the multisets, a weighted sum of the intersection between the hyperspheres of each element is computed. This distance function follows a normal distribution, which allows to perform z -test to assess the existence of drift.

Algorithm. The algorithm uses samples S_1 and S_2 from two datasets. Then, their corresponding multi-

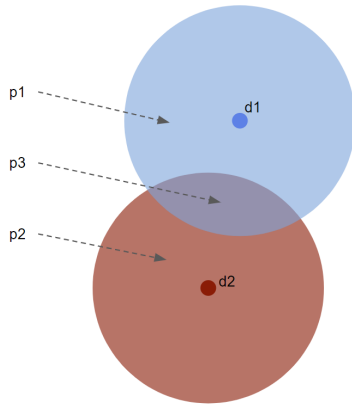


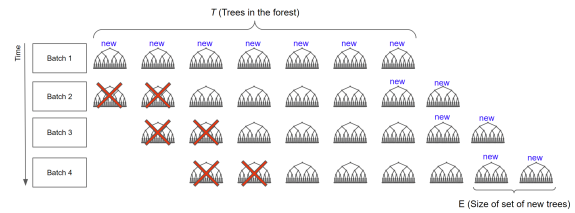
Figure 2: Example of hyperspheres and their intersection.

sets are obtained and the distance δ between the multisets is estimated. This process is repeated s times with different samples to obtain an estimation of the distribution of the distance. With this distribution, we perform a statistical test on δ using a z -test. If the null hypothesis (H_0 : “there is no difference between the distance distribution of the samples”) is rejected, we assume the existence of drift.

Apart from being an unsupervised algorithm, *NNDVI* is robust to high dimensional data since data instances are summarized into multisets. Also, expanding the data instances into hyperspheres, makes *NNDVI* more sensitive to changes in the distribution. Finally, the distance metric used to compare the datasets returns a number between 0 and 1, which we use to determine the size of update to be made. In Section 5 we will explain how we use this to update the initial ensemble.

4 NEED FOR DYNAMIC DRIFT ADAPTATION

Existing techniques can benefit from awareness of the observed drift. Which will allow the models to adapt according to the type of change that is occurring in the new data (Hannák et al., 2023). In Section 3 we listed some examples of how models detect drift as well as strategies of drift detection. In this section we will motivate why measuring drift could be of great benefit to improve their detection performance and explain *BWOAIF*, a state of the art drift adapting algorithm. An initial idea to temper drift was to using traditional models in sliding windows (Benjelloun et al., 2019), allowing the algorithm to learn on the most up-to-date data. In order to do this, many methods recreate models from scratch every batch to stay up-to-date (Hannák et al., 2023). Examples are the *iForestASD*

Figure 3: Update mechanism for the *BWOAIF* algorithm with $T = 8$ trees and $E = 2$ new trees per batch.

algorithm (Ding and Fei, 2013) which trains a new *iForest* algorithm every time concept drift is detected, or the *HS-Trees* algorithm (Tan et al., 2011), which resets the learnt parameters with every new batch of data. This approach can be inefficient when concept drift is small or nonexistent.

The *BWOAIF* algorithm (Hannák et al., 2023), on the other hand, leverages the speed, scalability and the ensemble nature of *iForest* to design a more efficient method. This approach uses a sliding window but only updates a fraction of the ensemble with every batch, which improves accuracy and resource efficiency in comparison to existing methods such as the *iForestASD* algorithm (Ding and Fei, 2013). This state of the art model will be the baseline we will use to compare *Telosian*. The *BWOAIF* algorithm is explained in the next subsection.

4.1 Bilateral-Weighted Online Adaptive Isolation Forest

The Bilateral-Weighted Online Adaptive Isolation Forest (*BWOAIF*) (Hannák et al., 2023) extends the *iForest* algorithm to be used on streaming data. Its update scheme allows it to **deal with concept drift** by performing a partial update of the trees. The update is done using non-overlapping data batches of size B and replacing the oldest E trees with newly trained E trees each batch. Figure 3 illustrates the process of tree replacement as new data arrives. Additionally, a weighing scheme is applied during the anomaly score calculation. This results in an ensemble method where the most recent *iTrees* have a stronger influence on the computation of the anomaly score, thus allowing it to deal with concept drift. In (Hannák et al., 2023), it was shown that this constant retraining of the algorithm resulted in higher accuracy and use of fewer trees than other methods such as the *iForestASD*.

One of the limitations of this algorithm is that the parameters that determine the speed of the update are set at the beginning of execution. While the weighing scheme and replacement of trees help the algorithm address different types of concept drift ¹, with sud-

¹The algorithm includes a weighing method that allows

den drift only a predefined portion of the trees will be trained on the new data. This can be an issue because, even if the obsolete trees are ignored, updated trees might be too few to compute an adequate score. On the other hand, with small or no concept drift, the algorithm will still perform the same update size, resulting in unnecessary computations. Our contribution is a new update scheme that is dependent on the size of the concept drift. We believe that taking the characteristics of the drift into account will improve the performance of the algorithm.

