Bot-hunter: A Tiered Approach to Detecting & Characterizing Automated Activity on Twitter

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Abstract. As malicious automated agents, or bots, are increasingly used to manipulate the global marketplace of information and beliefs, their detection, characterization, and at times neutralization is an important aspect of national security operations. Unhindered, these information campaigns, assisted by automated agents, can begin slowly changing a society and its norms. Within this context, we seek to lay the groundwork for bot-hunter, a Tiered Approach to bot detection and characterization, while simultaneously presenting an event based method for annotating data.

1 Introduction

Although social media bots can create positive effects, a subset of malicious bots have recently gained widespread notoriety for their intervention and manipulation of the marketplace of information, ideas, and beliefs [13,15,17]. This subset of malicious bots are involved in propaganda [15], suppression of dissent [21], and network infiltration/manipulation [115]. While their communication is often less sophisticated and nuanced than human dialogue, their advantage is the ability to conduct timely informational transactions effortlessly at the speed of algorithms. This advantage has led to a variety of creative autonomous agents deployed for beneficial as well as harmful effects. While their purpose, characteristics, and “puppet masters” vary widely, they are undeniably present and active. Their effect, while difficult if not impossible to measure, is tangible.

Detecting/neutralizing these malicious automated agents is a part of an emerging area of research that has recently been called Social Cyber Security [8]. According to Carley et al [8], the focus of this emerging discipline is …to characterize, understand, and forecast cyber-mediated changes in human behavior, social, cultural and political outcomes, and to build the cyber-infrastructure needed for society to persist in its essential character in a cyber-mediated information environment under changing conditions, actual or imminent social cyber-threats. Under this umbrella of Social Cyber Security, our research hopes to weld together and expand several existing bot detection/characterization methods, specifically focusing on the Twitter Micro-blogging platform.
This paper lays the foundation for a tiered supervised machine learning approach to bot detection and characterization. Additionally, it highlights the novel use of event oriented bot annotation. We believe that, while leveraging traditional machine learning models, our efforts to build training data are as important if not more important than our efforts to improve models and feature space.

Our research has identified several tiers of Twitter data collection and related machine learning features and models. The constraints of data availability and rate limiting associated with the Twitter API [2] create these Tiers, which are summarized in Table 1. These tiers are cumulative (i.e. Tier 2 includes features from Tier 0 and 1). There is a trade off between richness of data and the computation time to extract, build features, and classify accounts. We recognized the need to have a multi-tiered approach that provides capability at each of these tiers. The model selected will depend largely on the data available as well as whether the specific use case requires high accuracy or high volume. A Tier 1 model is designed for characterizing bot activity in large data streams, while a Tier 3 model would be applied to problems that require high accuracy on a limited number of active accounts (i.e. not suspended).

Table 1: Four tiers of Twitter data collection to support account classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tier</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Collect/process Time per 250 Accounts</th>
<th># of Data Entities (i.e. tweets)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tier 0</td>
<td>Tweet text only</td>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td>N/A**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tier 1</td>
<td>Account + 1 Tweet</td>
<td>Account Meta-data</td>
<td>~1.9 seconds</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tier 2</td>
<td>Account + Timeline</td>
<td>Temporal patterns</td>
<td>~3.7 minutes</td>
<td>200+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tier 3</td>
<td>Account + Timeline + Friends Timeline</td>
<td>Network patterns</td>
<td>~20 hours</td>
<td>50,000+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While numerous research efforts have attempted to exploit pieces and parts of this data spectrum, few have attempted to create a comprehensive approach that covers all tiers. The closest effort that we’ve seen is the Botometer effort discussed later in this paper. While offering an robust model through an accessible API, it is only offered at Tier 2, meaning high volume classification is computationally expensive. Additionally, if does not exploit the rich network features available at Tier 3. This paper seeks to lay the groundwork for this comprehensive Tiered Approach, discuss event focused data annotation, as well as build and evaluate a Tier 1 model. Future research for the bot-hunter suite of models will specifically focus on the elusive third Tier.
2 Data

In this section we present an event-oriented approach to data annotation. Rather than use honey pots [4] or suspended accounts [4] to annotate bot accounts, as past efforts have done, our effort focused on forensic analysis and data collection related to reported bot events. Given certain bot intimidation attacks, if the collection is performed properly, it becomes easy to label certain accounts as likely automated.

