Performance evaluation of data clustering techniques using KDD Cup-99 Intrusion detection data set.

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ABSTRACT

Intrusion detection systems aim at detecting attacks against computer systems and networks or, in general, against information systems. A number of techniques are available for intrusion detection. Data mining is the one of the efficient technique among them. Intrusion detection and clustering have forever been hot topics in the area of machine learning. Data clustering is a procedure of putting related data into groups. Clustering procedure clusters the data into groups with the property of inter-group similarity and intra-group dissimilarity. A clustering technique partitions a data-set into several groups such that the likeness within a group is larger than amongst groups. Clustering as an intrusion detection technique has long before proved to be beneficial. This paper evaluates four most representative off-line clustering techniques: k-means clustering, fuzzy c-means clustering, Mountain clustering, and Subtractive-clustering. These techniques are implemented and tested against KDD cup-99 data set, which is used as a standard benchmark data set for intrusion detection. Performance and accuracy of the four techniques are presented and compared in this paper. Results shows Accuracy of K-means is 91.02%, FCM is 91.89%, Mountain clustering is 75% and Subtractive clustering is 78.27%. The experimental outcomes obtained by applying these algorithms on KDD cup-99 data set demonstrate that k-means and fuzzy c-means clustering algorithms perform well in terms of accuracy and computation time.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Intrusion detection is the process of observing and analysing the events taking place in a computer system in order to discover signs of security problems. Over the past ten years, intrusion detection and other security technologies such as cryptography, authentication, and firewalls have increasingly gained in importance. However, intrusion detection is not yet a perfect technology. This has given data mining the opportunity to make several important contributions to the field of intrusion detection. In intrusion detection, an object is a single observation of audit data and/or network packets after the values from selected features have been extracted. Hence, values from selected features, and one observation, define one object (or vector). If we have values from n number of features, the vector (or object plot) fits into an n-dimensional coordinate system (Euclidean space).

A cluster is a group of data objects that are analogous to one another inside the same cluster and are divergent to the objects in other clusters. The method of grouping a set of physical or intangible objects into
set of similar objects is called clustering. Data clustering is considered an interesting approach for finding similarities in data and putting similar data into groups. Clustering partitions a data-set into several troops such that the similarity within a troop is larger than that among troops [1]. Clustering does not rely on predefined classes and class labelled training examples. That’s why; clustering is a type of learning by observation.

In this paper, four of the most representative off-line clustering techniques are reviewed: K-means clustering, Fuzzy c-means clustering, Mountain clustering and Subtractive clustering. These techniques are usually used in conjunction with Radial Basis Function Networks (RBFNs) and Fuzzy Modelling. These four techniques are implemented and tested against a KDD cup 99 data set which is used as a bench mark data set for intrusion detection research. The results are presented with a comprehensive comparison of the different techniques and the effect of different parameters in the process.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents background of IDS, data mining, clustering and KDD cup 99 data set. Section 3 presents each of the four clustering techniques in detail along with the underlying mathematical foundations. Section 4 introduces the implementation of the techniques and goes over the results of each technique, followed by a comparison of the results. A brief conclusion is presented in Section 5.

2. BACKGROUND

This section presents principal concepts of intrusion detection system (IDS), an intrusion detection dataset (KDD cup-99), Data mining and clustering.

2.1 Intrusion detection systems:

With the enormous growth of computer networks usage and the huge increase in the number of applications running on top of it, network security is becoming increasingly more important. As all the computer systems suffer from security vulnerabilities which are both technically difficult and economically costly to be solved by the manufacturers. Therefore, the role of IDS, as special-purpose devices to detect anomalies and attacks in the network, is becoming more important.

An intrusion detection system (IDS) is a component of the information security framework. An intrusion is defined as any set of actions that compromise the integrity, availability or confidentiality of a resource. Intrusion detection is an important task for information infrastructure security. Its main goal is to differentiate between normal activities of the system and behaviour that can be classified as suspicious or intrusive. As depicted in the figure-1, the goal of intrusion detection is to build a system which would automatically scan network activity and detect such intrusion attacks. Once an attack is detected, the system administrator can be informed, who can take appropriate action to deal with the intrusion.

