

A Real-time In-Vehicle Network Testbed for Machine Learning-based IDS Training and Validation

Hesamaddin Adabi¹, Amirhossein Tavakoli¹, Hsuan-Guang Nguay, Erma Doga² and Giraj Shahkhh

¹Systems Security Group, Centre for Future Transport and Cities
²CEMSchool, EEC, Coventry University, Coventry, UK

Abstract

Modern vehicles are built of onboard networked computers, known as ECUs, providing a wide range of functionality and features. Due to their connectivity, modern vehicles are exposed to various vectors including wired (e.g., CAN, Lin) and wireless (e.g., Bluetooth, Wi-Fi). To facilitate building and validating security measures against threats on-board networks and their components, along with a connection to external networks, we propose a multi-component testbed representing a flexible environment for training and validating machine learning-based Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS).

Key words

Automotive security, testbed, machine learning

1. Introduction

Modern vehicles comprise multiple networked computers (ECUs), to realise a range of functionality and features. These ECUs are interconnected via various networks, including typically a data bus known as the CAN bus. Modern vehicles are an example of a Cyber-Physical System (CPS).

Due to a combination of connectivity (over various networks) and features (e.g., sensors, actuators and devices), modern vehicles are also subject to cyber-attacks. Connections of sensors, actuators and devices, modern vehicles are exposed to various vectors including wired (e.g., USB) or wireless (e.g., Bluetooth, Wi-Fi). Therefore, the various computing systems embedded in modern vehicles are considered as a closed network, and opportunities for cyber-attacks on automotive networks have become a reality. It has been shown that a serious impact to the safety of a vehicle if packets are intercepted or modified on a wired network. A number of articles have investigated the security of modern vehicles focusing on specific goals and vulnerabilities.

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E.abc@coventry.ac.uk; a.adabi@coventry.ac.uk; h.tavakoli@coventry.ac.uk; h.nguay@coventry.ac.uk; e.doga@coventry.ac.uk; g.shahkhh@coventry.ac.uk



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Counteracting automotive cybersecurity threats requires counter measures, detection methods and resolution challenges specific to the automotive field. First, it is distributed systems. Conducting tests on live vehicles is costly to property and life. It also presents challenges regarding where researchers may not have access to rolling roads or proving grounds. It is understandable why research into automotive cybersecurity using offline experiments on private testbeds is a challenge concerning ensuring the scope and validity of a range of conditions and operating scenarios would be difficult for controlling factors such as the weather, environmental conditions, and challenges may be compounded when testing attack detection and learning, where the behaviours of the components may change. Vigorous testing needs to account for system interactions and dependencies. Studying behaviours of the vehicle components in isolation is not sufficient. To facilitate building and validation of security solutions for automotive CPS, it is vital to replicate the on-board environment with a connected external environment representing the real world in an instrumental and controllable environment. Such an environment should support:

- assessing the resilience of components, subsystems and the vehicle as part of a mix of commodity and bespoke multi-vehicle architectures.
- tracing and auditing low-level behaviours for evidence of attacks.
- amassing datasets for industry use and wider experimental and developer communities.

While several in-vehicle testbeds have been proposed recently, they only focus on the in-vehicle network components and unrealistic driving scenarios. This means any datasets generated for training and validating machine learning-based solutions are used to rapidly detect cyberattacks on in-vehicle components. In this paper, we propose a multi-component testbed for in-vehicle architecture for real environment trial solutions. Our contribution is the logical design and implementation of a testbed that allows cybersecurity researchers and engineers an instrumented environment for testing network components. This testbed will provide various features:

- A CAN Bus representing a full-scale functional in-vehicle network.
- Support for generating realistic driving scenarios.
- A plug-and-play facility for testing and evaluation of components such as telematics, sensors, infotainment, in-cabin and external devices.
- Support for integrating security solutions for the vehicle.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents an overview of automotive cybersecurity testing. It focuses on the challenges and requirements for testing in-vehicle components.

for investigating cybersecurity threats. OCTANE, Real world V2I Prototype Testbed and Developing a QR hybrid testing environments. All other testbeds rely on existing standards. Table 1 lists the most recent and relevant testbeds (introduced in 2018), categorised initially based on their platform structure. Testbeds should also be evaluated based on their various characteristics: portability, fidelity, cost and types of attacks, attack protocols supported. This characterisation is essential for selecting testbeds for the testing scenarios.

