Annual ADFSL Conference on Digital Forensics, Security and Law 2018

May 17th, 3:55 PM - 4:30 PM

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DF 2.0: DESIGNING AN AUTOMATED, PRIVACY PRESERVING, AND EFFICIENT DIGITAL FORENSIC FRAMEWORK

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ABSTRACT

The current state of digital forensic investigation is continuously challenged by the rapid technological changes, the increase in the use of digital devices (both the heterogeneity and the count), and the sheer volume of data that these devices could contain. Although it is not directly related to the performance of Digital Forensic Investigation process, preventing data privacy violations during the process is also a big challenge. The investigator gets full access to the forensic image, including suspect’s private data, which may be sensitive at times, as well as entirely unrelated to the given case under investigation. With a notion that privacy preservation and completeness of investigation are contradicting to each other, the digital forensics researchers have provided solutions to address the above-stated challenges that either focus on the effectiveness of the investigation process or the data privacy preservation. However, a generalized approach that preserves data privacy by affecting neither the capabilities of the investigator, nor the overall efficiency of the investigation process is still an open problem. In the current work, the authors have proposed a digital forensic framework that uses case information, case profile data and expert knowledge for automation of the digital forensic analysis process; utilizes machine learning for finding most relevant pieces of evidence; and preserves data privacy in such a way that the overall efficiency of the digital forensic investigation process increases without affecting the integrity and admissibility of the evidence. The framework improves validation to enhance transparency in the investigation process. The framework also uses a secure logging mechanism to capture investigation steps to achieve a higher level of accountability. Since the proposed framework introduces significant enhancements to the current investigative practices more like the next version of Digital Forensics, the authors named it ‘Digital Forensics 2.0,’ or DF 2.0 in short.

Keywords: Digital Forensics Framework, Automation, Data Privacy, Machine Learning
1. INTRODUCTION

Digital forensic science has evolved a lot since the first Digital Forensics Research Workshop (Palmer et al., 2001). However, there have been some research problems that are continuously challenging the researchers and practitioners till date.

The first and foremost challenge is the ever-growing data storage capacity of digital devices (Quick & Choo, 2014). The large volume of data increases the time requirements for the data acquisition and the data analysis processes (Lillis, Becker, O’Sullivan, & Scanlon, 2016). Moreover, since the number of cases that involve digital evidence in some form is on the rise all over the world, the digital forensic investigators are facing a pressing need for reducing the investigation time per case (Al Awadhi, Read, Marrington, & Franqueira, 2015).

The second challenge is thrown by the increasing diversity of digital devices that are becoming available in the market (Hossain, Fotouhi, & Hasan, 2015). A digital forensic personnel has to continuously strive for finding new ways (through software as well as hardware means) to acquire and analyze such devices (Inspectorate, 2015). The software diversity deals with a huge number of file-types, ever evolving Operating Systems, the newly developed innovative applications, and other software advancements concerning contemporary digital devices. On the hardware front, diversity of sensors, chips, circuit modules and other hardware units that produce unique data streams presents a challenge for digital forensics. Although providing a solution to both of the above-stated diversity challenges takes only a one-time effort for the practitioners and researchers; however, the rate at which these parameters change keeps them on their toes.

Furthermore, people tend to use separate devices for communication, entertainment and productivity purposes. Hence the number of individuals who own and use more than one digital device at a time is increasing (Facebook-Business, 2014). Another study by Facebook in 2016 reveals that 94% teens in France and 98% teens in Germany own multiple devices (Facebook-IQ, 2016). The Pew Research Center published a report in 2015 stating that around 36% of US adults own all three devices, namely a smartphone, a computer, and a tablet (Anderson, 2015). Another survey by Pew in January 2017 has revealed that 77% of US adult population owns a smartphone, 78% owns a desktop or laptop, and 51% owns a tablet computer (Pew-Research, 2017). Although the survey presents separate figures for the three devices, one can safely assume that individuals who own multiple devices are a significant part of the US population today. The people in other regions of the world either share similar trends or would achieve the same figures in the near future. The rise in the number of devices owned per person would increase the average number of exhibits seized in a new case, thus increasing the respective investigation time and efforts.

Even after finding their ways to acquire and analyze the new digital devices, the digital forensic examiners face the third challenge from the rapidly changing technological advancements that change the rules of the game now and then (Garfinkel, 2010). The technological progress that poses a challenge to investigators is concerned with the increasing list of devices that are going digital every day, thanks to the novel software and hardware innovations. The devices in everyday use which get equipped with
computational, communication and digital storage capability, commonly referred to as Internet of Things (IoT), pose new investigative challenges to the digital forensic process (Oriwoh, Jazani, Epiphaniou, & Sant, 2013). Any investigation involving such devices would require knowledge about how the data is produced, stored and communicated to these devices.

The fourth challenge, which is not directly connected to the functioning of the digital forensic investigation, is data privacy protection during the digital forensic investigation (Aminnezhad, Dehghantanha, & Abdullah, 2012). The digital forensic investigators always get full access to the contents of seized storage media which according to them is necessary for achieving completeness. Apart from containing potential evidence files, the seized storage media also contain owner’s private data which may be sensitive at times like private/family pictures and videos, business related digital documents, medical diagnostic or treatment reports, commercial software with license information, and much more. Investigator’s open access to these private files is a threat to owner’s data privacy (Verma, Govindaraj, & Gupta, 2016).