5 TELOSIAN

The *Telosian* algorithm was designed to accurately detect anomalies, and swiftly update according to the amount of drift observed. Towards this goal, *Telosian* uses three main components: (1) an ensemble learner (*iForest*), (2) concept drift measuring mechanism (*NNDVI*) and (3) an update scheme for the ensemble model. These components allow the algorithm to perform proportional and timely updates to the model.

Figure 4 shows the process of the algorithm. Initially, the ensemble learner, which is trained with data of previous batches, is used to predict the anomaly scores (s_t) of the current batch at time-step t . Afterwards, data is processed in batches performing four main steps:

1. Concept drift is measured for the current batch using the *NNDVI* algorithm. The result is a value $v_t \in [0, 1]$ which represents the drift.
2. The concept drift measurement is used to determine the proportion of the ensemble that should be updated (E_t : number of trees). This is done using an update function explained later.
3. The update scheme, analogous to the one proposed in the *BWOAIF* algorithm, replaces the E_t oldest trees of the ensemble with newly trained classifiers from the most recent data.
4. The new batch ($t + 1$) is processed with the latest ensemble to predict the new anomaly scores, and the process starts again.

To build the *Telosian* model, we make use of existing methods (*iForest*, *BWOAIF* and *NNDVI*) that were explained in subsections 2.3, 3.2 and 4.1. In this

to give more or less influence to some trees and accelerate or slow down the adaptation. However, the number of replaced regressors, which constitute the basis of the algorithm, remains constant

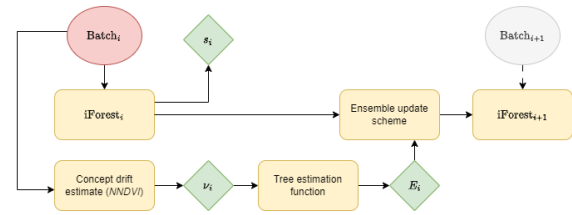


Figure 4: Components of the *Telosian* algorithm.

section we will further explain the role of each component of the model, as well as the choice for methods chosen for each task.

5.1 Initial Ensemble

The first step to build our model is training an ensemble learner with existing static data. For this purpose, we chose the *iForest* (Liu et al., 2008) algorithm, explained in subsection 2.3. The main advantages of the algorithm are: its capacity to scale and its capacity to detect multiple types of anomalies, without requiring a labeled dataset (Liu et al., 2008). Despite these advantages, the algorithm is not designed to handle drift. However, *iForest*'s ensemble nature is compatible with our proposed update scheme, to perform partial updates of the model.

5.2 Concept Drift Measurement

The central component of our proposed model is the measurement of concept drift, which allows us to determine to what extent the model needs to be updated. The Nearest Neighbor-Based Density Variation Identification (*NNDVI*) algorithm (Liu et al., 2018), explained in subsection 3.2, is of great use to achieve this task. *NNDVI* can output a value $v \in [0, 1]$ depending on the amount of drift. We use this measurement to determine the type of update that should be performed on the model's ensemble. Furthermore, the algorithm is unsupervised, robust to high dimensional data and more sensitive to changes in the distribution in comparison to other methods (Liu et al., 2018).

5.3 Update Scheme

The next component of our proposed model is the update scheme. This is what translates the drift measurement into the number of trees to replace from the ensemble. The proposed function takes the drift measurement v and outputs the number of trees to replace. However, it is also important to see *which* trees are to be replaced and *how they are retrained*. To perform this update, we use a schema similar to the one proposed in the *BWOAIF* algorithm (Hannák et al.,

2023), explained in subsection 4.1. In our approach however, the parameter E that determines the number of trees to be updated is determined dynamically. Below we explain how this update size is determined.

5.3.1 Tree Update Function

The tree update function translates the measurement of concept drift into the number of trees to be replaced in the ensemble. The goal of the function is to make the algorithm respond to different types of drift by varying the update size. For example, when drift is gradual or incremental, the function results in small incremental changes, which maintain previously learnt patterns (*iTrees*), while slowly replacing. When drift is sudden, on the other hand, the function will yield a large update so that the adaptation is quick. Finally, the functions was defined to prevent a full replacement of the ensemble in subsequent batches, even with a maximum amount of drift. This is useful for recurrent concepts where the data fluctuates between different distributions. The function that allows *Telosian* to accommodate changing drift is the following:

$$\tau(v) = 2^{\lfloor \log_2(vT) \rfloor}.$$

The function uses the drift score (v) as argument. The total number of trees T is also used². A step function is used so similar concept drift results in a similar update size. This also prioritizes small updates, but allows for larger updates when the drift is high. The chosen function will change at most half of the trees to prevent over-fitting to a single batch.

Once the number of trees E to be updated is computed, the scheme proposed in (Hannák et al., 2023) for the *BWOAIF* algorithm is used. In this update scheme, the oldest E trees are replaced by E new trees trained on more recent data. Then, the data from the new batch is given an anomaly score with the new ensemble. Note that the bilateral weighing scheme proposed in (Hannák et al., 2023) is also used.

Together, the previous steps allow the algorithm to perform fast and proportional updates with respect to the concept drift in the data.