To facilitate the testbeds for more thorough and optimised based on existing and emerging standards for cybersecurity, this framework enables the automotive cyber security tests and a systematic process for cybersecurity based on ISO/SAE DIS 21343. This framework extends beyond its common structure to utilise additional tools and techniques.

2.2. Automotive Cybersecurity Attacks and Detection

Attacks to the CAN network entail the attacker taking control of the vehicle. This might disrupt the packet broadcast rates, for example by flooding the network with fabricated packets, thus increasing the network load. Although immediately disruptive, such crude attacks are often detectable. Potentially more difficult to detect are attacks that subtly alter information presentation. For example, an attacker might inject data payloads. Such attacks might be used to systematically change the car performance or efficiency. This is often done by fabricating data from attack systems masquerading as legitimate content.

A well-publicised example of a fake speedometer required the attacker to inject packets that contained plausible, but altered speed data. The driver, believing the car was travelling more slowly - this is often used to activate park-assist, to be activated. A problem in detecting such attacks is that values remain within legitimate bounds, so might not be detected.

Two common approaches to detecting attacks on any communication system are signature approaches and anomaly approaches. Signature approaches compare traffic patterns against rule bases. Although these approaches are effective, their ability to determine, encode and distribute evolving signatures for automotive CAN systems because (i) the data derivation is complex and (ii) cars have diverse locations, usage patterns and update signature databases; and, (iii) the attack signatures are often unknown. Anomaly approaches for detecting CAN attacks are more general. Anomaly approaches seek to use statistical or machine learning techniques that are indicative of attacks. They tend to be more prone to false positives, detect novel attacks, are less reliant on maintaining a database of known attacks.

across car models. But they assume that ample data is available for generating test data and testing detection methods when attempted on real vehicles. This has led to the development of security methods using data from previous tests (e.g. [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]). Such methods are safer than attacking real vehicles as they give the researcher control over the attack manifesting in the testbed. However, attack data may be difficult to fabricate; and packet capture on connected systems or ECUs are difficult to accurately replicate. A major complication is presented by the packet arbitration and collision resolution protocol (discussed in Section 3.1) where the priority, curtailment of CAN packets, and for the validity of testing would need to be considered.

3. Background

In this section, we recall the CAN-BUS protocol, the testbed. We also briefly review the two simulator semantics for the CAN-BUS network activity. We also outline an example of integration as a demonstration of integration into our testbed.

3.1. CAN-BUS - an in-vehicle communication protocol

Internal vehicle networks which provide the ECUs communication standard. The CAN 2.0 and SAE J1939 protocols are the most common for passenger and heavy-duty vehicles, respectively. In addition to its range of adoption, its use in automotive applications are its range of adoption, its use in automotive applications (with FlexRay, TTE, etc.), its robustness, and its ability to support multiple nodes. The physical structure of CAN comprises a shared physical bus where all nodes are connected. These nodes can transmit/receive data on the bus. When any node transmits a logical zero then the bus only receives a logical one. As CAN is an event-based protocol, a synchronised start of communication for all of its nodes. CAN frames which can be transmitted periodically or on demand. A CAN frame includes seven distinct fields: Identifier, Arbitration, Control, Data, CRC, Ack, EOF. Most important is the Identifier which holds an 11-bit identifier and is used to distinguish between smaller identifiers having higher priority [1].