The data privacy protection is also related to need for transparency in the digital forensic investigation that ensures only case-relevant data are accessed from the seized media and remaining private files are not affected (Dehghantanha & Franke, 2014). There is a pressing need for finding means to fix accountability of the investigator in case a data privacy breach happens during the investigation. The two sister agencies that work in close collaboration with digital forensic personnel, namely the police and the regular forensic laboratories, are facing difficulties related to transparency and accountability. The case of Annie Dookhan is a good example of the same (Driscoll, 2014). To the best of authors’ knowledge, there are no reported instances of professional misconduct against digital forensic investigators to date; however, it is high time that the community should adopt self-regulatory ways to improve the transparency, as well as the accountability of the digital investigation process.

Apart from the challenges listed above, some researchers have predicted that moving forward the field of digital forensic would start diverging into more specialized sub-fields (Garfinkel, 2015). The sub-fields would require the investigators to get expert knowledge of the same. The digital forensic laboratories would need an investigation mechanism that could allow different experts to work together in a given case. To build a capability to handle increased number of digital forensic cases in future, the agencies would like to have prompt training programs that could prepare new and inexperienced investigators.

There is one more aspect to learning that captures the psychological, cultural, and social characteristics of the people who commit crimes (M. K. Rogers, 2011). Researchers have been trying to capture such parameters that could help in digital forensics investigation process (M. Rogers, 1999; M. K. Rogers, Seigfried, & Tidke, 2006).

Digital forensic frameworks to date have focused on addressing the above-stated challenges either in separation or well-defined scenarios with controlled environmental conditions. In the current work, the authors have proposed a new digital forensic framework that incorporates forensic image preprocessing, tool-independent au-
tomation, machine learning based filtration of most relevant evidence and their privacy level evaluation to address the above-stated challenges. The framework proposes a new way in which the state of the art digital forensic research and systems could be combined in one place to realize the following.

- Increased investigative efficiency by saving in the investigation time and efforts
- Improved investigative accuracy by using multiple tools at the same time
- Better investigative planning via automation
- Improved validation
- Data privacy protection for forensically non-relevant private files
- Enhanced transparency and accountability
- Building expert knowledge for forensic investigation, education, training, and multi-agency collaborations

2. PROPOSED SOLUTION

The framework takes forensic exhibits and images (of desktops, laptops, smartphones, tablets, or other devices that store data), network logs, memory dumps, and all other sources of digital storage as input (refer to figure 1).

As the inputs proceed to the next phase of ‘Forensic Preprocessing’, the investigator fills in all case related facts into a document called Current Case Information (CCI). The document consists of forensically relevant data that is unique to the case under investigation, like individual keywords, timelines, and other useful information.

After that, the investigator also provides the list of digital forensic tools, with their respective version numbers. All input images are processed to remove forensically irrelevant data like files listed in NSRL (Seo, Lim, Choi, Chang, & Lee, 2009) and duplicate files (Neuner, Mulazzani, Schrittwieser, & Weippl, 2015; Scanlon, 2016). The forensic image formatting is also changed, without breaking the integrity of the input, to enable fast and parallel operations in successive investigation phases. In case physical devices (exhibits) are available, then the imaging for these seized devices is started simultaneously with the data removal and reformatting. The authors call the above procedure ‘forensic preprocessing’ as it precedes the actual processing for finding evidence files (the analysis phase). The preprocessing aims to rearrange and consolidate the data available in all of the submitted forensic images (provided in any of the popular formats) so that forensic tools could read the data concurrently.

However, all preprocessing techniques and methods should ensure that the output produced by them is compatible with all digital forensic software tools. The section 3 discusses preprocessing in details.

The next step runs the ‘Automated Digital Forensic Processing’ module. The module takes inputs from the CCI document, a case-specific command list, and some already known exception commands. The ‘Case Profile Commands (CPC)’ database contains a list of commands that a specific digital forensic tool would require while performing a case specific job under a particular hardware deployment. These commands listed in CPC-database ensure that the planning of investigative steps is complete and consistent with respect to a particular type of case. For example, in the case of a financial fraud investigation,
the CPC-database will contain commands for say Encase tool, version 7.0 running on a Windows 8.1 workstation, to perform a keyword search job (with a list of unique operations, called job-sections, refer figure 2) on a Linux machine’s forensic-
image that has an EXT4 file-system. The CPC-database contains the comprehensive collection of commands and scripts, to complete distinct tasks, which are executed by the list of forensic software tools already provided by the investigator.

The Exception Commands (EC) database consists of command structure similar to that of the CPC-database, with a distinction that these commands aim to find evidence files that could otherwise be missed during the initial run of forensic tools. For example, all PDF attachments received on Gmail while being viewed by the receiver’s browser generates one PNG image for each page of the attached document (Verma, Gupta, Sarkar, & Gupta, 2012). So, when the user logs into their account and check their emails with PDF files as attachments, the PNG images corresponding to each page of the viewed PDF document gets loaded into the browser cache. These images could be extracted from any of these three sources; the cache on hard-disk drive, the RAM dump or the Hibernation file of the system. A digital forensic investigator should fill in command (or scripts) to parse these PNG files, from the sources described above, in the EC-database.

