Architecture of a Morphological Malware Detector

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Abstract

Most of malware detectors are based on syntactic signatures that identify known malicious programs. Up to now this architecture has been sufficiently efficient to overcome most of malware attacks. Nevertheless, the complexity of malicious codes still increase. As a result the time required to reverse engineer malicious programs and to forge new signatures is increasingly longer.

This study proposes an efficient construction of a morphological malware detector, that is a detector which associates syntactic and semantic analysis. It aims at facilitating the task of malware analyst providing some abstraction on the signature representation which is based on control flow graphs (CFG).

We build an efficient signature matching engine built over tree automata techniques. Moreover we describe a generic graph rewriting engine in order to deal with classic mutations techniques. Finally, we provide a preliminary evaluation of the strategy detection carrying out experiments on a malware collection.

Introduction

The identification of malicious behavior is a difficult task. Until now, no technologies have been able to automatically prevent the spread of malware. Several approach have been considered but neither syntactic analysis nor behavioral consideration were really effective. Presently, human analysis of malware seems to be the best strategy, next malware detectors based of signature remains the most reliable solution. From this point of view, we have tried to easier the task which consist in finding a good signature within a malicious programs. Our technique has been inspired from the article [6] where control flow graphs are used to detect the different instances of the computer virus MetaPHOR.

Generally speaking, detection strategies base on string signatures uses a database of regular expressions and a string matching engine to scan files and detect infected ones. Each regular expression of the database is designed to identify a known malicious program. There are at least three difficulties tied to this approach. First, the identification of a malware signature requires a human expert and the time to forge a reliable signature is long compared to the time related to a malware attack. Second, string signature approach can be easily by passed by obfuscation methods. Among recent work treating this subject, we propose to see for example [4, 7, 14]. Third, as the quantity of malware increase, the ratio of false positive augments become a crucial issue. And removing old malware signatures would open doors for outbreaks of re-engineered malware.

Thus, a current trend in the community proposes to design next generation of malware detectors based on semantic aspects. [11, 9, 20]. However, most of semantics properties are difficult to decide and even heuristics can be very complex as it is illustrated in the field of computer safety. For those reasons, we try to propose [5] and to construct a *morphological analysis* in order to detect malware. The idea is to recognize the shape of a malicious program. That is, unlike string signature detection, we are not only considering a program as a flat text, but rather as a semantics object, so adding in some sense a dimension to the analysis. Our approach tries to combine several features: (a) to associate syntactic and semantic analysis, (b) to be efficient and (c) to be as automatic as possible.

Our morphological detector uses a set of CFG which plays the role of a malware signature database. Next, the detection consists in scanning files in order to recognize the shape of a malware. As we see, the design is closed to a string signature based detector and so we think that both approaches may be combined in a near future. Moreover, it is important to notice that this framework make the signature extraction easier. Indeed, either the extraction is fully automatic when the malware CFG is relevant or the task of signature makers is facilitated since they can work on an abstract representation of malware.

This detection strategy is close to [9, 6] but we put our strengths to optimize the efficiency of algorithms. For that sake, we use tree automata, a generalization to trees of finite state automata over strings [10]. Here, we transform CFG into trees with, intuitively, pointers in order to represent back edges and cross edges. Then, the collection of malware signatures is a finite set of trees and so a regular tree language. Thanks to Myhill-Nerode construction, the minimal automaton gives us a compact and efficient database. Notice that the construction of the database is iterative and it is easy to add the CFG of a newly discovered malicious program.

Another issue of malware detections is the

soundness with respect to classic mutation techniques. Here, we detect isomorphic CFG and so we take into account several classical obfuscation methods. Moreover, we add a rewriting engine which normalizes CFG in order to have a robust representation of the control flow with respect to mutations. Related works are [6, 8, 20] where program data flow is also considered.

The design of this complete chain of process is summarized by Figure 1.



Figure 1: Design of the control flow detector

We also provide large scale experiments, with a collection of 10156 malicious programs and 2653 sane programs. Those results are promising, with a completely automatic method for the signature extraction we have obtained a false positive ratio of 0.1%.

This study is organized as follows. First we expose the principles of CFG extraction and normalization. Then, we present a matching engine for CFG that is based on tree automata. Finally we carry out some experiments to validate our method.

