# An Evaluation of Malware Triage Similarity Hashes

Haoping Liu<sup>1</sup>, Josiah Hagen<sup>1</sup>, Muqeet Ali<sup>1</sup> and Jonathan Oliver<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>TrendMicro Research, U.S.A.

<sup>2</sup>The University of Queensland, Australia

Keywords: Malware Triage, Similarity Hashes, Approximate Matching.

Abstract:

Detection of polymorphic malware variants is crucial in cyber security. Searching and clustering are crucial tools for security analysts and SOC operators in malware analysis and hunting. Similarity hashing generates similarity digests based on binary files, allowing for the calculation of similarity scores, saving time and resources in malware triage operations. In this paper, we compare the accuracy and run time of TLSH and LZJD algorithms, both based on windows-based malware samples. TLSH is widely used in industry, while LZJD is newly developed and released in academia. TLSH hashes skip-n-grams into a histogram, providing distance scores based on histogram similarity, while LZJD converts byte strings into sub-strings, providing similarity scores between the sets. Our experiments show that TLSH performs slightly better than LZJD in detection rate, but vastly outperforms LZJD in index and search time.

### 1 INTRODUCTION

The Security Operations Center (SOC) is the core of a company, responsible for detecting, analyzing, and fixing security threats. As threats evolve, it's crucial for the SOC to keep pace. During investigations, SOC analysts may encounter suspicious files or executables. Understanding the origin and intent of potential malware provides valuable information to guide further investigation and action. Malware analysis techniques equip analysts with the necessary tools to uncover critical insights.

Static and dynamic analysis technologies are effective in detecting polymorphic malware. However, they are vulnerable to evasions and become less efficient as malware evolves. Extracting features also consumes a lot of computing resources and time per sample, making it difficult to keep pace with the daily influx of malware. Currently, the most widely used in malware triage are similarity hashing (Li, Sundaramurthy, Bardas, & Ou, 2015) (Pagani, Dell'Amico, & Balzarotti, 2018) (Oliver, Ali, & Hagen, 2020) (Cooley, et al., 2021), import hashing (Fireeye, 2014) (Naik, Jenkins, Savage, & Yang, 2020) and YARA rules (Naik, Jenkins, Savage, & Yang, 2019). Accuracy and response time in matching samples of a method are the primary challenges in the triaging process.

**Contributions.** I This paper aims to address concerns about the detection efficiency and effectiveness of two similarity hashes, which both handle byte-stream data but lack cross-comparison.

### 2 BACKGROUNDS: TLSH AND LZJD

Cryptographic hashes like SHA1 or SHA256 are used for precise file or byte-stream matching. Hash-based filtering involves hashing two data objects and comparing the results. Cryptographic hashes only provide binary answers, while similarity hashes offer a probabilistic answer as a measure of similarity or distance. The aim of similarity hashing is to enable approximate matching and support similarity search and classification. This paper provides a high-level overview of the design and operation of evaluated tools, while the finer details can be found in referenced publications.

### **2.1** TLSH

TLSH (Trend Micro Locality Sensitive Hash) is a locality sensitive hash which produces a fixed-length hash digest based on the input bytes (Oliver, Cheng, & Chen, 2013). The standard TLSH hash (which is

used throughout in this paper) produces a digest 70 characters in length. The TLSH hash digest has the property that two similar inputs would produce a similar hash digest, based on statistical features of the input bytes (Oliver & Hagen, 2021). The hash digest is a concatenation of the digest header and digest body. The following steps are involved in computation of the standard TLSH hash:

- All 3-grams from a sliding window of 5 bytes are used to compute an array of bucket counts, which are used to form the digest body.
- Based on the calculation of bucket counts (as calculated above) the three quartiles are calculated (referred to as q1, q2, and q3 respectively).
- The digest body is constructed based on the values of the quartiles in the array of bucket counts, using two bits per 128 buckets to construct a 32-byte digest.
- The digest header is composed of a checksum, the logarithm of the byte string length and a compact representation of the histogram of bucket counts using the ratios between the quartile points for q1:q3 and q2:q3

Two different TLSH hash digests are compared using the TLSH distance. The TLSH distance of zero represents that the files are likely identical, and scores greater than that indicate the greater degrees of dissimilarity (please see the original paper for more details on the computation of the distance).