![Figure 1. Intrusion Detection process.](image-url)

One major challenge in intrusion detection is that we have to identify the camouflaged intrusions from a huge amount of normal communication activities. It is demanding to apply data mining techniques to detect various intrusions. Data mining is capable of identifying legitimate, novel, potentially useful, and eventually understandable patterns in massive data.
2.2 Data Mining and Clustering

The term data mining is frequently used to designate the process of extracting useful information from large databases. The term knowledge discovery in databases (KDD) is used to denote the process of extracting useful knowledge from large data sets. Data mining, by contrast, refers to one particular step in this process, which ensures that the extracted patterns actually correspond to useful knowledge. Data mining refers to a set of procedures that use the process of excavating previously unknown but potentially valuable data from large stores of past data. Data mining techniques basically correspond to pattern discovery algorithms, but most of them are drawn from related fields like machine learning or pattern recognition.

As per Wikipedia, “clustering is the classification of similar objects into different groups, or more precisely, the partitioning of a data into subsets (clusters), so that the data in each subset (ideally) share some common trait-often proximity according to some defined distance measure. By clustering, one can spot dense and sparse regions and consequently, discover overall distribution sample and interesting relationship among data attributes. Clustering algorithms are used extensively not only to organize and categorize data, but are also useful for data compression and model construction. By finding similarities in data, one can represent similar data with fewer symbols for example. Also if we can find groups of data, we can build a model of the problem based on those groupings. Another reason for clustering is to discover relevance knowledge in data.

Clustering is a challenging field of research as it can be used as a separate tool to gain insight into the allocation of data, to observe the characteristic feature of each cluster, and to spotlight on a particular set of clusters for more analysis. The advantage of applying Data Mining technology to the Intrusion Detection System lies in its ability of mining the succinct and precise characters of intrusions in the system from large quantities of information automatically. It can solve the problem of difficulties in picking-up rules and in coding of the traditional Intrusion Detection system.

2.3 KDD Cup-99 Intrusion Detection Data set

The KDD Cup-99 data set was created by processing the TCP-dump segment of 1998 DARPA Intrusion Detection System evaluation dataset. This data set is prepared by Stolfo et al. Of Lincoln Labs, U.S.A[2]. DARPA-98 is about 4 gigabytes of compressed raw (binary) TCP-dump data of 7 weeks of network traffic, which can be processed into about 5 million connection records, each with about 100 bytes. The two weeks of test data have around 2 million connection records. KDD cup-99 is the data-set used for Third International Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining Tools contest, which was held in concurrence with KDD Cup-99, the Fifth International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining. Since 1999, KDD Cup-99 has been the most wildly used data set for the evaluation of anomaly detection methods [3].

KDD Cup-99 training dataset consists of approximately 4.90,000 single connection vectors each of which contains 41 features and is labelled as either normal or an attack, with exactly one specific attack type. The data set contains a total of 24 attack types(connections) that fall into one of the 4 major categories: Denial of service(DOS), Probe/scan, User to Root(U2R)and Remote to User(R2L). A complete listing of the set of features given in KDD cup 99 dataset defined for the connection vectors is given in Srilatha Chebrolu et.al [4].

3. CLUSTERING TECHNIQUES

Clustering is significant task in mining evolving data streams. The method of grouping a set of physical or conceptual objects into classes of related objects is called clustering. By definition, “cluster analysis is the art of finding groups in data”. Clustering can be achieved by applying various algorithms that vary significantly in their perception of what makes up a cluster and how to ably find them. The appropriate clustering algorithm and parameter settings (for instance, the number of likely clusters, the distance function to use or a density threshold) depend on the individual data-set and intended use of the results.

A clustering algorithm tries to find natural groups of components/data based on some similarity. In addition, the clustering algorithm locates the centroid of a group of data-sets. To determine cluster membership, the majority of algorithms evaluate the distance among a point and the cluster centroid. The output from a clustering algorithm is fundamentally a statistical description of the cluster centroid with the number of elements in each cluster.