1 CFG in x86 languages

Road-map. Since we focus on practical aspects we choose to work on a concrete assembly language. This language is close to x86 assembly language. We detail how to extract CFG from programs, we underline the difficulties that can be encountered and we outline how they can be overcome with classic techniques. Finally, we study the problem of CFG mutations, we propose normalize the extracted CFG according to rewriting rules in order to remove common mutations.

An x86 assembly language. We present the grammar of the studied programming language. The computation domain is the integers and we use a subset of the commands of the x86 assembly language. The important feature is that we consider the flow instructions as in x86, as a result the method that we develop can be directly applied to concrete programs.

Addresses	N	
Offsets	\mathbb{Z}	
Registers	\mathbb{R}	
Expressions	$\mathbb{E} ::= \mathbb{Z} \mid \mathbb{N} \mid \mathbb{R} \mid [\mathbb{N}] \mid [\mathbb{R}]$	
Flow	If imp F coll F not ico 7	
instructions		
Sequential	Id	
instructions		
Programs	$\mathbb{P} ::= \mathbb{I}^d \mid \mathbb{I}^f \mid \mathbb{P} ; \mathbb{P}$	

Next, a program is a sequence of instructions $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{i}_0$; ...; \mathbf{i}_{n-1} . The address of the instruction \mathbf{i}_k is k. In order to ease the reading and without loss of generality, we suppose that \mathbf{i}_0 is the first instruction to be executed, the address 0 is the so called entry point of the program.

We observe that the control flow of programs is driven by only four kinds of flow instructions. Given an instruction $\mathbf{i}_k \in \mathbb{I}^f$, the possible transfers of control flow are the following.

• If \mathbf{i}_k is an unconditional jump jmp e. The control is transferred to the address given by the value of e.

- If \mathbf{i}_k is a conditional jump jcc x. If its associated condition is true, the control is transferred to k + x. Otherwise, the control is transferred to the address k + 1 of the next instruction.
- If \mathbf{i}_k is a function call call e. The address k+1 is pushed on the stack and the control is transferred to the the value of e.
- If \mathbf{i}_k is a function return ret. An address is popped from the stack and the control is transferred to this address.

Prerequisites. The extraction of the CFG from a program is tied to several difficulties. First, we need access to the instructions of the program. As a result packing and encryption techniques can thwart the extraction. This problem is part of the folklore, indeed classical string signature detectors also have to face those techniques. Many solutions such as sandboxes and generic unpackers have been developed to overcome this difficulty. The presentation of those solutions exceeds the scope of the current study then we refer to the textbooks [13, 12, 18].

Second, we are confronted to obscure sequence of instructions such as push a; ret which have the behavior of the instruction jmp a. This is also part of of the folklore of the domain and we will suppose that such sequence of instructions are normalized during the disassembly phase of the extraction.

Third, the target addresses of jumps and function calls have to be dynamically computed. For example, when we encounter the instruction jmp eax we need the value of the register eax in order to follow the control flow transfer. In such cases we rely on an heuristic (e) which provide the value of the expression e if it can be statically computed. If the value cannot be computed then $(e) = \bot$. Such an heuristic can be based on partial evaluation, emulation or any other static analysis technique.

The extraction procedure. The control flow consists in the different paths that might be traversed through the program during its execution. It is frequently represented by a graph named a control flow graph (CFG). The vertices stand for addresses of instructions and the edges represent the possible paths that the control flow can follow.

We suppose that we have access to the code of programs and that we have an heuristic () to evaluate expressions. Table 1 presents a procedure to abstract CFG from programs. We observe that this procedure closely follows the semantics of flow instructions. Indeed, the vertices of the CFG are labeled accordingly to the instruction at the night address and the nodes are linked according to the possible control transfers.

- The symbol inst of arity 1 labels addresses of sequential instructions. There is one successor: the address of the next instruction.
- The symbol jmp of arity 1 labels addresses of unconditional jumps. There is one successor: the address to jump to.
- The symbol jcc of arity 2 labels addresses of conditional jumps. There is two successors: the address to jump to when the condition is true and the address of the next instruction.
- The symbol call of arity 2 labels addresses of function calls. There is two successors: the address of the function to call and the return address, that is the address of the next instruction.
- The symbol end of arity 0 labels addresses of function returns and undefined instructions. There is no successor.