The EC-database is a collection of all such exclusive commands which can find targeted content. In other words, the database contains expert knowledge which has been acquired over time from individual experience, careful observations, and novel research efforts. In case two forensic labs enjoy a considerable amount of trust and mutual understanding, they could share their EC-databases. The sharing will give the examiners on both sides the opportunity to upgrade their knowledge and enhance their capabilities. In case all forensic labs in a province or state agree to share their EC-databases, it could become a good collection of valuable regional (demographic) forensic insights.

Depending on the investigation needs, and the availability of forensic tools, the automation module can work with both the open source as well as commercial digital forensic tools. The framework requires that the forensically relevant files processed by the tools have a uniformly high level of data abstraction. For example, the tools should expands all compound files (at a lower level of data abstraction) to extract the contained files (at a higher level of data abstraction) before these files could be passed on to the next level of scrutiny by the framework. Section 4 discusses this in more details.

The results of Automated Digital Forensic Processing are passed on to the next step (Relevance vs. Privacy Quotient). Here, with the help of machine learning algorithms, a relevance score for all potential evidence files (obtained from the automation module) is calculated. Similarly, the privacy quotient for these files is also calculated simultaneously. The investigator is then presented with a finite list of the top scoring relevant files. The investigator can analyze these files to decide whether these evidence files are sufficient to prove or disprove the case. If the investigator wants, she could keep on requesting the next lot of most relevant files for further examination, till the list of potential evidence gets exhausted. As soon as the investigator gets sufficient evidence from the relevance list, she may stop the investigation and generate the case report. However, if the investigator feels that the artifacts enlisted in relevance list are not sufficient, she is free to override the filters and start over the automation module.

The framework also incorporates a Se-
**cure Logging System** (from start of the investigation till it stops) where all actions and decisions of the investigator are chronologically logged into a secure place. The safe storage for these logs could either be a hardened local server or a reliable cloud space where the investigator has no chance of tampering with them (Barik, Gupta, Sinha, Mishra, & Mazumdar, 2007; Verma, Govindaraj, & Gupta, 2014). Since the investigator may be required to explain her actions in case any privacy breach or some foul play is either doubted or reported. The secure logging ensures that the accountability of the investigator is fixed when such a situation arises. A brief discussion on the same is presented in section 6.

Automation used in the framework simplifies repeatability of the investigation process, which proves to be very helpful in validating the investigation outcomes. Especially, for the **Technical Validation** which aims to check whether all steps followed by the investigator fulfill the goals of the investigation. Automation together with the secure-logging will help the digital forensic community to study and optimize the investigative techniques followed by examiners. Repeatability and easy validation could improve the overall transparency of the investigative process. The framework also ensures a three-way error reduction mechanism using automation. Firstly, the automation reduces the chances of human error that may happen at any time. Secondly, the automation ensures that no step is missed from the investigative planning which remains consistent for a particular type of case. Thirdly, the automation ensures that no evidence file is missed due to limitations of a particular tool since results from different forensic tools are combined to present a comprehensive list of potential pieces of evidence. The above solution will keep the investigative powers of the investigator intact with good chances that her overall efficiency gets improved.

### 2.1 Setup

The proposed framework needs a hardware infrastructure that could provide both high-performance computational power as well as high-speed data storage and access. A robust and capable software should also support the hardware to realize both an efficient parallel processing and a powerful data management mechanism. Another requirement for the software component of the framework is its compatibility to run applications and programs from all publicly available software platforms. So, all state of the art Operating System dependent and Operating System independent digital forensic tools, which are capable of working on various digital devices, irrespective of whether they are closed source (commercial) or open source could be deployed on the proposed framework.

All the forensic tools and applications that are installed on the framework should be able to receive command-line instructions. Since most of the open source digital forensic tools take command-line inputs, they can easily be attached to the framework. Since all commercial tools are closed source, it is the responsibility of their developers to provide a command-line support for their respective tools. Although there are some tools like EnCase, which accept scripts to automate some investigative tasks, there is still a segment of commercial tools that do not support automation. The tools that do not provide any support for automation can not be used with the proposed framework.

Depending on the requirement, the proposed framework can be set up on any of
the following configurations:

1. **Beowulf Cluster in a laboratory** - best suited for digital forensic laboratory environments where a suitable number of processing nodes could be selected based on the budget and investigative load (Ayers, 2009). A Beowulf cluster file system provides support for high-performance data access and storage. The processing speed and efficiency of a Beowulf cluster in a laboratory setting are better as compared to a distributed systems deployment or a cloud deployment of the same configuration.

2. **On the Cloud** - a private cloud with a strict access control could be a useful option for an investigation agency, which has multiple departments located at same or different geographical locations (Van Baar, van Beek, & van Eijk, 2014). Alternatively, an agency could also rent virtual machines on a public cloud having comparatively high processing and data storage capabilities. The catch with cloud-based deployment is the dependency on limited upload and download speeds. However, if the network speeds are favorable, the cloud-hosted framework could enhance remote investigations capabilities where investigators could simultaneously work on the same case.