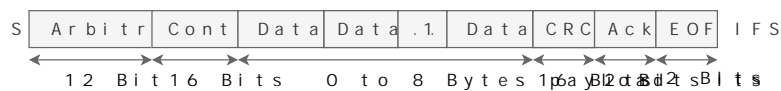


Figure 3.1: CAN data frame format

The CAN-BUS protocol specification is able to format these frames includes two sections of flag and delimiter interrupts the normal frames, thus indicating the error are used for flow control by the receiver [

Despite the popularity of the CAN, several related reports [1,2] there is no message authentication mechanism vulnerabilities are associated with this. This means a message with its sender and thus fails to distinguish a message. Additionally, the absence of any encryption of a message's integrity and confidentiality by an encryption challenging due to the low computational power of the such as lack of backward compatibility, cost and in some other cases [3]. These reasons make it convenient for any device on a CAN bus to listen and intercept messages.

3.2. CANoe - an in-vehicle network simulator

CANoe [4], from Vector, is a software application primarily used by OEMs and ECU suppliers for developing, simulating, and testing ECUs. An advantage of CANoe is the faithful simulation of timing accuracy and the support of multiple vehicle configurations using Communication Application Programming Language (CAPL) developed by Vector Information Systems. Additionally, CANoe supports hybrid network configurations where one part of a network is simulated while the other is physically set up.

In the testbed, the physical CAN bus network of the vehicle is connected to the simulated one in CANoe via a CAN bus interface device.

CANoe enables communication with 3rd party applications and provides outputs for the simulation. In particular, CANoe uses CANoe enables bi-directional data exchange with other applications. Additionally, CANoe provides car physical data which are sent to CANoe simulation. CARLA and CANoe, the timers in Python programs is deployed to simulate virtual ECUs simulated in CANoe to function and generate data as well as the physical one. Conversely, any CAN messages at creating effects on the simulated vehicles are transferred to CARLA also by FDX. They enable CARLA to simulate the simulated car. Therefore, CARLA functionalities are used to receive data and secondly to realise the effects of received CAN messages on the simulated car.

CANoe enables the researchers with tools for real-time simulation options such as message timing, easy observation of data, analysis, time-synchronous analysis of multiple bus messages and various types of stimulation of network traffic. Hence more realistic scenarios can be implemented.

3.3. CARLA - a car simulator

CARLA [41] is an open-source simulator for autonomous vehicles. It includes autonomous driving baselines, Robot Operating System (ROS) repeatable and customizable traffic scenarios, flexible simulation, including traffic generation, pedestrian generation, traffic scenarios simulation and a wide range of sensor data (images, depth, semantics, Lidar). Furthermore, simulation can be controlled using car-like inputs such as steering wheels and foot pedals, which can be exchanged with 3rd party applications via a Python plugin. CARLA runs on a separate PC.

3.4. Example CAN bus IDS classifier

Later in this paper we show how IDS methods can be implemented in a real-world demonstration and validation. Our goal here is not to describe a particular IDS method, but we use for demonstration a method from [42], where the reader can find a full explanation of its details.

The approach assumes that the role of each CAN packet is to represent a specific data variation specific to the make and model of cars. We identify CAN data fields which might be combined to provide a likely sensor data fields (including fields that might be identified by the statistical profiles and pairwise characteristics of CAN packets identified. Next, a clustering algorithm is used to identify sensor data fields which might be split into functional clusters.

Having determined a candidate cluster, a buffer is used to store data from each field in the cluster. Thus, at each packet broadcast, the data in the cluster are examined together as a snapshot. This provides a contextual gauge for evaluating each of its components. The cluster can be used for anomaly detection using a classifier. If some of the data fields might appear anomalous across the whole cluster.

A one-class classifier is used since this might determine if an anomaly data is not yet available, or cannot be obtained. One-class classifiers have been considered in [43]. For our demonstration, we use a One-class Support Vector Machine (SVM). We try to find the largest margin between the projected training data - dense region and the target region. The target region is thus classified as anomalous relative to the margin. For this demonstration, we use a linear SVM (with kernel gamma 0.015 and gamma 0.5). For classifier training data, multiple samples are used. During online testing, the current snapshot is classified.