Instruction	Graph	
$\mathbf{i}_n \in \mathbb{I}^d$	inst 1 n+1	
$egin{array}{rcl} \mathbf{i}_n &=& \mathtt{jmp}\; e \ (e) &=& k \end{array}$		
$\mathbf{i}_n = \operatorname{call} e$ (e) = k	call 1 2 n+1 k	
$\mathbf{i}_n \;=\; jcc\; x$		
Otherwise	end	

The entry point of the program correspond to the root of the CFG.

Table 1: Control flow graph extraction

Normalize mutations. Our CFG representation is a rough abstraction of programs. Indeed we do not make any distinction between the different kinds of sequential instruction, there are all represented by nodes labeled with inst. This first abstraction level makes the CFG sound wrt mutations which substitutes instructions with the same behavior. For example the replacement of the instruction mov eax 0 by the instruction xor eax eax does not impact our CFG representation.

However, the soundness with respect to classic mutations techniques remains an important issue. Indeed, some well know mutation techniques can alter the CFG of malicious programs. In order to recover a sound representation of the control flow we apply reductions on CFG. A reduction is defined by a graph rewriting rule. As a case study, we consider three reductions associated to classic mutation techniques. Of course several other reductions can be defined in order to handle more mutations techniques. We use the following reductions

• Concatenate consecutive instructions into blocks of instructions.

- Realign code removing superfluous unconditional jumps.
- Merge consecutive conditional jumps.

Those abstractions can be defined through the graph rewriting rules of Table 2. From now on $\mathcal{CFG}(\mathbf{p})$ denotes the flow graph which correspond to the reduced CFG of the program **p**. Figure 2 presents an assembly program and its reduced CFG.



Figure 2: A program and its CFG

We remark that each rewriting rule impose a diminution of the size of the rewritten graph then the reduction clearly terminates. Moreover, since there is no critical pair we have no problem of confluence. Nevertheless, normalizing mutation through rewriting rules is a generic principle that could be applied on sophisticated cases. Then, the issues of termination and confluence will be carefully considered.

Table 3 presents mutations of the program of Figure 2. All of them have the same reduced CFG as the original program.

2 Efficient database

Road-map. Morphological detection is based on a set of malware CFG which plays the role of malware signatures. This collection of CFG is compiled into a tree automaton sented by a unique well formed tree tree

thanks to a term representation. Since tree automata fulfill a minimization property, we obtain an efficient representation of the database. Next, we apply this framework for the sub-CFG isomorphism problem in order to detect malware infection.

From graphs to terms. A path is words over $\{1,2\}^*$, we write ϵ the empty path. We define the path order for any path $\rho, \tau \in \{1, 2\}^*$ and any integer $i \in \{1, 2\}$

$$\rho 1 < \rho 2$$
 $\rho < \rho i$ $\rho < \tau \Rightarrow \rho \rho' < \tau \tau'$

A tree domain is a set $d \in \{1, 2\}^*$ such that for any path $\rho \in \{1,2\}^*$ and any integer $i \in$ $\{1, 2\}$

$$\rho i \in d \Rightarrow \rho \in d$$

A tree over a set of symbol \mathbb{F} is a pair t = $(d(t), \hat{t})$ where d(t) is a tree domain and \hat{t} is a function from d(t) to \mathbb{F} .

We consider the set of symbols \mathbb{F} = $\{\text{inst, jmp, call, jcc, ret}\} \cup \{1, 2\}^* \text{ and the}$ trees overs this set. In such trees, a nodes labeled by path $\rho = \{1, 2\}^*$ is thought as pointers to the corresponding node of the tree. Then, a tree have two kind of nodes: the inner nodes labeled by symbols of {inst, jmp, call, jcc, ret} and the pointer nodes labeled by path in $\{1,2\}^{\rho}$. In the following we write d(t) the set of inner nodes of the tree t, that is

$$\mathring{d}(t) = \left\{ \rho \left| \begin{array}{c} \rho \in d(t) \\ \hat{t}(\rho) \in \{\texttt{inst}, \texttt{jmp}, \texttt{call}, \texttt{jcc}, \texttt{ret} \} \end{array} \right\}$$