#### 2.2 LZJD

Lempel-Ziv Jaccard Distance or LZJD algorithm designed by Edward Raff and Charles Nicholas (Raff & Nicholas, 2017). The inspiration of LZJD come from the Normalized Compression Distance, which measures the ability to compress two inputs into a similar output using the same compression technique. This has a long history of use in data mining, and LZJD applies this approach to determine malware similarity. First, the Lempel-Ziv Set algorithm coverts a byte sequence into a set of byte subsequences which is previously seen sequences in the set. Initially, the set is empty, and then the following process is repeated from the beginning of the byte stream until the end of the stream is reached: beginning with a sub-sequence of length 1, if this subsequence has not been seen, then add it to the set and the pointer move to the end of current sub-sequence and next desired sub-sequence length reset to one. If the sub-sequence has been seen before, it increases

next desired sub-sequence length by one to incorporate the next byte.

LZJD only compares a small portion of the set to speed up the process even more. To approximate the distance by using min-hashing to create a compact representation of the input string. Use this approximation to reduce time and memory requirements for computing LZJD. Moreover, there is around 3% approximation error by selecting minimum k=1024 hashes from the set. The steps of procedure to compare byte sequences are following:

- Covert byte sequence  $B_i$  into many unique subsequences using Lempel-Ziv Set Algorithm
- Hash these unique sub-sequences into a set  $C_i$  of integers via hash functions.
- Sort integers set and keep k=1024 smallest values
- Calculate the Jaccard distance between two set of smallest values. Approximate  $LZJD(B_i, B_i) \approx 1 J(C_i^k, C_i^k)$

We can interpret the LZJD score as a rough measure of byte similarity. For example, consider two inputs A and B. A score of 0.75 means that, for all substrings shared between the LZSet(A) and LZSet(B), 75% of them could be found in both files. This can be loosely interpreted as saying that A and B share 75% of their byte strings (Raff & Nicholas, 2017).

## 3 EXPERIMENTS SETUPS

**Dataset.** Our evaluation uses real malware files obtained from the MalwareBazaar website (MalwareBazaar, n.d.). The 5138 Windows-based malware samples, belonging to 20 families, come from this source. The training set uses April 2022 collected files, while the testing set consists of samples from May 1st, 2022.

Classifier. We employ the Nearest Neighbors classifier with KD Tree indexing. The principle is to identify the closest predefined number of training samples to the new point and predict its label. This paper uses radius-based neighbor learning instead of k-nearest neighbor learning. The number of training samples is based on the local density of points within a set radius. Any metric measure can be used for distance, but standard Euclidean distance is the most common. In this case, we use TLSH and LZJD distance scores as the distance metric.

#### 3.1 Evaluation Procedure

To evaluate, we first need to understand the output of each tool. TLSH provides a distance score of 0 to 300, with a lower score indicating higher skip n-gram byte similarity. LZJD only offers a similarity score of 0 to 1, where a higher score means higher substring similarity. To make them comparable, we created a LZJD distance function by reversing its similarity score by multiplying by 100. Both tools now have distance scores as output, which we use in our experiments. The threshold value of the distance score in the nearest neighbors' algorithm affects the classification performance results.

#### 3.2 Evaluation Metrics

We split the predictions into three categories: Correct, Incorrect, and Inconclusive:

- **Correct:** The cluster is correctly labeled, and the prediction matches the true label.
- Inconclusive: The sample or cluster lacks a label, resulting in a "I don't know" answer to a distance query.
- **Incorrect:** The cluster labeling is inconsistent, and the prediction does not match the true label.