3.1 Classification of Clustering Algorithms

As shown in the figure-2, there are essentially two types of clustering methods: hierarchical clustering and partitioning clustering. In hierarchical clustering once groups are found and objects are assigned to the groups, this assignment cannot be changed. In case of partitioning clustering, the assignment of objects into groups may change during the algorithm application. Further, the Partitioning clustering are categorised in to hard clustering and soft clustering. Hard Clustering is based on mathematical set theory i.e. either a data
point belong to a particular cluster or not. k-means clustering is of type hard clustering. Soft Clustering is based on fuzzy set theory i.e. a data point may partially belong to a cluster. Fuzzy c-means is of type soft clustering.

Clustering algorithms can also be classified based on different parameters. Based on the number of clusters to be formed is well known in advance or not, clustering algorithms can be classified priori or a-priory clustering algorithms. Since number of clusters are well known in advance, a-priory algorithms tries to partition the data into the given number of clusters. Since k-means and fuzzy c-means clustering algorithms needs a priori knowledge of the number of clusters, they belong to priori type. In the case of a-priory, since number of clusters are not known in advance, the algorithm starts by finding the first large cluster, and then goes to find the second, and so on. Mountain and Subtractive clustering algorithms are examples for this type. In both cases a problem of known cluster numbers can be applied; however if the number of clusters is not known, k-means and Fuzzy c-means clustering cannot be used.

![Figure 2. Classification of clustering algorithms.](image-url)

Another aspect of classification of clustering algorithms is their ability to be implemented in on-line or off-line mode. On-line clustering is a process in which each input vector is used to update the cluster centers according to this vector position. The system in this case learns where the cluster centers are by introducing new input every time. In off-line mode, the system is presented with a training data set, which is used to find the cluster centers by analyzing all the input vectors in the training set. Once the cluster centers are found they are fixed, and they are used later to classify new input vectors. The techniques presented here are of the off-line type and are intended to find cluster centers that will represent each cluster. A cluster centre is a way to tell where the heart of each cluster is located, so that later when presented with an input vector, the system can tell which cluster this vector belongs to by measuring a similarity metric between the input vector and all the cluster centers, and determining which cluster is the nearest or most similar one. The description of all the four techniques considered here are presented below.

### 3.1 K-means Algorithm

The k-means clustering algorithm is a classical and well known clustering algorithm. In this algorithm, after an initial random assignment of data points to K clusters, the centres of clusters are computed and the data points are allocated to the clusters with the closest centres. The process is repeated until the cluster centres do not significantly change. Once the cluster assignment is fixed, the mean distance of a data point to cluster centres is used as the score [5]. K-means algorithm is given in figure-3.

K-means clustering algorithm is well known data mining algorithms that can be used in anomaly detection. It has been used in an attempt to detect anomalous user behaviour, as well as unusual behaviour in network traffic. As the algorithm iterates through the data set, each cluster’s architecture is updated. In updating clusters, data points are removed from one cluster and added to another. The updating of clusters causes the values of the centroids to change. This change is a reflection of the current cluster data points. Once there are no changes to any cluster, the training of the k-means algorithm is complete. At the end of the k-means algorithm, the ‘k’ cluster centroids are created and the algorithm is ready for classifying traffic.

The k-means clustering algorithm is based on finding data clusters in a data set by keeping minimized cost function of dissimilarity measure. In most cases this dissimilarity measure is chosen as the...
Euclidean distance. For each data point to be clustered, the cluster centroid with the minimal euclidean distance from the data point will be the cluster for which the data point will be a member.

A set of n vectors \( X_j, j = 1, \ldots, n \), are to be partitioned into C groups \( G_i, i = 1, \ldots, C \). The cost function, based on the Euclidean distance between a vector \( x_k \) in group j and the corresponding cluster centre \( C_i \), can be defined by:

\[
J = \sum_{i=0}^{C} \sum_{k=1}^{n_j} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{C} ||x_k - C_j||^2 \right)
\]

Where \( j = \sum_{k=1}^{n_j} ||x_k - C_j||^2 \) is a cost function within group i. There are two problems that are inherent to k-means clustering algorithms. The first is determining the initial partition and the second is determining the optimal number of clusters [6]. The performance of the k-means algorithm depends on the initial positions of the cluster centres, thus it is advisable to run the algorithm several times, each with a different set of initial cluster centres.