Next a tree t is well formed if for any paths $\rho, \tau \in d(t)$

$$(\hat{t}(\rho) = \tau) \Rightarrow (\tau \in \hat{d}(t) \text{ and } \rho \le \tau)$$

We observe that any CFG can be repre-

Concatenate instructions	Realign code	Merge jcc	
$ \begin{array}{c} (inst) \\ \downarrow \\ (inst) \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \land \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} (inst) \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \land \end{array} $	$ \xrightarrow[]{jmp} \\ \downarrow_{l} \\ \land $	$ \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & $	

Table 2: Control flow graph reductions

Instruction	Block	Block	jcc	All in one
substitution	substitution	permutation	obfuscation	
0: cmp eax 0 1: jne +7 2: mov ecx eax 3: sub ecx 1 4: mul eax ecx 5: cmp ecx 1 6: jne -3 7: jmp +2 8: mov eax 1 9: ret	0: cmp eax 0 1: jne +8 2: push eax 3: pop ecx 4: dec ecx 5: mul eax ecx 6: cmp ecx 1 7: jne -3 8: jmp +2 9: inc ecx 10: ret	0: cmp eax 0 1: jne +7 2: mov ecx eax 3: dec ecx 4: mul eax ecx 5: cmp ecx 1 6: jne -3 9: ret 8: inc ecx 9: jmp -2	0: cmp eax 0 1: jne +9 2: mov ecx eax 3: dec ecx 4: mul eax ecx 5: cmp ecx 2 6: ja -3 7: cmp ecx 1 8: jne -5 9: jmp +2 10: inc ecx 11: ret	0: cmp eax 0 1: $je +2$ 2: $jmp +10$ 2: $push eax$ 3: $pop ecx$ 4: $sub ecx 1$ 5: mul eax ecx 6: $cmp ecx 2$ 7: $ja -3$ 8: cmp ecx 1 9: $jne -5$ 10: ret 11: $mov ecx 1$ 12: $jmp -2$

Table 3: Control flow graph mutations

Tree automata. A finite tree automaton is a tuple $\mathcal{A} = (\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{F}, \mathbb{Q}_f, \Delta)$, where \mathbb{Q} is a finite set of states, \mathbb{F} is a set of symbols, $\mathbb{Q}_f \subset \mathbb{Q}$ is a set of final states and Δ is a finite set of transition rules of the type $a(q_1 \dots q_i) \to q$ with $a \in \mathbb{C}$ has arity i and $q, q_1, \dots, q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$.

A run of an automaton on a tree t starts at the leaves and moves upward, associating a state with each sub-tree. Any symbol a of arity 0 is labeled by q if $a \rightarrow q \in \Delta$. Next, if the direct sub-trees t_1, \ldots, t_n of a tree t = $a(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ are respectively labeled by states q_1, \ldots, q_n then the tree t is labeled by the state q if $a(q_1, \ldots, q_n) \rightarrow q \in \Delta$. A tree t is accepted by the automaton if the run labels t with a final state. We observe that a run on a tree tcan be computed in linear time, that is O(|t|). For any automaton \mathcal{A} , we write $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$ the set of trees accepted by \mathcal{A} . A language of trees \mathbb{L} is *recognizable* if there is a tree automaton \mathcal{A} such that $\mathbb{L} = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$. We define the size $|\mathcal{A}|$ of an automaton \mathcal{A} as the number of its rules.

Tree automata have interesting properties. First, it is easy to build an automaton which recognize a given finite set of trees. This operation can be done in linear time, that is O(n)where n is the sum of the sizes of the trees in the language. Second, we can add new trees to the language recognized by an automaton computing a union of automata, see [10]. Given an automaton \mathcal{A} , the union of \mathcal{A} with an automaton \mathcal{A}' can be computed in linear time, that is $O(|\mathcal{A}'|)$.

Finally, for a given recognizable tree lan-

guage, there exists a unique minimal automaton in the number of states which recognizes this language. This property ensures that the minimal automaton is the best representation of the tree language in trees of tree automata.