6 EXPERIMENTATION

In this section, we describe how the *Telosian* algorithm was tested. We compare *Telosian* with our own implementations of the *iForest* and *BWOAIF* algorithms. In the *iForest* case, our aim is to compare the

²The number of trees T is considered a constant as it remains unchanged throughout the execution of the algorithm

performance against an algorithm that does not consider drift. On the other hand, we chose *BWOAIF* because it is a similar algorithm but, unlike *Telosian*, the update size remains constant. This allows to evaluate the effect of dynamically adapting to drift.

We used the Server Machines Dataset (SMD) (Su et al., 2019) to complete the experiments. To measure detection performance in unseen data, while still using that data for future updates, we make the batch available for training, only after the algorithm has made its predictions on it. To compare the algorithms, we ran a grid search with more than 300 different combinations of parameters for each algorithm. Then, we used different thresholds to determine the parameter combination that maximized the $F1$ -score.

6.1 Data

The data on which the algorithms are tested is highly relevant. Unfortunately, there are few publicly available datasets for network intrusion detection, that capture drift (Maciá-Fernández et al., 2018). We investigated the limited presence of drift by measuring the amount of drift in existing datasets (see Appendix 5) using three different algorithms (*NNDVI* (Liu et al., 2018), *HDDDM* (Ditzler and Polikar, 2011) and *KdqTree* (Dasu et al., 2006)). We concluded that there is a gap in the literature for a real-world network intrusion detection dataset that captures drift. Such a dataset would be of great importance for the development and testing of new algorithms.

Nevertheless, we did identify the presence of drift in the *Server Machines Dataset* (Su et al., 2019). For this reason we chose it as the main dataset for our experiments. Below, we describe some of the most important characteristics of the chosen dataset.

Server Machines Data (Su et al., 2019). (SMD) The dataset corresponds to the cyber security sector and consists of five weeks of data collected from servers from an undisclosed large internet company. The dataset contains labels for the anomalous records. The labels will allow us to evaluate performance but will not be used in the training the algorithm.

This dataset is comprised of 3 entities with 8, 9 and 11 machines respectively, for a total of 28 machines. This is the main dataset used for the research, as it contains time dependent real world cyber security data with various types of concept drift, making it a suitable dataset to test the algorithms. This dataset contains 38 features per observation, a total size of 1,416,825 observations (about 47,000 for every subset) and an anomaly ratio of 2.08%³.

³In the data repository a total of 4.16% is reported.

To be able to test the algorithms in a more realistic setting, we opted to combine the sub-datasets within each entity into a single dataset. This resulted in one large dataset per entity (so three entity-datasets in total) comprised of multiple weeks. Since all machines belong to the same entity, with similar behavior, we aim to simulate different users the same machine. However, the anomalies seen in a machine will be different from those seen on the other, thus simulating zero-day attacks. We used the first two subsets of each entity to train the initial ensemble and then ran the algorithms on the remaining data.

6.2 Hardware Specifications

The experiments were run on the same server. The server has 256GB of Memory, 32 cores and an Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 6244 CPU @ 3.60GH. The algorithm was also deployed in a personal work station with 16GB of Memory, 12 cores and an Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-1255U processor to test its feasibility to run in commodity hardware. The time performance is reported in Appendix 9.

6.3 Algorithm Comparison Design

To compare the performance under various conditions, we ran the algorithm with multiple parameter configurations. The list below includes the subset of parameters that were varied. The value of the rest of the parameters was determined according to the best practices stated in the literature. For instance, the weighing of the anomaly scores of the *BWOAIF* algorithm were set to $\sigma_a = 1000$ and $\sigma_v = 0.05$, following the best practices stated in (Hannák et al., 2023). Because *Telosian* uses a similar weighing scheme, we used the same values.

- *psi*: The different values of subsampling which will be used. The chosen values were {128, 256, 512}.
- *ntrees*: The different values for the number of trees. The values used for the experiment are: {256, 512, 1024, 2048}.
- *n_new_trees*: The different values for the number of new trees. The values used for the experiment are: {128, 256, 512, 1024}.
- *batch_size*: The batch size to be used for the streaming process. The batch sizes were selected from the following values: {512, 1024, 4096, 8192, 16384}.

However, this proportion only considers the test set which accounts for roughly 50% of the data.

This resulted in a total of $|\text{datasets}| * |\text{psi}| * |\text{ntrees}| * |\text{n_new_trees}| * |\text{algorithms}|$ parameter combinations (1,008 valid combinations). The best configuration (based on *F1*-score) was found through a grid search. First, the initial ensemble was trained over the two first sub-datasets of each entity. Then, the rest of the entity-data was processed by batches. In the case of the *iForest*, the ensemble remains the same during the execution, while for the other algorithms every batch was added to the sliding window and used for training after the predictions on the test set were computed. This way the labels remain unseen to the algorithm during the anomaly score computation phase. The final *F1*-score score was computed using the predictions obtained during every batch.