3.1.2 Fuzzy c-means Algorithm

Fuzzy c-means algorithm is an improvement over earlier k-means algorithm and also known as fuzzy ISODATA. It was proposed by Bezdek as extension to Dunn’s algorithm to generate fuzzy sets for every observed feature in 1973[7].

It is practical that data points can fit in to more than one cluster, and connected with each of the points are membership grades, which indicate the degree to which the data points belong to the different clusters. The fuzzified c-means algorithm permits each data point to be a member of a cluster to a degree indicated by a membership grade, and therefore each point may fit in to several clusters. In fuzzy clustering, points on the border of the cluster may be in the cluster to a smaller degree than points in the centre of cluster. Fuzzy c-means is applying fuzzy logic on k-means partitions based on mean of data points. The Fuzzy c-means algorithm is given in figure-4. FCM algorithm partitions a collection of data points specified by m-dimensional vectors into ‘c’ fuzzy clusters, and locate a cluster centre in each, minimising an objective function. Fuzzy c-means clustering involves two processes: the calculation of cluster centres and the assignment of points to these centres using a form of Euclidian distance. This process is recurring until the cluster centres stabilize. The algorithm is similar to k-means clustering in many ways but it assigns a membership value to the data items for the clusters within a range of 0 to 1. Fuzzy c-means is differing from hard c-means, mainly because it makes use of fuzzy partitioning. As k-means, Fuzzy c-means algorithm relies on minimizing a cost function of dissimilarity measure.
FCM is an iterative algorithm to find cluster centres that minimize a dissimilarity function. Rather than partitioning the data into a collection of distinct sets by fuzzy partitioning, the membership matrix $U$ is randomly initialized according to equation (2) given below.

$$\sum_{j=1}^{C} U_{ij} = 1, \forall j = 1, 2, ..., n \quad (2)$$

The dissimilarity function used here is given equation-3.

$$J(U, c_1, c_2, ..., c_C) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} J_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{C} u_{ij}^m d_{ij}^2 \quad (3)$$

Where, $U_{ij}$ is between 0 and 1; $c_i$ is the centroids of cluster $i$; $d_{ij}$ is the Euclidean Distance between $i^{th}$ Centroids $c_i$ and $j^{th}$ Data point.

$m \in [1, \infty]$ is a weighting exponent. There is no prescribed manner for choosing the exponent parameter, ‘m’. In practice, $m=2$ is common choice, which is equivalent to normalizing the coefficients linearly to make their sum equal to 1. When $m$ is close to 1, then the cluster centre closest to the point is given much larger weight than the others and the algorithm is similar to k-means. To reach a minimum of dissimilarity function there are two conditions. These are given in (4) and (5).

$$c_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} u_{ij}^m x_j}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} u_{ij}^m} \quad (4)$$

$$u_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{C} \left( \frac{d_{ij}}{d_{ik}} \right)^{m-1}} \quad (5)$$

By iteratively renewing the cluster centres and the membership grades for every data point, FCM iteratively shifts the cluster centres to the ‘right’ place within a data set. FCM does not ensure that it converges to an optimal solution, because the cluster centres are randomly initialised. Though, the performance depends on initial centroids, there are two ways as described below for a robust approach in this regard. First one, using an algorithm to determine all of the centroids and the second is run FCM several times each starting with different initial centroids. More mathematical details about the objective function based clustering algorithms can be found in [8].

**FCM ALGORITHM:**

Input: n data objects, number of clusters
Output: membership value of each object in each cluster
Algorithm:
1. Select the initial location for the cluster centres
2. Generate a new partition of the data by assigning each data point to its closest centre.
3. Calculate the membership value of each object in each cluster.
4. Calculate new cluster centers as the centroids of the clusters.
5. If the cluster partition is stable then stop, otherwise go to step 2 above.