3. **Distributed Systems** - could also be used to deploy the framework with the processing power comparable to above-mentioned deployment models. However, the data access speed, the parallelization in processing, and the file system capabilities would be relatively more complicated and hard to manage (Richard III & Roussev, 2006).

### 3. PREPROCESSING

The Forensic Preprocessing module is the first component of the proposed framework that operates on the forensic images. The authors call the module ‘forensic preprocessing’ as it precedes the process of finding evidence files (the analysis phase). The preprocessing aims to rearrange and consolidate the data available in all of the submitted forensic images so that forensic tools could read the data concurrently.

Before preprocessing could begin, the investigator is required to fill in all case related details into the **Current Case Information** (CCI) document. The document consists of forensically relevant information about the case under investigation, like the type of case, the name of the case, suspect’s information, keywords of interest, timelines of interest, targeted file types, and other valuable information(refer figure 2). After filling the CCI document, the investigator also provides the list of digital forensic tools, with their respective version numbers, which are installed on her forensic system and best suit the analysis requirements of the given case. The information from the CCI document and the tools list is used by the preprocessing module to fine-tune its operations.

The primary aim of the preprocessing module is to change the data formatting of the forensic images (without breaking their integrity) so that the digital forensic tools attached to the framework could perform highly efficient parallelized operations. The secondary aim is to remove forensically irrelevant data from the forensic images which include files listed in NSRL (Seo et al., 2009) and duplicate files (Neuner et al., 2015; Scanlon, 2016).
In case physical devices (exhibits) are submitted instead of their forensic images, then the imaging for these seized devices is started simultaneously with the data reformatting and redundancy removal. All preprocessing techniques and methods should ensure that the output produced by them is compatible with the digital forensic software tools due to be used in the automation phase.

The data formatting operation should keep the integrity of the forensic images intact, and hence there should be no impact on the admissibility of the forensic evidence extracted out of the newly formatted data.

4. AUTOMATION

The Automated Digital Forensic Processing module aims to carry out a thorough forensic analysis of the forensic images to collect all case related potential pieces of evidence without any human intervention. The module uses the Current Case Information (CCI) document and queries both the Case Profile Commands (CPC) database as well as the Exception Commands (EC) database (refer figure 3).

The CPC-database is populated by querying two tables, namely the Job-Sections table and the Tool-Selection table (positioned at top right and bottom of figure 2 respectively). The Job-Sections table contains information about various jobs and sub-jobs (the author calls them job-sections) that are carried out by the digital forensic tools. The job name specifies a particular task of forensic importance which is used in a digital investigation, for example ‘keyword search.’ The keyword search can further be divided into small tasks, like searching keywords in all text files (let us call it job-section 1). Similarly, searching for keywords in pdf files is another sub-task (let us call it job-section 2). Likewise, a comprehensive list of well-defined subtasks
for a particular job can be populated. If we consider the keyword search job with reference to a particular case (say Financial Fraud), the investigator can identify the list of job-sections that are useful for the investigation of that case.

The Job-Sections table contains this mapping for all type of known case types, respective jobs that are needed to be performed for these case types and the comprehensive list of job-sections for the same.

The Tool-Selection table contains tool version specific commands or scripts to implement job-sections from the Job-Sections table. All of the instructions are stored with respective parameters.

The CPC-database is populated with case-specific commands recognized by the tools, specified by the investigator, for completing a collection of small investigative jobs. The values obtained from the CCI document include specific terms including names of the suspects, names of the companies they are associated with, names of their partners, names of the projects they have handled, and more.

The CPC-database holds all job specific directives that may belong to more than one type of case profiles; for example, keyword search is one job which has application in a variety of cases. The keyword search job can be performed by various digital forensic software tools. However, the search technique implementation along with the keyword list(s) would differ depending on the tool specifications and the case profile respectively.

The collection of all jobs that are performed for a particular case type is in public knowledge. Moreover, how a particular job could be carried out by various digital forensic software tools could also be documented. There are tool-specific commands for performing a particular job which could take specific parameters and options based on the case type and information from the CCI document.

All of the above information is captured in the databases, as shown in Figure 3 that makes the automation possible. For example, if the job requirement is keyword search for a Financial Fraud case type where a Windows 10 machine with EnCase version 7.1 installed on it is available, and the forensic image is a Hard Disk Drive with Linux installation needs to be examined, then the first database entry for keyword search could fetch the command(s) with corresponding parameters and options (if applicable). For simplicity of understanding the authors have all columns of the databases in Figure 3; otherwise, the databases could be normalized further.