The metrics recorded during each execution were:

1. False Positive and False Negative count. To measure this we used four different cutoffs (0.5, 0.55, 0.6, 0.65, 0.7) for the anomaly score, to determine which records are labeled as anomalies.
2. *F1*-score. The *F1*-score is the geometric mean between precision and recall. It allows us to account for the imbalance of the dataset and gives visibility on the errors of the dataset (Yang et al., 2021).
3. AUC. Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristics curve (hereafter AUC). This metric is more consistent than accuracy and makes it easier to discriminate between classifiers (Andretta Jaskowiak et al., 2020). Additionally, it has been widely used for *iForest*-related algorithms (for example (Liu et al., 2008), (Hannák et al., 2023), (Ding and Fei, 2013)).
4. Execution time. For every execution, the total computation time and the time per batch were also recorded.

7 RESULTS

In this section, we comment on the performance of the three algorithms during the experimental phase described in Section 6. First, we will present the overall results obtained by the algorithms *iForest*, *BWOAIF* and *Telosian*. After that, we analyze the performance over time for the algorithms. Further, in Appendix 9 we discuss the effect of each hyperparameter on *Telosian* with the goal of easing its implementation in practice.

Table 1 shows the best AUC-ROC score obtained after performing grid search for hyperparameter tuning for all algorithms and entity-datasets. For each

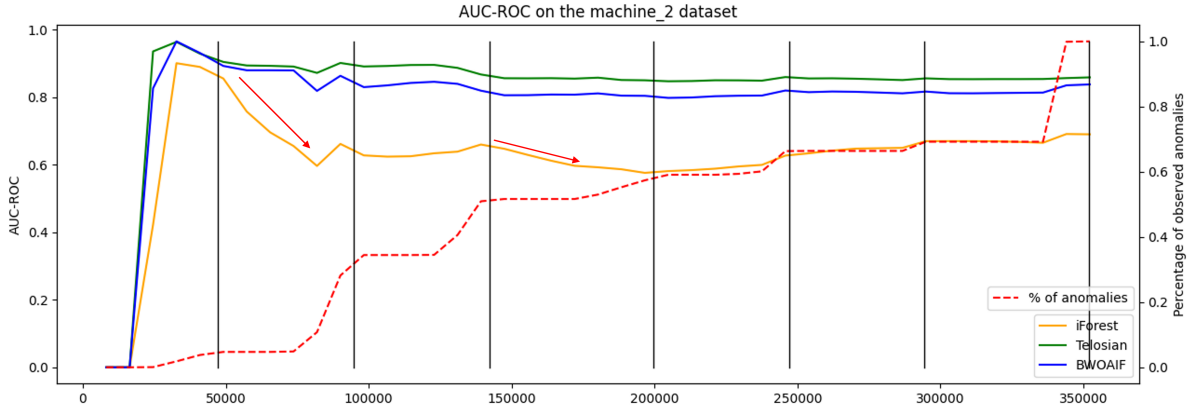


Figure 5: Cumulative AUC-ROC score for all three algorithms in machine 3.

dataset, the average drift score per batch is also shown. An evident conclusion is that *Telosian* outperformed the other algorithms. We can explain this by two main reasons: first, the ability of *Telosian* to adapt to new trends, and second, the speed at which it performs this update. Below we further explain why this occurs.

Table 1: Summary of the AUC scores of the three algorithms on all entity-datasets.

Data	Drift score	AUC-ROC score		
		<i>iForest</i>	<i>BWOAIF</i>	<i>Telosian</i>
SMD1	0.776	0.804	0.804	0.808
SMD2	0.764	0.690	0.854	0.859
SMD3	0.677	0.646	0.782	0.795

Figure 5 shows the AUC-ROC score for all three algorithms over time. The black vertical lines indicate a change from one sub-dataset to another (i.e., a sudden change in the data). The red dotted line, shows the accumulated (ground truth) anomalies until that moment, which gives visibility on when the algorithm should detect anomalies. From the figure, the ability of both *Telosian* and *BWOAIF* to adapt to new trends is evident, as they are able to maintain their performance over time. *iForest*, on the other hand, exhibits a decrease in performance. This is especially evident when changing from one sub-dataset to the other (see red arrows). During these changes, we observe a slight decrease in AUC from *Telosian* and *BWOAIF*, followed by a recovery in performance. In contrast, for *iForest*, there is a decay. This illustrates the importance of including an update scheme to avoid degraded performance in the presence of drift. Now, we will show how *Telosian*'s update scheme allows for a better update than *BWOAIF*. The False Positive and False Negative analysis is focused on *BWOAIF* and *Telosian*. This is due to the greater number of mis-

classified records by the *iForest* algorithm (see Table 1), which would obfuscate the comparison between *Telosian* and *BWOAIF*.

An initial observation from Table 1 is the slightly superior AUC scores of *Telosian* over *BWOAIF*. Additionally, in Table 2 we also see similar performance. However, we are interested in when the errors occur. For this reason, we will analyze the false positives (table 3) and false negatives (table 4) over time.

Table 2: *F1*-Score (Weighted *F1*-score).