![Figure 4. The Fuzzy c-means Clustering algorithm](image-url)
3.1.3. Mountain Clustering Algorithm

K-means and FCM Clustering algorithms typically require the user to pre-specify the number of cluster centres and their initial locations. The quality of the solution depends strongly on the choice of initial values like the number of cluster centres and their initial locations. Yager and Filev [9] proposed a simple and effective algorithm, called the mountain method, for estimating the number and initial location of cluster centres. The mountain clustering approach is a simple way to find cluster centres based on a density measure called the mountain function. This method is a simple way to find approximate cluster centres, and can be used as a pre-processor for other sophisticated clustering methods.

This technique builds and calculates a mountain function (or density function) at every possible position (or grid) in the data space, and chooses the position with the greatest density value as the centre of the first cluster. It then destroys the effect of the first cluster mountain function and finds the second cluster centre and so on. This process is repeated until the desired number of clusters has been found.

Mountain clustering is based on gridding the data space and computing a potential value for each grid point based on its distances to the actual data points. A grid point with many data points nearby will have a high potential value. The grid point with the highest potential value is chosen as the first cluster centre. The key idea in their method is that once the first cluster centre is chosen, the potential of all grid points is reduced according to their distance from the cluster centre. Grid points near the first cluster centre will have greatly reduced potential. The next cluster centre is then placed at the grid point with the highest potential. The new grid point repeats until the potential of all grid points falls below a threshold. In other words, this process continues until a sufficient number of clusters has been attained. The mathematical equations used for density measure and other related equations are available in [10]. Although this method is simple and effective, the computation grows exponentially with the dimension of the problem because the mountain function has to be evaluated at each grid point.

3.1.4 Subtractive clustering Algorithm

S. L. Chiu [11] proposed an extension of Yager and Filev’s mountain method, called subtractive clustering. Suppose that there is no clear idea of how many clusters there should be for a specified set of data. Subtracting clustering is a quick, one-pass algorithm for approximation of cluster centres and the number of clusters in a given set of data.

The problem with the previously discussed mountain clustering is that its computation grows exponentially with the dimension of the problem; that is because the mountain function has to be evaluated at each grid point. Subtracting clustering solves this problem by using data points as the candidates for cluster centres, instead of grid points as in mountain clustering. The technique used in subtractive clustering is similar to mountain clustering, except that instead of calculating the density function at every possible position in the data space, it uses the positions of the data points to calculate the density function, thus reducing the number of calculations significantly, making it linearly proportional to the number of input data instead of being exponentially proportional to its dimension. This means that the computation is now proportional to the problem size instead of the problem dimension.

Consider a collection of m data points \{X_1, \ldots, X_m\} in an N-dimensional space. Subtracting clustering assumes each data point as a potential cluster centre and calculates a measure of the potential for each data point based on the density of surrounding data points. The algorithm selects the data point with the highest density measure as the first cluster centre and then eradicates the potential of data points near the first cluster centre. The algorithm then selects the data point with the highest remaining potential (next highest density measure has been removed) as the next cluster centre and eradicates the potential of data points near this new cluster centre. This Process of acquiring a new cluster centre and eradicating the potential of surrounding data-points repeats until the potential of all data points fall below a threshold [12]. The range of influence of a cluster centre in each of the data dimensions is called cluster radius. The cluster radius specifies the range of influence of a cluster when you think the data space as a single hypercube. A small cluster radius will lead to find many small clusters in the data (resulting in many rules) and vice versa. The mathematical equations used for density measure and other related equations are available in [13].

The problem with this method is that sometimes the actual cluster centres are not necessarily located at one of the data points. However, this method provides a good approximation, especially with the reduced computation that this method offers. It also eliminates the need to specify a grid resolution, in which tradeoffs between accuracy and computational complexity must be considered. The subtractive clustering method also extends the mountain method’s criterion for accepting and rejecting cluster centres.
4 EXPERIMENTAL SET-UP AND RESULTS

This section describes the experimental set-up, results and performance evaluation of the proposed technique. We used MATLAB for implementation of all the four algorithms. KDD cup-99 dataset is used for experimental evaluation, as discussed earlier. It is very hard to execute the proposed technique on the KDD cup-99 dataset for estimating the performance, because it is a large scale and in order to compare the performance of techniques considered, we used a 10% subset of original KDD Cup-99 data set. We prepared the data set by dividing intrusions records of 10% KDD cup 99 data set in to two half’s, one half is used for Training and another for Testing. The whole data set consists of 54,226 data records, during training we considered 27,114 data records and during testing we considered 27,114 data records.