Even after processing the forensic image with a variety of digital forensic software tools, there are some crucial evidence that might escape the examiner’s scrutiny. For example, with the surge in mobile phone usage people have started taking pictures of various documents that they use in their daily lives. Examples include tickets, different identity cards, business cards, bank cheques, mark-sheets and sometimes usernames and passwords for important on-line accounts. The forensic tools that search for keywords only focus on files that have textual data, and would not be able to search for images that have some written content until and unless they are instructed to do so. Experienced investigators have knowledge of such intricate details, like running OCR on suspected images along
Figure 3. Automated digital forensic processing module.

with keyword search, or filtering out the potential pictures by their metadata in case the OCR engine fails. These approaches could help the investigation by obtaining crucial evidence on the first run. The proposed framework stores these intricate details in the EC-database. The commands include implementation tricks and techniques that come from knowledge gathered by forensic experts over time as well as research breakthroughs. Structurally the database is similar to CPC-database (refer figure 3).

The working of the automation module (especially the structure of CPC-database) which is presented above is inspired by the work of (Karabiyik & Aggarwal, 2014). However, to the best of authors’ knowledge, the conceptualization of the Exception Commands database is a fresh contribution.

4.1 Design
An Expert System could be used to design the automation engine. The rules of conducting forensic analysis could be stored in the CPC-database. Different variables that need to be considered like case type, job specification, device type, respective OS and File-System versions, forensic tool’s name/version, and respective
commands/parameters/options could be modeled into the system.

4.2 Relevant vs. Non-Relevant Files: First level of data privacy preservation

The outcome of the automated digital forensic processing would give a list of files from the forensic image(s) which are potential pieces of evidence for the case under investigation.

The automation module operations segregate all files present in the forensic image(s) into two classes, namely Forensically Relevant Files (FRF) and Forensically Irrelevant Files (FIF). The FRF advance to the next stages of the investigation, whereas the FIF is made inaccessible to the investigator.

The denial of access to all files (including the private files) which are present in FIF group, is the first level of data privacy preservation ensured by the proposed framework.

5. FORENSIC RELEVANCE VS. DATA PRIVACY

The data privacy aims to protect owner’s personal information from falling into hands of unauthorized people (Fischer-Hübner, 2001) (OECD, 2002). Whereas, a digital forensic investigation seeks to find all potential pieces of evidence that indicate a malicious activity carried out in digital space (Pollitt, 2004).

All files that are selected/highlighted/exported at the completion of the automation module fall into the Forensically Relevant Files (FRF) group. The number of files in the FRF is still large enough for the investigators to examine individually. Moreover, a considerable number of owner’s private files that do not qualify as concrete evidence are also included in the FRF collection. Hence, finding actual evidence files from the FRF group is undoubtedly a massive manual effort, which further involves a significant risk of data privacy violations for the private files that do not have much of evidential value.

The proposed framework uses machine learning to determine the degree of relevance (details in subsection 5.1) as well as the level of privacy (details in subsection 5.2) for all files present in the FRF group. The investigator is presented with the top most relevant files (say, a bunch of top 20 or top 50) for examination, with their respective level of privacy also marked on them.

The next set of most relevant files is not presented to the investigator until she examines the first bunch and feels that further investigation is needed. Only after the investigator raises an explicit request to the system, the next bunch (succeeding 20 or 50) of files is presented for her scrutiny. The process of request and grant continues until the investigator finds all actual evidence needed to resolve the case or the list of FRF gets exhausted. In a rather unusual situation when the examiner feels that the automation module should be rerun, the framework provides a provision of doing so too.

The above-stated mechanism, for presenting most relevant files in a bunch until the investigator finds concrete evidence to prove or disprove the case, also prevents privacy
breach to an extent. The process could also be understood as the **second level of data privacy preservation** which is ensured by the proposed framework. Although the data privacy protection in this filtration process is not absolute, the data privacy of a large number of files belonging to FRF is significantly preserved.

5.1 **Degree of Relevance**

The proposed framework classifies files based on their degree of relevance to the current case under investigation. The classification process needs to process data available in the Evidence Features (EF) database (Figure 4). The EF-database takes information about each file that is selected into FRF, and some case specific information from the Current Case Information (CCI) document.

5.1.1 **Feature selection**

The aim is to classify each file in the FRF into a potentially-conclusive or a potentially-indecisive piece of evidence. The information stored in the EF-database corresponding to each file, belonging to the FRF for a particular case under investigation, acts as a feature-set for a machine learning implementation. The features can come from:

1. The file’s metadata: includes information like - File-Type; Time-Stamps; File-Size; File-Address; File Containing Folder Name; File Containing Folder Depth; Access Control Permissions; and Owner(s) of the File.

2. Source image and the automation module: includes information like - Forensic Tool that selected the file; More than one Tool selected the file (Y/N); Job-Type; Job-Section; Level of Data Abstraction; Did the file got extracted from a compound file (Y/N); Source Image Format; Source Image File-System; Source Image Operating-System; Source Image Storage Technology

3. Use of the Exception Commands: includes information like - Is a result of Exception Command (Y/N); Number of Exception Commands used; Exception Command IDs

4. The associated Current Case Information: includes information like - Case-ID; Case-type; Has Keywords of Interest (Y/N); Has Name from Suspect List (Y/N); Is File Type of Interest (Y/N); Does Fall into Timeline of Interest (Y/N)

The order of features in above-listed sources do not reflect their respective significance.