Data	Threshold	<i>BWOAIF</i>	<i>Telosian</i>
SMD1	0.60	0.248 (0.940)	0.230 (0.949)
SMD2	0.60	0.201 (0.963)	0.215 (0.968)
SMD3	0.65	0.174 (0.975)	0.176 (0.976)

Table 3: False Positives (FP).

Data	Threshold	<i>BWOAIF</i>	<i>Telosian</i>
SMD1	0.60	15,616	9,403
SMD2	0.60	12,993	9,670
SMD3	0.65	7,282	7,159

Table 4: False Negatives (FN).

Data	Threshold	<i>BWOAIF</i>	<i>Telosian</i>
SMD1	0.60	5,084	6,171
SMD2	0.60	3,610	3,846
SMD3	0.65	5,262	5,259

After analyzing the False Positives (FP) and False Negatives (FN), we concluded that *Telosian* adapts to new trends more quickly. This can be observed in Figure 6 which shows the FP generated by the algorithm for entity-dataset 2. In the entity's data, after every sudden change (black vertical line), we observe an in-

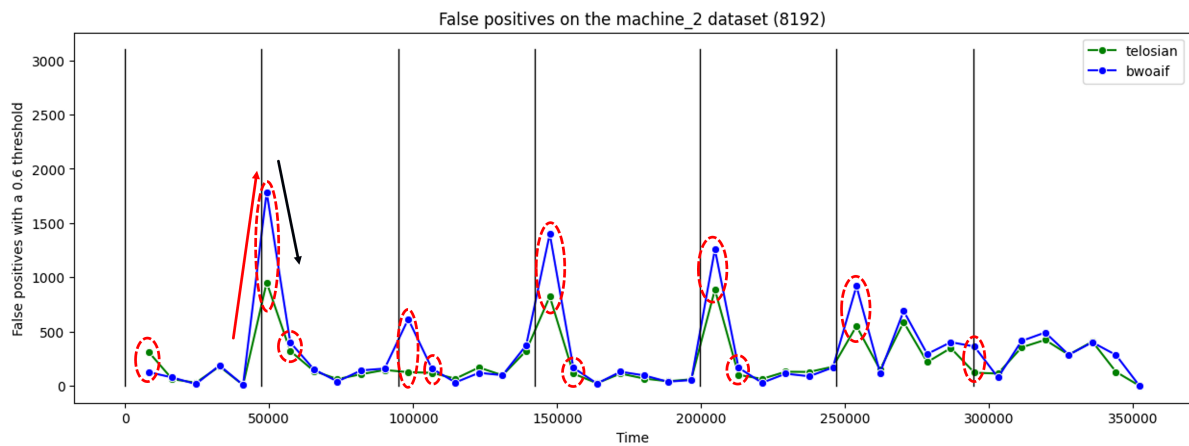


Figure 6: False positives per batch in machine 2.

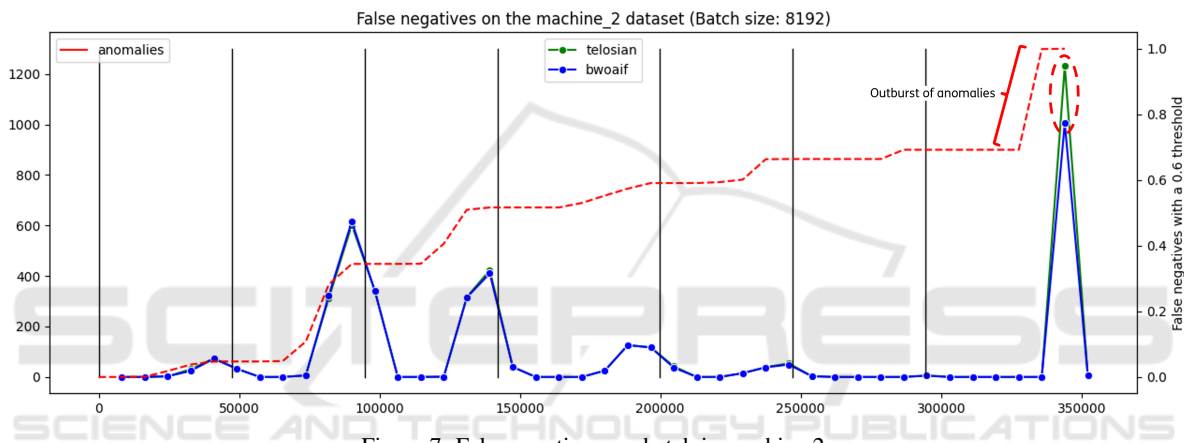


Figure 7: False negatives per batch in machine 2.

crease the errors for both algorithms (this is shown by the red arrow). After the initial increase in FP, both algorithms detect the change in trend and adjust accordingly, resulting in a detection performance recovery for the next batch (black arrow). This trend repeats after every sudden change. Furthermore, the errors produced by *Telosian* are fewer immediately after the update. The faster adaptation is also observed in entity-dataset SMD1 and SMD3, where *Telosian* also produced fewer FP. A faster update is significant advantage, as it allows it to ameliorate outbursts of FP produced by changes in the distribution of the data. A delayed response could be detrimental as real threats could be concealed by large amounts of false alarms.