Attributes in the KDD Cup data sets had all forms of data like continuous, discrete, and symbolic, with significantly varying resolution and ranges. Most pattern classification methods are not able to process data in such a format. Hence pre-processing was required. Pre-processing consisted of two steps: first step involved mapping symbolic-valued attributes to numeric-valued attributes and second step implemented scaling. Attack names (like buffer-overflow, guess-passw, etc.) were first mapped to one of the five classes, 0 for Normal, 1 for Probe, 2 for DOS, 3 for U2R, and 4 for R2L, as described in [14].

This study involves the implementation of each of the four techniques introduced in previous section and testing each one of them on 10% KDD cup 99 data set related to intrusion detection which was discussed in section 2.3. Since there are 4 categories of attacks records (DOS, PROBE, R2L, and URL) & a normal (non attack) records are in KDD cup-99 data set, the number of clusters into which the data set is to be partitioned is five clusters. Because of the high number of dimensions in the problem (34-dimensions), no visual representation of the clusters can be presented only 2D and 3D clustering problems can be visually inspected. Here, we rely on performance measures to evaluate the clustering techniques under consideration. As mentioned earlier; the similarity metric used to calculate the similarity between an input vector and a cluster centre is the Euclidean distance.

Each clustering algorithm is presented with the training data set, and as a result five clusters formed. The data in the evaluation set is then tested against the found clusters and an analysis of the results is conducted. The following sections present the results of each clustering technique, followed by a comparison of the four techniques.

4.1 Evaluation of k-means clustering

Since the k-means algorithm initializes the cluster centres randomly, its performance is affected by those initial cluster centres. So, several runs of the algorithm is advised to have better results therefore the algorithm was tested for ten times to determine the best performance.

Evaluation of the algorithm is realized by testing the accuracy of the evaluation set. After the cluster centres are determined, the evaluation data vectors are assigned to their respective clusters according to the distance between each vector and each of the cluster centres. An error measure, the root mean square error (RMSE) is then calculated; is used for this purpose. Also an accuracy measure is calculated as the percentage of correctly classified vectors. To further measure how accurately the identified clusters represent the actual classification of data, a regression analysis is performed of the resultant clustering against the original classification. Performance is considered better if the regression line slope (RLS) is close to 1. The algorithm was tested for 10 times to determine the best performance. Table 1 lists the results. As seen from the results, the best case achieved 91.02% accuracy and an RMSE of 0.22 and regression slope is 0.8.

| No-of-Tests | RMSE | RLS | Accuracy  |
|-------------|------|-----|-----------|
| 1           | 0.21 | 0.7 | 90.23%    |
| 2           | 0.22 | 0.8 | 91.02%    |
| 3           | 0.30 | 0.62| 84.78%    |
| 4           | 0.29 | 0.69| 87.82%    |
| 5           | 0.30 | 0.62| 84.78%    |
| 6           | 0.30 | 0.62| 84.78%    |
| 7           | 0.22 | 0.8 | 91.02%    |
| 8           | 0.29 | 0.74| 87.82%    |
| 9           | 0.22 | 0.8 | 91.02%    |
| 10          | 0.29 | 0.74| 87.82%    |

Table 1: Performance Result of k-means Clustering.
4.2 Evaluation of Fuzzy c-means clustering

As it is the case in k-means clustering, FCM starts by assigning random values to the membership matrix U; thus several runs have to be conducted to have higher probability of getting good performance. However, the results showed no variation in performance or accuracy when the algorithm was run for several times. For testing the results, every vector in the evaluation data set is assigned to one of the clusters with a certain degree of belongingness (as done in the training set). The same performance measures applied in k-means clustering will be used here; however only the effect of the weighting exponent ‘m’ is analyzed, since the effect of random initial membership grades has insignificant effect on the final cluster centres. Table 2 lists the results of the tests with the effect of varying the weighting exponent ‘m’.