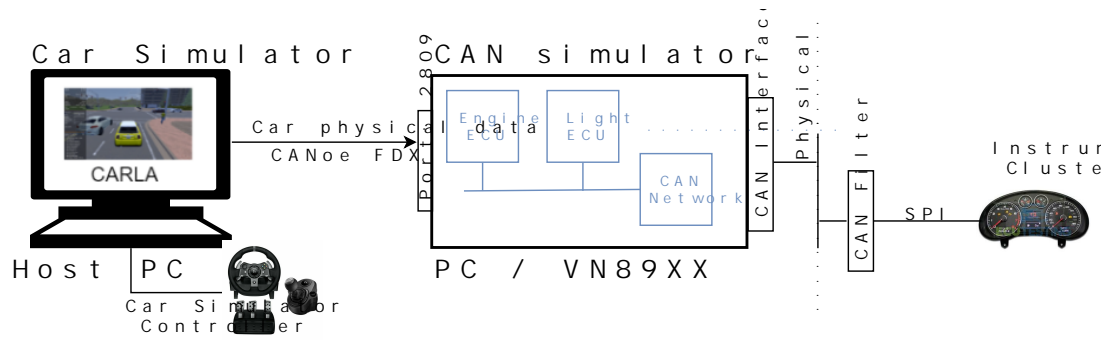


Figure 2 - Test bed configuration

4. Test bed

This section presents our test bed which facilitates both on-vehicle networks. First, the logical design of the test bed is provided. The detail of the test bed implementation is provided in the next section.

4.1. Logical Design

The system is designed to meet the basic requirements that any autonomous vehicle security technology development demonstrator consists of a car simulator, an on-board network simulator, and a data storage service. The logical setup of the test bed is shown in Figure 3. The car simulator is used to generate car physical data for the on-board network simulator. The on-board network simulator is used to simulate the on-board network.

The simulated network contains several virtual ECUs such as Engine ECU, Transmission ECU and Light ECUs. The virtual car physical data from the car simulator to generate physical network is attached to the simulated network.

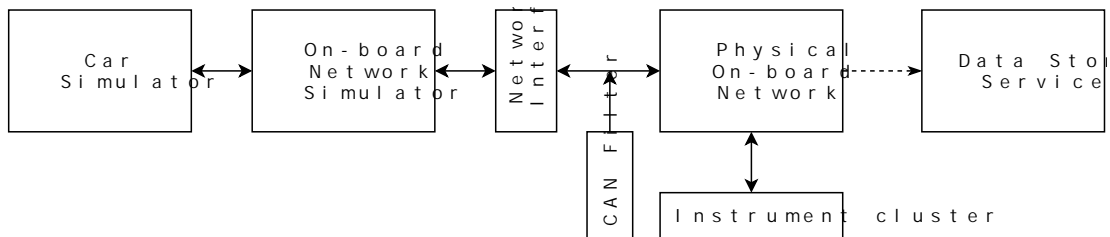


Figure 3 - Logical setup of the demonstrator

In the next section, the components of the logical setup are described.

illustrated in Figure

4.2. Implementation

In this section, implementation details of a test bed described. The proposed automotive test bed includes a simulator, a physical network, a real car's instrument

Figure 4 provides an overview of the test bed architecture and its CAN bus network is realised within a virtual environment simulator. The network and car simulation is run on separate machine, respectively. The Vector hardware layer, where an additional physical component required proposed test bed, a real car's instrument cluster and hardware simulator to form the physical CAN bus network. The test bed's operational capability to perform real simulation setup creates a realistic framework of physical bus and with simulated ECUs via the virtual driving behaviour, a full set of driving wheel, pedal simulator.