When analyzing false negatives, on the other hand, we did not notice an evident difference in the performance between *BWOAIF* and *Telosian*. In this case, the fluctuations are more related to the appearance of anomalies. In Figure 7, the red dotted line shows how many of the total real anomalies present in the data have been seen until that moment. The solid lines show the FN for each algorithm. In the

Figure, we see an increase in FN correlated to the appearance of real anomalies (red dotted line). *Telosian* produces slightly more FN in total. In figure 7, the main difference in FN occurs when there is an outburst of anomalies. We can see in the graph that almost 30% of the anomalies occur in a small amount of time. This also occurs in the other two datasets. Since *Telosian* quickly adapts to new trends, when many similar anomalies appear, the initial anomalies will be detected. However, after some time *Telosian* will stop seeing them as anomalies. In practice, this is not necessarily undesirable, as the first anomalies are flagged, giving time for the experts to investigate them without generating repeated alerts for the following events.

Summarizing, the experiments showed a superior overall performance of *Telosian* over *BWOAIF*, influenced by the ability of *Telosian* to swiftly adapt to new trends and thus generate fewer false positives after sudden changes. However, a side effect are increased false negatives when there is an outburst of anomalies, This occurs because due to the fast adaptation,

consequent anomalies may stop being flagged. However, as discussed in above, in practice this is not necessarily undesirable. Further, the reduction of false positives outweighs the slight increase in false negatives. Additionally, comparing *Telosian* with a static algorithm *iForest*, shows the importance of adding an update scheme when addressing concept drift.

8 CONCLUSION

The goal of this research was to develop a model that effectively detects anomalies, has minimal requirements and is able to address concept drift – one of the main challenges when dealing with cyber security data. We developed *Telosian*, an efficient, unsupervised model that is able to adapt to changes in the data in a swift manner.

Our experiments showed the importance of adapting to concept drift to maintain performance as well as the impact of doing so in a swift way. *Telosian*'s fast update allows it to reduce false positives specially when sudden drift is present. However, a small increase in false negatives could occur if an outburst of anomalies is present. Nevertheless, this could be solved by running another classifier in parallel. Moreover, *Telosian* is composed of scalable components and only triggers updates when necessary, thus having low computational requirements. Additionally, it has a high detection performance without the need of labels. These characteristics ease its implementation in practice.

Finally, we investigated the presence of drift in existing datasets, concluding that current publicly available data for cyber security does not capture drift. We make a call to the academic community to develop more datasets that capture drift, as this is of paramount importance in the development of novel concept drift adapted methods.

9 FUTURE WORK

We identified some aspects of the algorithm which could be investigated in future work to improve performance. For instance, experiment with other algorithms to measure and identify the type of drift. Additionally, adding a functionality to temper outburst of anomalies would add great value to the algorithm. Furthermore, testing the algorithm on new cyber security datasets with labels for when drift occurs could prove of great value. Finally, the trained trees could be leveraged to try to explain the anomalies by using, e.g., information gain to determine which fea-

tures have a greater impact on a data instance being an anomaly.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The work was partially funded by the European Union – European Defence Fund under GA no. 101103385 (AInception). Views and opinions expressed are however those of the author(s) only and do not necessarily reflect those of the European Union. The European Union cannot be held responsible for them.

We would like to thank Dr. Gábor Horváth, one of the authors of (Hannák et al., 2023), for his clarifications on the implementation of the *BWOAIF* algorithm.

REFERENCES

- Kdd cup 1999 data data set. Accessed: 2023-03-10.
- Statlog (shuttle) data set. Accessed: 2023-03-10.
- Ahsan, M., Nygard, K. E., Gomes, R., Chowdhury, M. M., Rifat, N., and Connolly, J. F. (2022). Cybersecurity threats and their mitigation approaches using machine learning—a review. *Journal of Cybersecurity and Privacy*, 2(3):527–555.
- Alahmadi, B. A., Axon, L., and Martinovic, I. (2022). 99% false positives: A qualitative study of {SOC} analysts' perspectives on security alarms. In *31st USENIX Security Symposium (USENIX Security 22)*, pages 2783–2800.
- Andresini, G., Pendlebury, F., Pierazzi, F., Loglisci, C., Apice, A., and Cavallaro, L. (2021). Insomnia: Towards concept-drift robustness in network intrusion detection. In *Proceedings of the 14th ACM workshop on artificial intelligence and security*, pages 111–122.
- Andretta Jaskowiak, P., Gesteira Costa, I., and José Gabrielli Barreto Campello, R. (2020). The area under the roc curve as a measure of clustering quality. *arXiv e-prints*, pages arXiv–2009.
- Apruzzese, G., Laskov, P., Montes de Oca, E., Mallouli, W., Brdalo Rapa, L., Grammatopoulos, A. V., and Di Franco, F. (2023a). The role of machine learning in cybersecurity. *Digital Threats: Research and Practice*, 4(1):1–38.
- Apruzzese, G., Laskov, P., and Schneider, J. (2023b). Sok: Pragmatic assessment of machine learning for network intrusion detection. In *2023 IEEE 8th European Symposium on Security and Privacy (EuroS&P)*, pages 592–614. IEEE.
- Apruzzese, G., Laskov, P., and Tastemirova, A. (2022). Sok: The impact of unlabelled data in cyberthreat detection. In *2022 IEEE 7th European Symposium on Security and Privacy (EuroS&P)*, pages 20–42. IEEE.
- Arp, D., Quiring, E., Pendlebury, F., Warnecke, A., Pierazzi, F., Wressnegger, C., Cavallaro, L., and Rieck, K.