We decided to focus on a known and publicized bot attack against the Atlantic Council Digital Forensic Labs (DFR Lab), and tangentially against the NATO Public Affairs Office [18]. This attack primarily occurred between 28 August and 30 August 2017. On 28 August the Daily Beast posted an article about an alleged intimidation attack against the DFR Lab Bot Research Team. When DFR Labs and NATO Press shared this news article on Twitter, they were immediately harassed by thousands of bots. This bot attack was also accompanied by targeted intimidation against DFR Lab employees both on and offline [18].

Using the unique phrases and hashtags that were amplified in this event, we were conducted a targeted query on the Twitter REST API to collect the data for this event. Both the DFR Lab Twitter Account (@DFRLab) and the NATO Public Affairs Account (@NATOPress) respectively average 130 and 43 interactions (retweet, follow, like, etc.) on their accounts on a daily basis. At the height of the bot attack they were averaging 6,000 interactions per hour. As illustrated in Figure 1, we were able to label 99% of this activity as bot activity, which we confirmed manually with random sampling. This method provided us with approximately 19,221 accounts that we could easily label as a bot. In April 2018 (8 months after the incident) we checked on these accounts, and found that of the 19,221 original accounts, 18,360 had been suspended, and 12 had been deleted by the user. This means that 95.5% of those accounts are now suspended, validating our targeted collection strategy.

We found that a number of accounts used a randomly generated alphanumeric 15 character strings for the screen name such as Wy3wU4HegLlvHgC (not an real account). Our team has observed this in other bot attacks [15], and separately used this phenomenon to annotate a large bot training set [6]. Additionally, we found that 60% of our bot accounts had a profile image. Conducting a reverse Google lookup of the image, we found that many Twitter Accounts used the same profile image. This seems to provide evidence that these accounts are mass produced with the same stock photo or hijacked profile image. We found that the mean age of bot accounts (3.9 years) was statistically greater than the mean age of human accounts (3.36 years) with $p.value = 2.2e^{-16}$.

In exploring the account time-line (account history), we found that 43.5% of their statuses were retweets. Content involved a wide variety of topics (sports, news, advertisement, explicit content, etc) and was from a variety of languages. The random nature of this content leads us to hypothesize that the actors behind this attack are either using or imitating “bot-for-hire” accounts which post content to support a variety of actors that hire them. These observations reflect a change in bot tactics from what researchers have observed in the past. These
same observations and hypothesis have also been made by leaders at DFR Labs [18]. Many of the accounts demonstrated unique temporal patterns strongly associated with automated accounts. These accounts would launch a “volley” of 24-26 tweets (all re-tweets) once every 24-26 hours.

In order to train a model, we also needed accounts that we could tag as “human”, and not automated. We used the Twitter Streaming API to collect a sample of normal Twitter data, intentionally collecting both weekend and weekday data. From this data we randomly selected 70,000 accounts to tag as human Twitter accounts that we can sample from for training. Past research has estimated that 5-8% of twitter accounts are automated [20]. If this is true, then we mis-labeled a small amount of our accounts as human. We assessed that this was an acceptable amount of noise in the data, but that it will undoubtedly limit the performance of supervised learning models that train and test on the data.