Finally, we consider two basic measurements, detection rate and error rate:

**Detection Rate** refers to the ratio of correct detections among all samples in the testing set.

Detection Rate = Correct / N, where N = Correct + Incorrect + Inconclusive

**Error Rate** reflects the incorrect predictions made by each approach in the testing set. In practical terms, inconclusive results cannot lead to any conclusions.

Error Rate = Incorrect / (Correct + Incorrect)

#### 4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We analyzed the distribution of distance scores for three categories: correct, incorrect, and inconclusive. The distance score is a crucial tunable parameter in nearest neighbors' classification, and we aim to demonstrate the distribution of distance scores under real-world data to assess their usefulness and efficacy.

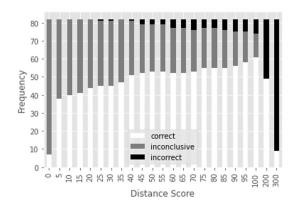


Figure 1: Experiments of TLSH distance score distribution.

#### 4.1 TLSH Distance Scores Distribution

We analyzed all files with TLSH distance scores between 0 and 300. As shown in Figure 1, we observed that incorrect predictions were not present when the distances were less than or equal to 20, resulting in a zero Error Rate. However, as the distance parameter increased, the Error Rate increased as well. Conversely, the Detection Rate also increased with a larger distance, reflecting a trade-off between a higher Error Rate and increased Detection Rate.

# 4.2 LZJD Distance Scores Distribution

We studied all files with LZJD distance scores between 0 and 100. As shown in Figure 2, there were no incorrect predictions until the distance parameter was raised to 50. However, the number of incorrect predictions increased significantly when the distance score reached 85 or higher.

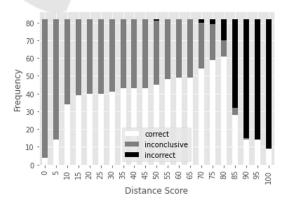


Figure 2: Experiments of LZJD distance score distribution.

#### 4.3 Detection Rate and Error Rate

Table 1: TLSH and LZJD detection and error rate.

TLSH			LZJD		
score	Detection	Error	score	Detection	Error
	rate	rate		rate	rate
10	48.78%	0.00%	10	41.46%	0.00%
20	53.66%	0.00%	20	48.78%	0.00%
30	54.88%	2.17%	30	50.00%	0.00%
40	62.20%	1.92%	40	52.44%	0.00%
50	64.63%	5.36%	50	54.88%	2.17%
60	63.41%	8.77%	60	59.76%	0.00%
70	64.63%	10.17%	65	59.76%	0.00%
80	67.07%	8.33%	70	65.85%	3.57%
90	68.29%	11.11%	75	71.95%	4.84%
100	74.39%	11.59%	80	74.39%	16.44%
150	69.51%	22.97%	85	34.15%	64.10%
200	59.76%	40.24%	90	17.07%	82.72%
250	14.63%	85.37%	95	17.07%	82.93%
300	10.98%	89.02%	100	10.98%	89.02%

Observations from the table are as follows:

- TLSH and LZJD have different score ranges, with TLSH up to 300 and potentially over 1000, while LZJD is limited to 0-100.
- Both TLSH and LZJD have low error rates, gradually increasing with the increase of the distance parameter.
- LZJD has a lower error rate compared to TLSH, but also a lower detection rate.
- TLSH has better detection rate than LZJD at all reasonable thresholds but has a smaller number of errors.
- LZJD has zero error rate at thresholds <= 65 (except 50), with best detection rate at threshold = 65 with zero error rate.

#### 4.4 ROC Metric

We took the false positive and true positive rates for two of We used false positive and true positive rates of two schemes to plot a ROC curve, including inconclusive as a false positive when the classifier fails to predict. As shown in Fig. 3, the ROC curve reveals that TLSH has slightly higher Area Under the Curve (AUC) compared to LZJD.

#### 4.5 Runtime Performance

Our experiment was conducted on a commodity 4core machine with 64 GB memory and Intel Core i7 6820HQ series processor (with a core turbo clock speed of 2.7 GHz). We tested both similarity hash tools and Table 1 shows the total runtime from indexing to prediction. LZJD is large runtime overhead.