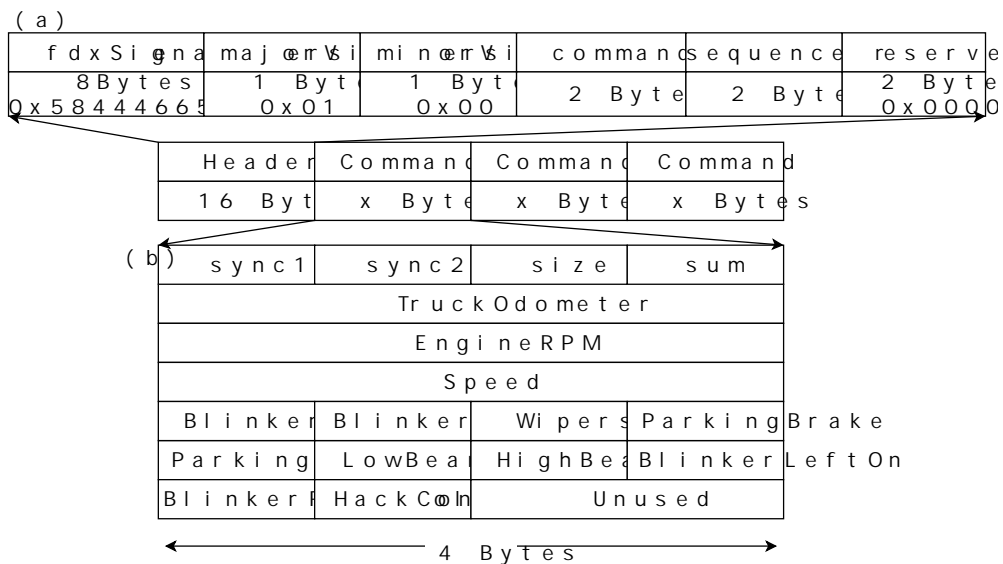


Figure 4: datagram layout consisting two major sections: a) of a FDX signature, b) 28 bytes of datagram command

CARLA is used as the car simulator to generate car physical simulator. These include engine information such as gear, acceleration throttle, and brake status. Also Vector CANoe is employed. CARLA generates realistic CANoe by Fast Data Exchange (FDX).

CANoe FDX is a UDP-based protocol (User Datagram Protocol) for real-time exchange of data between CANoe and other software. This protocol enables other 3rd party software both in the simulation environment variables, and bus signals. To this end, engine and simulated car information including Engine RPM, Speed, etc. are sent by CARLA. UDP is a commonly used protocol which uses a transmission model which means often there must be a receiver. In CARLA [45]. As there is no pre-defined UDP stack available in CARLA, it is implemented prior to use. The transmitted data by CANoe is reciprocal transmission of the UDP on a specific port. CANoe sends a datagram to CANoe first and therefore has to know the IP address by CANoe for the FDX protocol. CANoe evaluates all incoming data sender's IP address and port number and always responds to the data. UDP Client in python is a convenient way of sending data. Therefore, the UDP Client is the implementation of a designated socket in CARLA python code in order to communicate with CANoe. The port number and the IP address of the CAN simulation in Figure 4 are new command section including the selected entire process is implemented in CARLA in order to continuously send the telemetry data while the game is running. Receiving these FDX messages requires configuring CANoe to receive the incoming data in an appropriate order. The configuration is done by a FDX description file and added to the CANoe configuration Extensible Markup Language (XML) file. It specifies the data groups that is being sent reciprocally by CARLA. The two data groups: groupID '1' and '2'. Each data group contains data. In the proposed testbed, groupID '1' and '2' are used to send data to CANoe, therefore the FDX option must also be enabled. The configuration is done by the edit option within the CANoe configuration. Several parameters given to the data group members such as group size and type.