### 2.1 Feature Engineering

Our feature engineering started with one driving constraint; we wanted to limit features to those available in Tier 1, namely the basic Twitter JSON. Most researcher who collect Twitter data, whether from the REST API or the Streaming API, will collect basic Twitter JSON data. This JSON represents each individual tweet (or status), meta-data associated with the Tweet, and the user object and user profile data [1]. This JSON data is relatively easy to collect, and both the Streaming and REST API’s can provide ~ 8K tweets per minute. Given this driving constraint, we developed the features described in Table 2.
Table 2: Features by Tier 1 Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>User Attributes</th>
<th>Network Attributes</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Timing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>screen name length</td>
<td># of friends</td>
<td>Is last status retweet?</td>
<td>account age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>default profile image?</td>
<td># of followers</td>
<td>same language?</td>
<td>avg tweets per day</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>screen name entropy</td>
<td># of favorites</td>
<td>hashtags</td>
<td>last status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has location?</td>
<td></td>
<td>mentions</td>
<td>last status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total tweets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source (binned)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Our team has not found any other team that has used screen name entropy, same language?, and bot reference for a Tier 1 model. The screen name entropy feature leverages Shannon string entropy of the user screen name. Shannon entropy is defined in [1] where $p_i$ is the normalized count for each character found in the string.

$$H(A) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \log_2 p_i$$

(1)

The same language feature represents whether or not the user object and the status object have the same language. The bot reference feature represents whether or not the account describes itself as a bot (‘bot’ in name/description).

3 Models and Performance

We evaluated several traditional supervised machine learning models on the feature space described above. We chose to evaluate Naïve Bayes, Logistic Regression, Support Vector Machine (SVM), Decision Trees, and Random Forest models. All of these models have been used in previous bot research attempts.

The baseline model performance for all models is provided in Table 3. Given that the Random Forest model performed best (as found in other similar research [20]), we achieved $AUC = 0.994$ with tuning. Random Forest will support Tiers 1-3 of the bot-hunter framework. SVM is used for the Tier 0 model as described in [6].

Table 3: Baseline Model Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>AUC</th>
<th>Precision</th>
<th>Recall</th>
<th>Kappa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Naïve Bayes</td>
<td>0.611</td>
<td>0.885</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>0.989</td>
<td>0.220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>0.660</td>
<td>0.921</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>0.319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistic Regression</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.973</td>
<td>0.816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J48 Decision Tree</td>
<td>0.963</td>
<td>0.963</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>0.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Random Forest</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>0.994</td>
<td>0.996</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>0.962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4 Related Work

Many efforts have attempted to classify bots, leveraging supervised and unsupervised machine learning as well as crowd-sourcing, community detection, and correlated accounts [3]. The first deliberate detection of automated accounts on the Twitter Platform began in 2010 when [9] conducted three-class classification (human, bot, cyborg) using an ensemble model. Other early works investigated automated accounts from the perspective of spam and spam prevention [23, 12, 19]. In 2011, a team from Texas A&M became the first team to leverage honey pots to annotate bots [14]. These honey pots used bots that generate nonsensical content, designed only to attract other bots.

In 2014, Indiana University and the University of Southern California launched the Bot or Not online API service [10] (later rebranded as Botometer). This research used supervised machine learning algorithms on 1,150+ features extracted from the user and time-line objects (Tier 2 model in our framework) trained on the Texas A&M dataset to help users evaluate whether or not an account is a bot [20]. The Botometer model is the primary tool leveraged for applied bot research today [22].

While these and other research efforts have created adequate models with specific subsets of the data, we have not found research at Tier 3, or research that combines these models into a comprehensive suite of tools.

5 Conclusions and Future Work

This paper lays the groundwork for a Tiered approach to bot detection while simultaneously presenting an event-based approach to bot data annotation. This Tiered approach with representative training data will allow researchers and organizations/agencies to choose from a selection of models based on their given needs and data. The performance of our Tier 1 model is comparable to the performance of other similar models (namely the Botometer algorithm), and is adequate as a baseline model. This specific model was developed for high volume, and is very helpful when trying to measure overall bot penetration in a large twitter collection/stream. Additionally, bot-hunter can run on existing data rather than requiring the Botometer API to recollect data that the researchers may already have.

Future research will build out the feature space and models for Tiers 2 and 3, with a focus on Tier 3 since network and content features from robust snowball sampling has not been previously explored. Additionally, we look to fuse several event based data sets with the diverse data we’ve collected through random string classification [6], as well as historical data such as the original Texas A&M data in order to build a robust and diverse training data set. Initial testing with various data sets shows evidence that data selection may be as important if not more important than feature engineering and model selection.
ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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