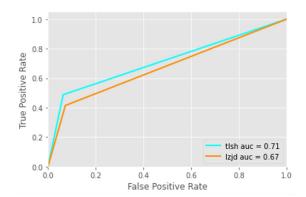


Figure 3: ROC Curve of TLSH and LZJD.

Table 2: Comparison of runtime time for TLSH and LZJD.

Index & Search Time (seconds)	TLSH	LZJD
Average	0.894	167.458
Median	0867	166.022
Min	0.822	158.415
Max	1.092	183.519

#### 5 CONCLUSIONS

The results indicate that both methods have strong predictive abilities. TLSH outperforms LZJD in indexing and searching time for malware triage due to its shorter digests. TLSH compresses binary data effectively while retaining meaningful information, whereas its short digests conserve disk space, memory and computing resources during index creation and distance calculation.

### REFERENCES

Cooley, R., Cutshaw, M., Wolf, S., Rita, F., Haile, J., & Borowczak, M. (2021). Comparing Ransomware using TLSH and @DisCo Analysis Frameworks. *IEEE International Conference on Big Data*. Orlando, FL, USA: IEEE International Conference on Big Data.

Fireeye. (2014). Tracking Malware with Import Hashing. Retrieved from https://www.mandiant.com/resources/tracking-malware-import-hashing

Li, Y., Sundaramurthy, S., Bardas, A., & Ou, X. (2015). Experimental study of fuzzy hashing in malware clustering analysis. 8th Workshop on Cyber Security Experimentation and Test (CSET 15). Washington,

- D.C.: 8th Workshop on Cyber Security Experimentation and Test.
- MalwareBazaar. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://bazaar.abuse.ch/
- Naik, N., Jenkins, P., Savage, N., & Yang, L. (2019). Triaging Ransomware using Fuzzy Hashing, Import Hashing and YARA Rules. *IEEE International Conference on Fuzzy Systems (FUZZ-IEEE)*. New Orleans: IEEE International Conference on Fuzzy Systems (FUZZ-IEEE).
- Naik, N., Jenkins, P., Savage, N., & Yang, L. (2020). Fuzzy-Import Hashing: A Malware Analysis Approach. IEEE International Conference on Fuzzy Systems (FUZZ-IEEE). Glasgow, UK: IEEE International Conference on Fuzzy Systems (FUZZ-IEEE).
- Oliver, J., & Hagen, J. (2021). Designing the Elements of a Fuzzy Hashing Scheme. *19th International Conference on Embedded and Ubiquitous Computing (EUC)*. Shenyang, China: IEEE 19th International Conference on Embedded and Ubiquitous Computing (EUC).
- Oliver, J., Ali, M., & Hagen, J. (2020). HAC-T and Fast Search for Similarity in Security. *International Conference on Omni-layer Intelligent Systems (COINS)*. Barcelona, Spain.
- Oliver, J., Cheng, C., & Chen, Y. (2013). Tlsh a locality sensitive hash. *Fourth Cybercrime and Trustworthy Computing Workshop*. Sydney, Australia: Fourth Cybercrime and Trustworthy Computing Workshop.
- Pagani, F., Dell'Amico, M., & Balzarotti, D. (2018).
  Beyond Precision and Recall: Understanding Uses (and Misuses) of Similarity Hashes in Binary Analysis.
  Proceedings of the Eighth ACM Conference on Data and Application Security and Privacy. New York:
  Proceedings of the Eighth ACM Conference on Data and Application Security and Privacy.
- Raff, E., & Nicholas, C. (2017). An Alternative to NCD for Large Sequences, Lempel-Ziv Jaccard Distance. the 23rd ACM SIGKDD International Conference. Halifax, Canada: Proceedings of the 23rd ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining.
- Raff, E., & Nicholas, C. K. (2017). Lempel-Ziv Jaccard Distance, an Effective Alternative to Ssdeep and Sdhash. *Digital Investigation*. Digital Investigation.