A separate machine is used to configure the simulated virtual ECUs. To maintain timing in CARLA and CANoe, the simulation are deployed. The simulation configuration is then loaded (VN8914) with the communication module (VN8972) to the CANoe. The simulated CAN messages are transmitted to the physical instrument cluster through the hacking device through the CAN bus. The hacking device is a CAN filter that can manipulate the CAN bus and one or more ECUs. To realise the CAN filter, the CANoe is used in the testbed. It features two CAN interfaces, one is connected to the instrument cluster. We implement a CANoe MCU so that it is acted as a mileage corrector. The CANoe In mode 1, it is inactivated. This means the CAN filter receives from the interface to the CAN Bus to the other

cluster. In modes 2, 3 and 4, the CAN filter is activated for the CAN frames to reduce the incremental rate of the

- In mode 2, the incremental rate of the odometer increases by only 1 mile.
- In mode 3, the incremental rate of the odometer increases by only 5 miles.
- In mode 4, the incremental rate of the odometer does not increase.

One can switch between the modes by quickly flashing the four times. The CAN filter starts with the first mode into mode 1, then switches it back to mode 1. The filtered CAN messages are then sent to the real time IDS.

5. IDS Integration

In this section we show how the testbed employing a Sec 4 can be used for testing a potential IDS implementation in Sec 3.4. In this section, following CAN packet log analysis, a classifier is trained offline using captured CAN logs from the testbed.

5.1. Cluster Detection and Offline Training

Analysis of the packet flow generated by the CARLA simulator broadcast per second, with a mean broadcast interval of 100ms. CAN packets were identified. The 4 clusters were identified as a cluster which was used for the subsequent training data, the log from a 30-minute journey was captured as snapshots. The classifier was then trained offline using the fitted model and the scaling objects are saved using pickle and can be loaded into our intrusion detection script and

5.2. Online Testing

The online testing using the trained classifier and the script to run our Python intrusion detection script on a laptop using the LightHS v2 logger.

The script reads the CAN messages via the CAN channel and requires drivers (e.g. Kvaser Driver for Windows) to connect to the CAN channel. Python-can is broadcast, including the ID and eight data fields.

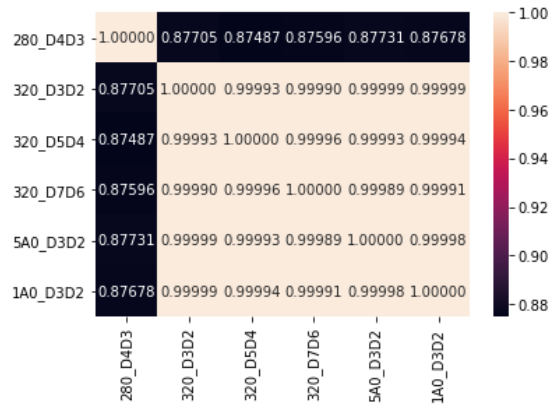


Figure 5: Relation matrix of CAN data fields from a correlated

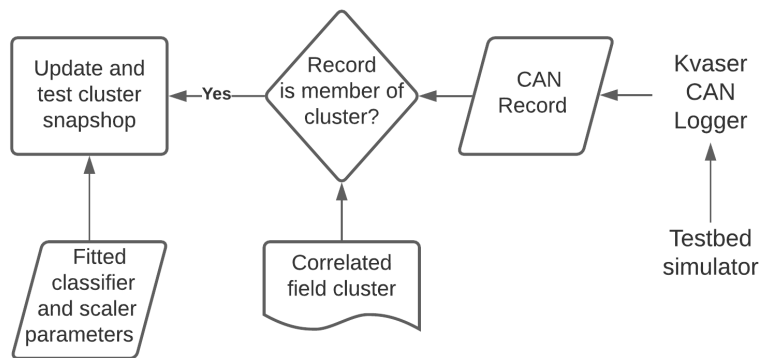


Figure 6: Overview of the online process for the IDS

As each packet is detected, the script checks the ID of the packet. If it is in the cluster list, its relevant data fields are extracted. The resulting integer field values are updated in the cluster list. The data is then fed to the classifier, which uses the pickled model from the training stage. The snapshot is then classified. If the prediction is an anomaly, the CAN packet is considered an anomaly.