As seen from the results, the best case (Weighing Exponent m=8) achieved 91.89% accuracy and an RMSE of 0.28. It is noticed that very low or very high values for m reduces the accuracy; moreover high values tend to increase the time taken by the algorithm to find the clusters.

Table 2: Performance Result of Fuzzy c-means clustering

| Weighing Exponent ‘m’ | RMSE | RLS | Accuracy   |
|-----------------------|------|-----|------------|
| 1                     | 0.31 | 0.67| 83.57%     |
| 2                     | 0.30 | 0.62| 84.79%     |
| 5                     | 0.22 | 0.62| 91.36%     |
| 8                     | 0.28 | 0.69| 91.89%     |
| 10                    | 0.22 | 0.74| 91.22%     |
| 12                    | 0.38 | 0.71| 84.79%     |
| 15                    | 0.42 | 0.68| 82.97%     |

4.3 Evaluation of Mountain clustering

Mountain clustering relies on dividing the data space into grid points and calculating a mountain function at every grid point. This mountain function is a representation of the density of data at this point. The performance of mountain clustering is severely affected by the dimension of the problem; the computation needed rises exponentially with the dimension of input data because the mountain function has to be evaluated at each grid point in the data space. So for the problem at hand, with input data of 34-dimensions, 2700 training inputs, and a grid size of 10 per dimension, the required number of mountain function calculation obviously seems to be impractical for our problem.

In order to be able to test this algorithm, the dimension of the problem has to be reduced to a reasonable number; say, 8-dimensions. This is achieved by randomly selecting 8 variables from the input data out of the original and performing the test on those variables. Several tests involving differently selected random variables are conducted in order to have a better understanding of the results. Table 3 lists the results of 10 test runs of randomly selected variables.

Table 3: Performance Result of Mountain Clustering.

| No-of-Tests | RMSE | RLS | Accuracy |
|-------------|------|-----|----------|
| 1           | 0.46 | 0.55| 73.0%    |
| 2           | 0.36 | 0.75| 83.0%    |
| 3           | 0.46 | 0.54| 73.0%    |
| 4           | 0.39 | 0.71| 81.0%    |
| 5           | 0.49 | 0.63| 76.0%    |
| 6           | 0.47 | 0.55| 73.0%    |
| 7           | 0.46 | 0.56| 73.0%    |
| 8           | 0.43 | 0.69| 77.0%    |
| 9           | 0.44 | 0.35| 57.0%    |
| 10          | 0.38 | 0.75| 83.0%    |

The accuracy achieved ranged between 57% and 83% with an average of 75%, and average RMSE of 0.41. These results are quite discouraging compared to the results achieved in k-means and FCM clustering. This is due to the fact that not all of the variables of the input data contribute to the clustering process; only 8 are chosen at random to make it possible to conduct the tests.
However, with only 8 attributes chosen to do the tests, mountain clustering required far much more time than any other technique during the tests; this is because of the fact that the number of computation required is exponentially proportional to the number of dimensions in the problem. So apparently mountain clustering is not suitable for problems of dimensions higher than two or three.

4.4 Evaluation of Subtractive clustering

This method is similar to mountain clustering, with the difference that a density function is calculated only at every data point, instead of at every grid point. So the data points themselves are the candidates for cluster centres. This has the effect of reducing the number of computations significantly, making it linearly proportional to the number of input data instead of being exponentially proportional to its dimension.

Since the algorithm is fixed and does not rely on any randomness, the results are fixed. However, we can test the effect of the two variables \( r_a \) and \( r_b \) on the accuracy of the algorithm. Those variables represent a radius of neighbourhood after which the effect (or contribution) of other data points to the density function is diminished. Usually the \( r_b \) variable is taken to be as 1.5 \( r_a \). Table 4 shows the results of varying \( r_a \).

| Neighbourhood radius \( r_a \) | RMSE   | RLS | Accuracy   |
|-------------------------------|--------|-----|------------|
| 0.1                           | 0.32   | 0.43| 80.33%     |
| 0.3                           | 0.38   | 0.44| 81.14%     |
| 0.4                           | 0.44   | 0.47| 79.26%     |
| 0.5                           | 0.46   | 0.50| 78.27%     |
| 0.6                           | 0.46   | 0.50| 78.27%     |
| 0.8                           | 0.48   | 0.62| 72.43%     |

As seen from table 4, the maximum achieved accuracy was 78% with an RMSE of 0.46. Compared to k-means and FCM, this result is a little bit behind the accuracy achieved in those techniques.