5.1.2 **Data collection**

The data collection happens when a case is investigated using the framework. Two options that may be used by the investigating agencies while doing the data collection are discussed below:

1. Data collection for a particular type of case: It includes collecting data while investigating cases of the same kind. For example, If an investigative agency analyzes only Financial Frauds cases, then all features collected in the Evidence Features database will help in forming a machine learning prediction model most suited for financial fraud cases. Creating a model for a particular
kind of case is considerably easy because each case shares a high degree of commonality in their respective feature sets.

2. Data collection for all type of cases: It includes collecting data while investigating cases of all kinds. The features collected in the Evidence Features database will form a machine learning prediction model that could find potentially-conclusive evidence for any given case. Creating a generic model that can make predictions for any case at hand is a difficult task as compared to the previous option because the feature sets will have many variations.

5.1.3 Machine learning approach for relevance

As already stated before, the machine learning solution aims to classify each file in the FRF into either a Potentially Conclusive (PC) or a Potentially Indecisive (PI) evidence. Hence, to put it formally -

1. The machine learning approach addresses a two-class classification problem (a supervised learning technique). The reason for choosing a supervised learning approach is to learn from the experience of the investigators who have already solved similar cases. The framework needs access to the case related artifacts like the case information document, the forensic image associated with that case, information about the tools that were used to solve the case, and the list of actual evidence files that concluded the investigation.

The first three artifacts (mentioned in the previous paragraph) could be used by the framework to collect feature information about all the FRF files, whereas the last object would act as the ground truth for training. All actual evidence that the investigator marks at the completion of each case investigation helps populating the last feature column that is helpful in training.

After training on some examples of solved cases of the same type, the machine learning solution could start predicting for a new case. However, for a generalized solution, the training set should contain a considerable number of examples of each type of cases that have been solved by the investigative agency before the solution could start predicting.

![Figure 4. Degree of relevance for forensically relevant files.](image)
learning method like Decision tree or Random Forest that give considerably good results when the training data set is less, and the feature set is relatively strong.

The authors think the above-stated learning methods are suitable for the classification task (PC vs. PI) when developing a prediction model for the same type of cases with a relatively small training dataset. However, if an investigation agency that has a collection of a substantial number of cases of the same type say hundred or more cases of financial fraud, then they could try other algorithms like Support Vector Machine (SVM) and k-Nearest Neighbors (kNN).

When a generic solution needs to be created, an ample number of cases of each type that the investigation agency works on is required. However, if multiple agencies agree to share their EF-databases and list of conclusive evidence for respective cases, the aim of making a generic prediction solution could be achieved.

The machine learning approach finds PC files and calculates a relevance score for each of them. The files are then arranged from highest relevance score to the lowest. The framework ensures that only a bunch of most relevant files are presented to the investigator and rest of the files are masked from her. The investigator asks for the next bunch of files if required. The process continues till the investigator finds all conclusive pieces of evidence or the list of FRF gets exhausted. The machine learning solution’s efficiency increases with the number of solved cases getting incorporated into the training set.

5.1.4 Mathematical Formulation of Relevance Score

Let the number of input cases be \( n \) and the number of features corresponding to an individual file be \( x \) (from the EF-database).

\[
C = \{C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots, C_n\}
\]

Where, \( C \) represent the case vector. The case instance \( C_i \) can be represented as a collection of its respective FRFs.

\[
C_i = \{F_1, F_5, F_7, \ldots, F_j, \ldots\}
\]

Where, \( F_j \) is the \( j^{th} \) file in \( C_i \)'s FRF. Every file in the above set can have a maximum of \( x \) features, and the feature vector for \( F_j \) can be represented as:

\[
f_{F_j} = \{f_{j1}, f_{j2}, f_{j3}, \ldots, f_{jr}\}
\]

\( \forall F_j \in C_i; \exists r \in (1 \text{ to } x), \text{where } f_{jr} = 0 \)

So, the case \( C_i \) together with its FRF and respective feature vectors can be represented in matrix form as:

\[
C_i = \begin{bmatrix}
F_1 & f_{11}^1 & f_{12}^1 & f_{13}^1 & f_{14}^1 & f_{15}^1 & \cdots & f_{1r}^1 \\
F_2 & f_{21}^2 & f_{22}^2 & f_{23}^2 & f_{24}^2 & f_{25}^2 & \cdots & f_{2r}^2 \\
F_3 & f_{31}^3 & f_{32}^3 & f_{33}^3 & f_{34}^3 & f_{35}^3 & \cdots & f_{3r}^3 \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\
F_j & f_{j1}^j & f_{j2}^j & f_{j3}^j & f_{j4}^j & f_{j5}^j & \cdots & f_{jr}^j \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot 
\end{bmatrix}
\]

The input cases ground truth evidence can be represented as
\[ E = \begin{bmatrix} E_1 \\ E_2 \\ E_3 \\ \vdots \\ E_i \\ \vdots \\ E_n \end{bmatrix} \]

and \( E_i \) accounts for the evidence vector corresponding to the \( i^{th} \) case which was declared solved after finding files having conclusive evidence. For example, the evidence vector will have a collection of files like

\[ E_i = \{F_1, F_3, F_5, \ldots\} \]

where, Files in \( E_i \subset \) Files in \( C_i \)

