



## Survey on Vulnerability Detection Based on Deep Learning

**Dr. Pushpalatha M N**

*Professor, ISE Department*

*M S Ramaiah Institute of Technology (VTU)*

*Bangalore, India*

*pushpalathamn@msrit.edu*

**Parna H K**

*Post Graduate Student, Software Engg..*

*M S Ramaiah Institute of Technology (VTU)*

*Bangalore, India*

*parnahemankumar@gmail.com*

**Abstract:** A crucial problem in software security is automated vulnerability detection. The current approaches to program analysis are fraught with numerous false positives and false negatives. The use of machine learning (ML) for automated vulnerability identification has rekindled interest in recent developments. Recent studies have shown that finding vulnerabilities with high accuracy—up to 97 percent—is possible, which is encouraging. The generalizability of four cutting-edge neural network designs with high accuracy (up to 97 percent) is thoroughly evaluated in this study. Our findings demonstrate that none of these networks can be generalized beyond the datasets in which they were tested due to implicit biases created during the data collection and labelling process. A method for accurately estimating the effects of various vulnerability dataset biases is presented, as is a taxonomy of those biases. We statistically evaluate various types of biases using our bias assessment method in four prominent vulnerability datasets. Next, we create a balanced real-world dataset from developer and user-reported vulnerabilities in two major real-world projects—Debian and Chrome—and demonstrate that all evaluated neural networks lose approximately 50% of their accuracy on this dataset. As a result, we contend that the problem of

dataset bias in current ML-based vulnerability detection techniques is a significant one. In addition, we provide a list of practices that current researchers could employ to lessen these biases.

**Keywords:** *datasets, text tagging, eye tracking, and neural networks*

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Software flaws are the basis for many cyberattacks. Software vulnerabilities persist and will continue to be a serious problem, despite efforts to promote safe programming. The fact that the Common Vulnerabilities and Exposures (CVE) database contained approximately 4,600 vulnerabilities in 2010 and more than 6,500 in 2016 lends credence to this assertion. Finding flaws in software programs, or programs for short, is yet another method. Numerous studies and static vulnerability detection methods, including open-source tools, commercial products, and university research initiatives, have been developed for this purpose. On the other hand, the existing methods for identifying vulnerabilities suffer from two major drawbacks: resulting in high false negative rates and a significant human effort, both of which are further discussed below.



On the one hand, traditional tools for detecting vulnerabilities rely on human specialists to identify characteristics. Even experts find this to be a time-consuming, subjective, and occasionally error-prone endeavour due to the complexity of the issue. To put it another way, feature identification is essentially an art. This indicates that the individuals who define the resulting features vary in terms of their quality and, as a result, the usefulness of the subsequent detection system. Theoretically, this problem could be resolved by asking a number of experts to describe their own characteristics, selecting the characteristics that result in greater effectiveness, or combining these characteristics. However, this requires significantly more effort and time. In point of fact, if at all possible, it is always preferable to minimize, if not eliminate, human specialists' heavy lifting. The trend toward automation in cyber defense is bolstered by initiatives like DARPA's Cyber Grand Challenge. Therefore, removing human specialists from the subjective and time-consuming task of manually specifying characteristics for vulnerability identification is critical.

On the other hand, the solutions that are currently in use frequently overlook numerous vulnerabilities or have significant rates of false negatives. For instance, when applied to 455 vulnerability samples, the two most recent vulnerability detection tools, VUDDY and Vul Pecker, have a false negative rate of 38% and 18.2%, respectively, when detecting Apache HTTPD 2.4.23. According to Table V in Section IV, our own independent tests demonstrate that their respective false negative rates are 95.1% and 89.8%. The use of different datasets is to blame for the significant disparity between the false negative rates that were

reported and those that were determined from our trials. Their high false negative rates may be justified by their focus on their low false positive rates, which are 0% for VUDDY and unreported for Vul Pecker. Vul Pecker has a false positive rate of 1.9%, while VUDDY has a false positive rate of 0%, as shown by our independent research. This suggests that the methods for detecting code clone-caused vulnerabilities are built into VUDDY and Vul Pecker to achieve low false positive rates; When it comes to identifying flaws that are not caused by code clones, this approach, on the other hand, has a high rate of false negatives.

Vulnerability detection systems that have a high rate of false positives and false negatives may not be able to be used. This demonstrates how crucial it is to create vulnerability detection systems with low false negative and positive rates. Since the rates of false positives and false negatives frequently diverge, we cannot focus on decreasing the false negative rate unless the false positive rate is not excessively high. The necessity of developing a vulnerability detection system that has a low rate of either false negatives or false positives and does not require human specialists to manually specify characteristics highlights the importance of doing so.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### **Why don't software developers use static analysis tools to find bugs?:**

Utilizing static examination tools to computerize code investigations may be beneficial for software developers. Finding bugs or software flaws utilizing such advancements might be speedier and more



affordable than human assessments. Regardless of the upsides of using static examination instruments to distinguish blemishes, research demonstrates that they are underutilized. In this review, we take a gander at why engineers don't utilize static examination devices more regularly and how present apparatuses might be gotten to the next level. We talked with 20 designers and found that, albeit our members accepted that use is all profitable, misleading up-sides and how alerts are given, in addition to other things, are hindrances to utilize. We address the consequences of these discoveries, for example, the need for an intelligent framework to help designers in fixing bugs.