4.5 Results comparison and review

According to the previous discussion of the implementation of the four data clustering techniques and their results, it is useful to summarize the results and present some comparison of performances. A summary of the best achieved results for each of the four clustering techniques is presented in Table 5. The comparative results expressed in graphical form are shown in Figure 5.

| Clustering Algorithms | Comparison aspect | RMSE | RLS | Accuracy |
|-----------------------|-------------------|------|-----|----------|
| K-means               |                   | 0.22 | 0.8 | 11.02%   |
| Fuzzy c-means        |                   | 0.28 | 0.69| 11.89%   |
| Mountain              |                   | 0.41 | 0.6 | 75.00%   |
| Subtractive           |                   | 0.46 | 0.50| 78.27%   |

From this comparison, we can conclude some remarks:

K-means clustering produces fairly higher accuracy and lower RMSE than the other techniques. Fuzzy-c-means produces close results to k-means clustering; however it requires more computation time than k-means since fuzzy measures calculations complicated the algorithm. In general, the FCM technique showed no strong improvement over the k-means clustering for this problem. Both showed close accuracy; moreover FCM was found to be slower than k-means because of fuzzy calculations.

Mountain clustering has a very poor performance regarding its requirement for huge number of computation and low accuracy. However, we have to notice that tests conducted on mountain clustering were done using part of the input variables in order to make it feasible to run the tests. Mountain clustering is suitable only for problems with two or three dimensions. In subtractive clustering, care has to be taken when choosing the value of the neighbourhood radii, since too small radii will result in neglecting the effect of neighbouring data points, while large radii will result in a neighbourhood of all the data points thus cancelling the effect of the cluster.

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5 CONCLUSION

Intrusion detection is an essential component of layered computer security mechanism. It requires accurate and efficient models for analysing a large amount of system and network audit data. Data mining techniques make it capable to search large quantity of data for distinctive rules and patterns. If correlated to network monitoring information recorded on a host or in a network, they can be used to identify intrusions, attacks and/or abnormalities. Clustering is a key task of explorative data mining. The main advantage that clustering provides is the ability to learn from and detect intrusions in the audit data, while not requiring the system administrator to provide explicit description of various attack types. As a result, the amount of training data that needs to be provided to the anomaly detection system is reduced.

In this paper we discussed the overview of performance evaluation of data mining techniques, in particular clustering techniques used to build intrusion detection model. Four clustering techniques have been reviewed in this paper, namely: k-means, Fuzzy c-means, Mountain and Subtractive clustering. The four methods have been implemented and tested against an intrusion detection data set called KDD cup-99. The comparative study done here is concerned with the accuracy of each algorithm, with care being taken toward the efficiency in calculation and other performance measures like RMSE and RLS. The problem presented here is of high number of dimensions. The FCM technique showed no strong improvement over the k-means clustering for this problem. Both showed close accuracy (accuracy of FCM is 91.89% and K-means is 91.02%); moreover FCM was found to be slower than k-means because of fuzzy calculations. However in the problems where the number of clusters is not known, k-means and FCM cannot be used to solve, leaving the choice only to mountain or subtractive clustering. Mountain clustering (accuracy is 75%) is not a good techniques for problems with this high number of dimensions due to its exponential proportionality to the dimension of the problem. With subtractive clustering (accuracy is 78.27%), result is a little bit behind the accuracy achieved compared to k-means and FCM techniques. K-means clustering seemed to over perform the other techniques for this type of problem.

Finally, the clustering techniques discussed here do not have to be used as stand-alone approaches; they can be used in conjunction with other neural or fuzzy systems for further refinement of the overall system performance.

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