Here, the feature vector corresponding to the evidence \( E_i \) would consist of the union of all prominent features of files mentioned above.

\[ f_{E_i} = f_{F_1} \cup f_{F_3} \cup f_{F_5} \cup \ldots \]

Let us assume that the features which get selected are following:

\[ f_{E_i} = \{f_{F_i}^1, f_{F_i}^5, f_{F_i}^9, f_{F_i}^{15}, f_{F_i}^{19}, f_{F_i}^{21}, \ldots, f_{F_i}^x\} \]

Since we have \( x \) input features, the weight vector \( W \) can be represented as

\[ W = \begin{bmatrix} W_1 \\ W_2 \\ W_3 \\ \vdots \\ W_x \end{bmatrix} \]

and,

\[ W = function_1(FeaturesMatrix, EvidenceVector) \]

\( RS = function_2(WeightVector, FeaturesMatrix) \)

The computation of \( RS \) is followed by sorting of the Potentially Conclusive(PC) files from the highest relevance score to lower. The files get clustered into various sets say \( p \) number of sets and each set has \( m \) number of files which can be represented as

\[ S = \{S_1, S_2, S_3, \ldots, S_k, \ldots, S_p\}, and \]

\[ S_k = \{F_1, F_2, F_3, \ldots, F_1, \ldots F_m\} \]

As explained in the sub-subsection 5.1.3 the potentially conclusive evidence are can be presented for the investigator’s scrutiny using the following algorithm:

\begin{algorithm}
\caption{Evidence examination}
\begin{algorithmic}
\FOR \( k = 1 \) to \( p \)
\STATE Pick \( S_k \)
\FOR \( l = 1 \) to \( m \)
\IF \( F_l \) is PC-Evidence
\STATE Bookmark \( F_l \)
\STATE break
\ELSE
\STATE continue
\ENDIF
\ENDFOR
\ENDFOR
\end{algorithmic}
\end{algorithm}

5.2 Privacy Quotient

The framework also identifies whether a file is private or it contains any Personally Identifiable Information (PII) about the suspect. The aim is to correlate the data privacy information for each file with their respective evidence rating (from the previous subsection). The privacy information of each file will not restrict the investigative
capabilities of the forensic examiner in any way. However, the privacy quotient of the individual file would enable both the suspect and the legal authorities to assess the scale of data privacy violation, if it happens during the investigation process.

A specific module named Private and PII Identification (p2i3) runs on all files belonging to FRF (refer figure 1). The authors have marked the p2i3-module as a separate entity in the flow diagram; however, the module could be a part of the automation engine if some of the forensic tools support the required functionality. For example, the tool EnCase (version 7 and up) has the provision of finding files that contain personal information as well as artifacts containing Personally Identifiable Information.

All files in the FRF group are examined to determine whether they are private to the suspect or contain any of her PII.

5.2.1 Feature selection
The information stored in the Privacy Features (PF) database acts a feature-set for machine learning implementation to find each file’s privacy quotient. The features are described below:

1. Features from file’s metadata (same as in the EF-database): It captures information like - File-Type; Time-Stamps; File-Size; File-Address; File containing folder name; File containing folder depth; Access-Control permissions; Owner(s) of the file.

2. Features from the source image and the p2i3 module: It captures information like - Source image format;

3. Features from the CCI document: it captures information like - Case-ID; Case-type; Has keywords of interest (Y/N); Has name(s) from the suspects list (Y/N); Is the File-Type of interest (Y/N); Does the file fall into Timeline of Interest (Y/N).²

The data collection part of the privacy rating solution is same as that of the evi-
5.2.2 Machine learning approach for privacy quotient

The aim of the machine learning implementation in the privacy solution is to categorize files from the FRF group into three groups; namely, the Private Files (PF), PII Containing Files (PCF), and Non-Private Files (NPF). Hence, to put it formally -

1. The machine learning approach addresses a clustering problem. An unsupervised machine learning approach is used to categorize the files into one of three clusters (PF, PCF, and NPF) as described above.

2. The unsupervised learning approach can use a k-means algorithm to segregate the files into these three clusters. However, there are good chances that the third cluster NPF could get more than 35% of sample population (files from FRF), making the k-means cluster analysis unfruitful. In such a situation the solution needs one extra level of processing.

The k-means algorithm should be started with a higher value, preferably 3 to 4 times the value of the number of required clusters “n” (which is currently 3). An inflated value of n would produce 9 to 12 clusters, each of which would comply with the condition of having the sample population between 5 - 35%.

A secondary level of clustering on top of these results (using the Hierarchical Clustering) will club them into the final three clusters namely, PF, PCF, and NPF.

6. SECURE LOGGING SYSTEM

The logging process ensures that all operations from the starting state in the proposed framework (refer the flowchart in figure 1) till the state when the investigation stops are recorded. The logging also ensures that all actions of the examiner starting from the time when she begins the analysis process till all conclusive evidence get identified are listed. All system operations and investigator actions need logging because of two reasons; firstly, to resolve conflicting situations like allegations of data privacy violations; secondly, for studying investigation styles of examiners for learning and training purposes.