Theorem 1 (From [10]). For any tree automaton \mathcal{A} which recognize a tree language \mathbb{L} we can compute in quadratic time $(O(|\mathcal{A}|^2))$ a tree automaton $\widehat{\mathcal{A}}$ which is the minimum tree automaton recognizing \mathbb{L} up to a renaming of the states.

Building the database. We explain how this framework can be used to detect malware infections. Suppose that we have a set $\{t_1, \ldots, t_n\}$ of malware CFG represented by trees. Since this set is finite, there is a tree automaton \mathcal{A} which recognizes it.

Next, consider the tree representation t of a given program . Computing a run of \mathcal{A} on t, we can decide in linear time if this tree is one of the the trees obtained from malware CFG. This means that that we can efficiently decide if a program have the same CFG as a known malware.

Finally, we can speed up the detection computing the minimal automaton which recognize the language $\{t_1, \ldots, t_n\}$. From a practical point of view this is the most efficient representation of the malware CFG database.

Detecting infections. Actually, when a malicious programs infects an other program, it includes its own code within the program of its host. Then, we can reasonably suppose that the CFG of the malicious program appears as a subgraph of the global CFG of the infected program. As a result, we can detect such an infection by deciding the subgraph isomorphism problem within the context of CFG.

First we have to observe that we are not confronted with the general sub-graph isomorphism since CFG are graphs with strong constraints. In particular the edge labeling property implies that a CFG composed of n nodes accepts at most n subgraphs. As a result, the sub-CFG isomorphism problem is not NPcomplete. Then to detect sub-CFG it is sufficient to run the automaton on the tree representations of any sub-CFG.

3 Experiments

Road-map. We consider the win32 binaries of VX Heavens [2] malware collection. This collection is composed of 10156 malicious programs. Then, we have collected 2653 win32 binaries from a fresh installation of Windows VistaTM. This second collection is considered as sane programs.

Using those samples we experiments with our implementation of the morphological detector. We focus our attention on false positive ratios in order to validate the our method. Indeed, we have to know if it is possible to discriminate same programs from malicious ones only considering their CFG. The following experimental results agree with this hypothesis.

CFG extraction in practice. To overcome the difficulties of CFG extraction we have chosen the following solutions

- We use the unpacking capabilities of ClamAVTM [3].
- We have implemented a dynamic disassembler based on the disassembler library Udis86 [1]. Our module is able to follow the control flow and it keep track of the stack in order to remove push a; ret sequences.
- The evaluation heuristic (e) proceed as follows. When we encounter a dynamic flow instruction, we emulate the preceding block of sequential instructions in order

to recover the value of e. Our emulation technology is also build over Udis86. It is limited to a subset of x86 assembly instruction, interruptions and system calls are not taken into account.

• We reduce the obtained CFG according to the rules of Table 2.

Figure 3 presents the result of the CFG extraction from the malware database. About 5% of the database are programs with a non valid PE header, they produce an empty graph. Then we are able to extract a CFG of more that 5 nodes from about 80% of the program of the database. The remaining 15% produce a CFG which have between 1 and 5. We think that those graph are too small to be relevant.

Figure 3 gives the sizes of the reduced CFG extracted from the programs of those collections. On the X axis we have the upper bound on the size of CFG and on the Y axis we have the percentage of CFG whose size is lower than the bound.

Building the database. The size of malware control flow graphs clearly impact the accuracy of the control flow detector. We have observed that the graphs extracted from some malware were too small to be relevant and the resulting detector made many false alerts because of a few such graphs. As a result, we impose a lower bound on the size of the graphs that we include in the database. Next, we have done several tests using different lower bounds.

Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ be the lower bound on the size of CFG. We build the minimized automaton $\mathcal{A}_{\mathbb{M}}^{N}$ which recognizes the set of tree representations of malware CFG. We define the morphological detector $D_{\mathbb{M}}^{N}$ as a predicate such that for any program $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{P}$ we have $D_{\mathbb{M}}^{N}(\mathbf{p}) = 1$ if a malware CFG appears as a subgraph of $\mathcal{CFG}(\mathbf{p})$ and $D_{\mathbb{M}}^{N}(\mathbf{p}) = 0$ otherwise. We have seen in the previous sections that $D_{\mathbb{M}}^{N}$ can be decided using $\mathcal{A}_{\mathbb{M}}^{N}$.