- (2022). Dos and don'ts of machine learning in computer security. In *31st USENIX Security Symposium (USENIX Security 22)*, pages 3971–3988.
- Asif, M. K., Khan, T. A., Taj, T. A., Naeem, U., and Yakoob, S. (2013). Network intrusion detection and its strategic importance. In *2013 IEEE Business Engineering and Industrial Applications Colloquium (BEIAC)*, pages 140–144.
- Barbero, F., Pendlebury, F., Pierazzi, F., and Cavallaro, L. (2022). Transcending transcend: Revisiting malware classification in the presence of concept drift. In *2022 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP)*, pages 805–823. IEEE.
- Benjelloun, F.-Z., Lahcen, A. A., and Belfkih, S. (2019). Outlier detection techniques for big data streams: focus on cyber security. *International Journal of Internet Technology and Secured Transactions*, 9(4):446–474.
- Bistrón, M. and Piotrowski, Z. (2021). Artificial intelligence applications in military systems and their influence on sense of security of citizens. *Electronics*, 10(7):871.
- Breunig, M. M., Kriegel, H.-P., Ng, R. T., and Sander, J. (2000). Lof: identifying density-based local outliers. In *Proceedings of the 2000 ACM SIGMOD international conference on Management of data*, pages 93–104.
- Chitrakar, R. and Chuanhe, H. (2012). Anomaly detection using support vector machine classification with k-medoids clustering. In *2012 Third Asian himalayas international conference on internet*, pages 1–5. IEEE.
- Dasu, T., Krishnan, S., Venkatasubramanian, S., and Yi, K. (2006). An information-theoretic approach to detecting changes in multi-dimensional data streams. In *Proc. Symposium on the Interface of Statistics, Computing Science, and Applications (Interface)*.
- 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.
- Ditzler, G. and Polikar, R. (2011). Hellinger distance based drift detection for nonstationary environments. In *2011 IEEE symposium on computational intelligence in dynamic and uncertain environments (CIDUE)*, pages 41–48. IEEE.
- Gemaque, R. N., Costa, A. F. J., Giusti, R., and Dos Santos, E. M. (2020). An overview of unsupervised drift detection methods. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery*, 10(6):e1381.
- Gomes, C., Jin, Z., and Yang, H. (2021). Insurance fraud detection with unsupervised deep learning. *Journal of Risk and Insurance*, 88(3):591–624.
- Hannák, G., Horváth, G., Kádár, A., and Szalai, M. D. (2023). Bilateral-weighted online adaptive isolation forest for anomaly detection in streaming data. *Statistical Analysis and Data Mining: The ASA Data Science Journal*, 16(3):215–223.
- Henriksen, A. (2023). Db-drift: Concept drift aware density-based anomaly detection for maritime trajectories. In *2023 Sensor Signal Processing for Defence Conference (SSPD)*, pages 1–5.
- Huasuya, T. (2019). Omnicomomaly.
- Iwashita, A. S. and Papa, J. P. (2018). An overview on concept drift learning. *IEEE access*, 7:1532–1547.
- Layton, P. (2021). Fighting artificial intelligence battles: Operational concepts for future ai-enabled wars. *Network*, 4(20):1–100.
- Leenen, L. and Meyer, T. (2021). Artificial intelligence and big data analytics in support of cyber defense. In *Research anthology on artificial intelligence applications in security*, pages 1738–1753. IGI Global.
- Li, B., Wang, Y.-j., Yang, D.-s., Li, Y.-m., and Ma, X.-k. (2019). Faad: an unsupervised fast and accurate anomaly detection method for a multi-dimensional sequence over data stream. *Frontiers of Information Technology & Electronic Engineering*, 20(3):388–404.
- Liu, A., Lu, J., Liu, F., and Zhang, G. (2018). Accumulating regional density dissimilarity for concept drift detection in data streams. *Pattern Recognition*, 76:256–272.
- 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.
- Lu, J., Liu, A., Dong, F., Gu, F., Gama, J., and Zhang, G. (2018). Learning under concept drift: A review. *IEEE transactions on knowledge and data engineering*, 31(12):2346–2363.
- Maciá-Fernández, G., Camacho, J., Magán-Carrión, R., García-Teodoro, P., and Therón, R. (2018). Ugr '16: A new dataset for the evaluation of cyclostationarity-based network idss. *Computers & Security*, 73:411–424.
- Moro, S., R. P. and Cortez, P. (2012). Bank Marketing. UCI Machine Learning Repository. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24432/C5K306>.
- Nadeem, A., Vos, D., Cao, C., Pajola, L., Dieck, S., Baumgartner, R., and Verwer, S. (2023). Sok: Explainable machine learning for computer security applications. In *2023 IEEE 8th European Symposium on Security and Privacy (EuroS&P)*, pages 221–240. IEEE.
- Quinlan, R. (1987). Thyroid Disease. UCI Machine Learning Repository. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24432/C5D010>.
- Siddiqui, M. A., Stokes, J. W., Seifert, C., Argyle, E., McCann, R., Neil, J., and Carroll, J. (2019). Detecting cyber attacks using anomaly detection with explanations and expert feedback. In *ICASSP 2019-2019 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, pages 2872–2876. IEEE.
- Su, Y., Zhao, Y., Niu, C., Liu, R., Sun, W., and Pei, D. (2019). Robust anomaly detection for multivariate time series through stochastic recurrent neural network. In *Proceedings of the 25th ACM SIGKDD international conference on knowledge discovery & data mining*, pages 2828–2837.
- Tan, S. C., Ting, K. M., and Liu, T. F. (2011). Fast anomaly detection for streaming data. In *Twenty-second in-*