The logging system could fulfill both of the above-stated requirements only when the logs are complete as well as tamper-proof. The first requirement of completeness, which is relatively easy to achieve, refers to logging all activities of the system and the investigator.

However, the second requirement of ensuring that the logs become tamper-proof is a difficult problem. The first possible solution could capture the activity logs with the help of a dedicated application running on the forensic system. This solution assumes that the examiner is cooperative and honest enough not to interfere with the logging application. After the investigation process is complete, the logging application should transfer the logs to an external storage place which is safe from tampering. Any tampering attempt during its operation would cause the application to
stop prematurely, invalidating the captured logs.

The second possible solution should try to capture examiner’s activities at the operating system level (with a system level application or module) and save the logs in a safe location. The safe storage for these logs could either be a hardened local server or a reliable cloud space where the investigator has no chance of tampering with them (Barik et al., 2007).

Since the investigator may be required to explain her actions in case any privacy breach or some foul play is either doubted or reported. The secure logging fixes the accountability of the investigator for her actions, in case such a situation arises.

7. RELATED WORK

Ayers (2009) enlist the limitation of the first generation of digital forensic tools that are struggling with the huge volumes of data involved in modern day investigations. The author proposes several parameters to measure efficiency together with the requirements that need to be incorporated into the second generation of digital forensic tools. The author also proposed processing architecture of second generation tools which utilizes Beowulf clusters, supercomputers, distributed systems, and grid computing. The evidence storage, workflow management and software reliability of the second generation tools are also discussed. The paper provides requirements and high-level characteristics of the system that was under development.

Garfinkel (2010) also talks about the requirement for data standardization and modular mechanisms in the field for digital forensics and digital forensic research.

Van Baar et al. (2014) have brilliantly moved the digital forensic processing on a cloud where high-end machines could speed up processing and help different actors involved in a digital forensic investigation to collaborate on a particular case.

Carrier, Spafford, et al. (2005) proposed a way to automate searches in digital forensic investigations. Richard III and Roussev (2006) suggested a way to handle large-scale digital investigations with the use of distributed computing. They proposed the use of a cluster of distributed computers to facilitate processing and store the images and results at a central data store. The authors suggested the use of automation by all forensic tools so that they may handle the challenges of tomorrow.

Abbott, Bell, Clark, De Vel, and Mohay (2006) proposed an automated way to correlate events for digital forensic investigation. The authors also demonstrate implementation using publically available digital forensic scenarios and data.

Dehghantanha and Franke (2014) have defined the same as a cross-disciplinary field of research and named it as ‘privacy-respecting digital investigation’. They also talk about the present challenges and opportunities that the field has to offer.

Aminnezhad et al. (2012) state that digital forensic investigators face a dilemma whether they should protect suspects’ data privacy or achieve completeness in their investigation. The paper also states that there is a lack of awareness among professional digital forensic investigators regarding suspects’ data privacy, which could result in an unintentional abuse.
There have been attempts to protect data privacy during digital forensic investigation using cryptographic mechanisms. Law et al. (2011) have proposed a way to protect the data privacy using encryption. The authors talk of encrypting data set on an email server and indexing the case related keywords, both at the same time. The investigator gives keyword input to the server owner, who has the encryption keys, to get back the emails that contain the keyword.

Hou, Uehara, Yiu, Hui, and Chow (2011b) propose a mechanism to protect the privacy of data on third party service providers storage center from the investigator using homomorphic and commutative encryption. At the same time, the mechanism also ensures that the service provider does not get to know the queries that were fired by the investigator. Hou, Uehara, Yiu, Hui, and Chow (2011a) talk of a similar solution on a remote server.


Croft and Olivier (2010) have proposed a mechanism where data is compartmentalized into layers of sensitivity, less private data on lower layers and highly private data on higher layers. Investigators access to private information is controlled by initially restricting his access to the lower layers first. The investigator is required to prove his knowledge of the low-level layers, to get access higher level information.

8. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

The authors have proposed a new digital forensic framework that brings efficiency in digital forensic processing with the help of automation while preserving data privacy for the suspect. The framework ensures that the automation supports a range of digital forensic software tools and produces effective outcomes by incorporating the current case information, case profile data, the knowledge of experienced digital forensic investigators. The investigator is presented with the most relevant evidence that are sorted with the help of machine learning algorithms. The framework balances the investigative requirements of the case with the data privacy protection of suspect’s forensically irrelevant private files.

The framework ensures that the efficiency of investigation is enhanced, without compromising on the outcomes of the investigation or affecting the investigative powers of the examiner. However, since the system is securely logging all actions of the investigator, she experiences a greater sense of accountability for avoiding unwanted data privacy violations. The automation and secure logging encourage a better validation check, hence bringing a higher level of transparency into the investigation process.

The authors are in the course of implementing a critical framework section particularly the machine learning solution for determining the relevance of the potential evidence as well as finding the privacy quotient of forensically relevant files for a particular type of cases. The authors also plan to extend the solution that covers all type of cases handled by a typical digital forensic laboratory.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Research efforts of the first author are supported by Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) Limited, under the TCS Research Scholarship Program.

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