This design has several advantages. First, when a new malicious program is discovered, one can easily add the canonical tree of its CFG to the database using the union of tree automata and a new compilation to obtain a minimal tree automaton.

The computation of the 'not minimal' automata takes about 25 minutes. The minimization takes several hours but this delay is not so important. Indeed, within the context of an update of the malware database, during the minimization we can release the 'not minimal' automaton. Indeed, even if this is not the best automaton it still recognize the malware database and it could be used until the minimization is terminated.

Evaluation. As said above we dispose of a collection of 10156 malicious programs and 2653 sane programs. Figure 3 gives the sizes of the reduced CFG extracted form the programs of those collections. On the X axis we have the upper bound on the size of CFG and on the Y axis we have the percentage of CFG whose size is lower than the bound.



Figure 3: Sizes of control flow graphs

We are interested by false positives, that is sane programs detected as malicious. For that, we have collected 2653 programs from a fresh installation of Windows VistaTM. Let us note S this set of programs. Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ be a lower bound on the size of malware CFG, we consider the following approximation of the false positives of the detector $D_{\mathbb{M}}^N$

False positives $\{\mathbf{p} \mid D^N_{\mathbb{M}}(\mathbf{p}) = 1 \text{ and } \mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{S}\}$

We do not evaluate false negatives, that is undetected malicious programs. Indeed, by construction all malicious programs of our malware collection are detected by the morphological detector. Nevertheless, this methods seems promising for this aspect. Indeed, the study [6] has shown that a CFG based detection allows to detect the high-obfuscating computer virus MetaPHOR with no false negative.

Experimental results. We have built tree automata from the malware samples. According to the previous section we obtain the morphological detectors $D^N_{\mathbb{M}}$. We have tested those detectors on the collection of saneware in order to evaluate the false positives. It takes about 5h30 min to analyze the collection of saneware, this represents the analysis of 2'319'294 sub-CFG. Table 4 presents the results. The first column indicates the considered detector according to the lower bound N.The second column indicates the number of false negatives, those are malicious programs whose CFG have sizes lower than the bound. The ratio is computed with respect to the whole database of 10156 malicious programs. The last column indicates the number of false positives and the ratio with respect to the collection of 2653 sane programs.

3.1 Analysis.

As expected, we observe that the false negatives and the false positives respectively increase and decrease with the lower bound on the size of CFG. Over 15 nodes, the CFG seems to be a relevant criterium to discriminate malware.

Concerning the remaining false positives. The libraries ir41_qc.dll and

Lower Bound	False positives	Undetected
1	100.00%	4.80%
2	83.78%	5.43%
3	76.82%	16.43%
4	76.77%	16.66%
5	57.98%	20.01%
6	34.84%	21.50%
7	20.57%	23.34%
9	12.06%	24.43%
10	2.17%	26.47%
11	2.04%	27.78%
12	1.60%	29.35%
13	0.71%	30.74%
15	0.09%	36.52%



Table 4: Results of the experiments

ir41_qcx.dll, and the malicious program Trojan.Win32.Sechole have the same CFG composed of more that one thousand nodes. We have tested those programs with commercial antivirus software and the libraries ir41_qc.dll and ir41_qcx.dll are not detected whereas the program Trojan.Win32.Sechole is detected as a malware. The malicious programs seems to be based on the dynamic library and the extraction algorithm was not able to extract the CFG related to the malicious program.

mal- Concerning the ration of undetected malware, The only way to improve the detector pos- is to implement a better heuristic for control and flow graph extraction. In its current version our prototype only use a few heuristics. We are currently working on this problem.

For comparison, statistical methods used in [16] induce false negatives ratios between 36 % and 48 % and false positive ratios between 0.5 % and 34 %. A detector based on artificial neural networks developed at IBM [19] presents false negatives ratios between 15 % and 20 % and false positive ratios lower than 1 %. The data mining methods surveyed in [17] present false negatives ratios between 2.3 % and 64.4 % and false positive ratios between 2.2 % and 47.5 %. Heuristics methods from antivirus industry tested in [15] present false negatives ratios between 20.0 % and 48.6 % and false positive ratios lower than 0.2 %.

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