5.3. Experiment Results

Prior to testing on the testbed, we tested the classifier against output generated by replaying previously captured data. The data for this used different journeys to those used in the training. A 30-minute journey representing one of the operational scenarios was fed into the trained IDS to make predictions. The evaluation is facilitated by two counters in the IDS to count how many times it predicts "inactive" or "active".

values of the counters in each run, we observed that the accuracy of the IDS is 100% on the test bed, 76% on the test bed using replay on the virtual CAN logs on a laptop. The accuracy of the IDS is 100% on the test bed, 76% on the test bed using replay on the virtual CAN logs on a laptop.

Table 2

Results from testing the IDS via replay of CAN logs on a virtual CAN bus

CAN Filter	Mode	Count
Mode 1 (inactive)	25155	556672
Mode 2 (active)	406834	156727
Mode 3 (active)	382645	172793
Mode 4 (active)	378270	177498

In comparison, we evaluated the IDS online by plug-messages between the instrument cluster and the CAN filter. We ran the test four times, each time running 30 minutes in one of the four modes. In spite of the high throughput, the IDS was able to process each in real-time. Clearly, an alternative hardware compared to the laptop we used, the evaluation of alternative implementations. Similar results are described in Table 3.

Table 3

Results from live-testing the Online IDS on the test bed

CAN Filter	Mode	Count
Mode 1 (inactive)	359336	143963
Mode 2 (active)	392678	177223
Mode 3 (active)	426188	143715
Mode 4 (active)	376455	193490

The test bed data, which was processed in real-time, in the CAN replay, showed more false positives in classifying the data. The accuracy of the IDS is 100% on the test bed, 76% on the test bed using replay on the virtual CAN logs on a laptop. The accuracy of the IDS is 100% on the test bed, 76% on the test bed using replay on the virtual CAN logs on a laptop.

The reasons for the reduced detection accuracy on the test bed are as follows. The log was replayed at the fastest available replay rate. Also, perhaps a difference in the speed of transmission calculations on the laptop running the IDS script. The results observed on the test bed car operation that was not captured in the log used for the virtual CAN testing. It is thus possible that more training data might be required to improve the live testing. A further cause of poor prediction might stem from the fact that more research is needed to refine and test this. What the results indicate the need for further exploration. The results highlight the benefit of using the test bed for validation.

driving behaviours and experiences might be different were collected for training. The approach adopted, where data derivations are unknown, clearly cannot give a clue as to what the data represents. Also, without a more thorough analysis, whether convoluted manipulations or conditional calculations were used on the data. These would reduce the detection reliability.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we presented a novel approach for building a testbed that comprises both a full-scale in-vehicle network and a realistic driving scenarios. The in-vehicle network is designed to resemble a real CAN Bus within a vehicle to a high degree of flexibility in terms of configuration of the network in terms of (1) real-time enrichment of simulations and (2) allowing plug-n-play. To this end, we realised driving scenarios by employing a customisable environment with respect to driving environments (e.g. as an input to the CAN Bus to generate realistic CAN traffic) for generating datasets and testing machine learning-based models.

This was illustrated by the example of training and testing a classifier in real-time using the testbed revealed that the performance performed by running the trained classifier offline against real-world data is poorer than the performance performed by running the classifier on the testbed. The reasons for the poorer detection and the circumstances under which this occurs, need investigating - something the testbed can help with by providing diverse driving scenarios. It is conjectured that the differences in driving experiences, and those captured when collecting data from the testbed, contribute to the reduction of the implemented IDS accuracy when tested on real-world data compared against running a virtual simulation. The testbed for validating the trained model against the live-journey replicating testbed can uncover issues in offline testing.

While this paper only focused on the IDS as an anomaly detection method, other methods such as potentially against nearest neighbour methods will be benchmarked against each other to further improve their accuracy. Additionally, more physical components need to be included to include more abuse cases. Also, the data exchange will be used to study the effect of anomaly in the driving behavior.

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