ternational joint conference on artificial intelligence. Citeseer.

- Togbe, M. U., Barry, M., Boly, A., Chabchoub, Y., Chiky, R., Montiel, J., and Tran, V.-T. (2020). Anomaly detection for data streams based on isolation forest using scikit-multiflow. In *Computational Science and Its Applications–ICCSA 2020: 20th International Conference, Cagliari, Italy, July 1–4, 2020, Proceedings, Part IV 20*, pages 15–30. Springer.
- Tufan, E., Tezcan, C., and Acartürk, C. (2021). Anomaly-based intrusion detection by machine learning: A case study on probing attacks to an institutional network. *IEEE Access*, 9:50078–50092.
- Yang, L., Guo, W., Hao, Q., Ciptadi, A., Ahmadzadeh, A., Xing, X., and Wang, G. (2021). {CADE}: Detecting and explaining concept drift samples for security applications. In *30th USENIX Security Symposium (USENIX Security 21)*, pages 2327–2344.
- Zoppi, T., Ceccarelli, A., and Bondavalli, A. (2021). Unsupervised algorithms to detect zero-day attacks: Strategy and application. *Ieee Access*, 9:90603–90615.

APPENDIX

Drift in Popular Datasets

Table 5 shows the drift observed in six datasets. The methods used for measuring drift compare consecutive batches. However, the HDDDM (Ditzler and Polikar, 2011) and KdqTree (Dasu et al., 2006) are binary, so they only assess the existence of drift but not its size. The number displayed on the table indicates on which proportion of the batches drift was detected. For *NNDVI*, on the other hand, the value displayed is the mean amount of drift measured in each batch.

Effect of Hyperparameters on *Telosian*

The grid-search approach to find the best combination of hyperparameters also gives more visibility on the effect of changing a specific parameter on the accuracy of the model for each dataset. The purpose of this section is to explain the found trends and give

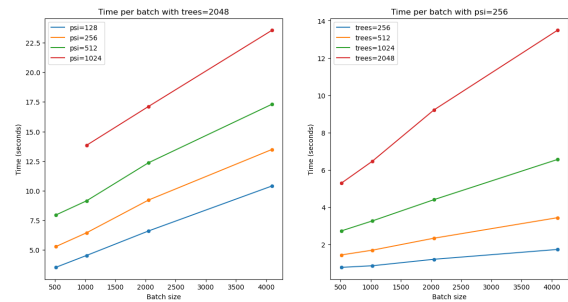


Figure 8: The effect of changing the number of trees (T) and sub-sampling size (ψ) in the processing time per batch.

guidelines to set the hyperparameters.

Effect of the Number of Total Trees. (T) We advise to use values slightly below 500 for *Telosian* to balance detection performance and computational efficiency.

Effect of the Subsampling Size. (ψ) We recommend using values of 1000 or greater for *Telosian*. However, if the number of attributes is small, values of ψ around 250 should be used.

Effect of the Batch Size. We advise to use 600 to 2500 records per batch, but the user should adjust this depending on the business logic.

Processing Time per Second

For most parameter combinations, *Telosian* is able to process 100 records in less than 1 second. This processing time includes the training of new trees, measuring of drift and the computation of the anomaly scores. Furthermore, specific combinations of parameters take less than 0.2 seconds, which shows that changing the parameters of the algorithm could further reduce run times.

Figure 8 shows that the algorithm scales linearly with the number of records and that even with a large number of trees and sub-sampling size, which makes it a feasible option for a real-time use case.

Table 5: Measured drift in the datasets using multiple methods.

Dataset	NNDVI	HDDDM	KdqTree
SMD (Huasuya, 2019)	0.73	0.148	0.988
KDDCUP Http (kdd,)	0.28	0.209	0.001
KDDCUP Sntp (kdd,)	0.17	0.276	0.459
Thyroid disease (Quinlan, 1987)	0.18	0.231	0.077
Bank marketing (Moro and Cortez, 2012)	0.13	0.062	0.012
Shuttle (shu,)	0.13	0.084	0.0