### **Can Machine Learning Be Secure?**

In a scope of utilizations, for example, interruption recognition frameworks and spam email sifting, machine learning (ML) frameworks furnish unmatched adaptability in managing creating information. ML calculations, then again, might be gone after by an unfriendly rival. This article offers a worldview for resolving the issue, "Can ML be secure?" This paper's original commitments remember a scientific classification of various kinds of assaults for ML strategies and frameworks, different protections against those assaults, a conversation of thoughts vital to ML security, an insightful model that gives a lower bound on the assailant's work capability, and a rundown of open issues.

### **DECKARD: Scalable and Accurate Tree-Based Detection of Code Clones:**

There are a few software programming applications for distinguishing code clones. Existing strategies

either don't scale to gigantic code bases or aren't impervious to little code changes. In this investigation, we present an efficient approach to distinguishing related subtrees and apply it to depictions of source code trees. A skilful calculation for grouping these mathematical vectors according to the Euclidean distance metric and an extraordinary characterisation of subtrees involving mathematical vectors in the Euclidean space  $R^n$  mid speck are necessary for our method. It is believed that subtrees with vectors in the same bunch are equivalent. Our tree likeness method has been implemented in a DECKARD clone discovery tool and tested on numerous C and Java code bases, including the Linux component and JDK. DECKARD is both adaptable and exact, as per our tests. It is likewise language rationalist, meaning it very well might be utilized to any language having an appropriately depicted punctuation.

### **LEMNA: Explaining Deep Learning based Security Applications:**

Despite the fact that deep learning has demonstrated significant commitment across a variety of fields, its application in basic areas of safety or health has been limited due to its lack of simplicity. Existing exploration has tried to build clarification approaches for every classification decision to give interpretable clarifications. Deplorably, present arrangements are intended for non-security occupations (e.g., picture investigation). In security applications, their fundamental presumptions are frequently broken, bringing about unfortunate clarification loyalty. We offer LEMNA, a high-devotion clarification approach intended for security applications, in this review.



LEMNA makes a restricted assortment of interpretable highlights in view of an information test to portray how the information test is ordered. The fundamental idea is to utilize a basic interpretable model to address a minuscule segment of the convoluted profound learning choice limit. The nearby interpretable model is specifically designed to (1) enforce nonlinear neighbourhood limits to further develop clarification loyalty and (2) address highlight reliance to perform better with security applications (such as double code examination). We survey our framework utilizing two normal profound learning security applications (a malware classifier, and a capability start locator for paired figuring out). Broad appraisals uncover that LEMNA's clarification has a lot more prominent devotion than past methodologies. Moreover, we show how LEMNA might be utilized to help ML engineers confirm model way of behaving, investigate order botches, and consequently fix target model imperfections.

### **Large-Scale Identification of Malicious Singleton Files:**

We examined a dataset of billions of program parallel documents that appeared on 100 million personal computers over the course of a year and discovered that 94% of these documents could be accessed from a single platform. Although malware polymorphism is one factor that contributes to the large number of singleton records, other factors, such as the 80:1 ratio of harmless to risky singleton records, also contribute to polymorphism. The enormous amount of harmless singletons makes distinguishing the minority of vindictive singletons troublesome. We report the consequences of a huge scope examination of the

characteristics, qualities, and conveyance of harmless and malevolent singleton records. Despite the fact that most pernicious singleton records use obscurity and pressing methods that we do not attempt to de-obfuscate, we use the findings of this review to create a classifier based solely on static elements that accurately recognizes 92% of the remaining vindictive singletons with a 1.4% bogus positive rate. At long last, we show that our classifier is impervious to many sorts of computerized avoidance attacks.

### **3. METHODOLOGY**

The Reveal tool study gathers vulnerabilities by visiting project issue trackers and finding problems that are expressly classified as security flaws or vulnerabilities, or any other security-specific tags. And after the problem is handled, there is a patch attached to the issue that indicates the functions that have been altered for every file update. The unaltered functions are marked as non-vulnerable, whereas the ones preceding the patch are marked as susceptible. This approach gathered over 18000 functions, of which 16000 were susceptible. This aids in the resolution of issues related to the collection of susceptible and non-vulnerable data sets. A device called Vulnerability Deep Pecker was created in light of exploration on a profound learning-based strategy for consequently tracking down weaknesses in programs (source code) (VulDee Pecker). This paper offers the thought of a Code Device, which is a unit for weakness discovery and is comprised of various program explanations that are semantically attached to each other regarding information reliance or control reliance.

deep learning-based weakness location approach for the most part incorporates the accompanying advances:

1. Information assortment: For preparing and testing the profound learning model, a dataset of defenceless and non-weak programming frameworks is accumulated. This dataset may incorporate source code, byte code, or other programming framework portrayals.

2. Information pre-handling: The acquired information is pre-handled to wipe out any unessential data and organization it with the goal that the profound learning model can use it. Changing over source code to a mathematical portrayal, for example, token embeddings or dynamic sentence structure trees, is one model.

3. Model preparation: On the pre-handled information, a profound learning model, like a brain organization, is prepared. The model is prepared to perceive the qualities and examples that separate helpless programming frameworks from non-weak programming frameworks.

4. Model testing: To evaluate the prepared model's presentation, it is tried on a particular dataset of powerless and non-weak programming frameworks. The model's adequacy is estimated utilizing measurements like accuracy, review, and precision.

5. Model deployment: The trained and tested model is used to discover vulnerabilities in software systems in a real-world environment. This might involve incorporating the model into a software development

cycle or utilising it to assess existing systems for vulnerabilities.

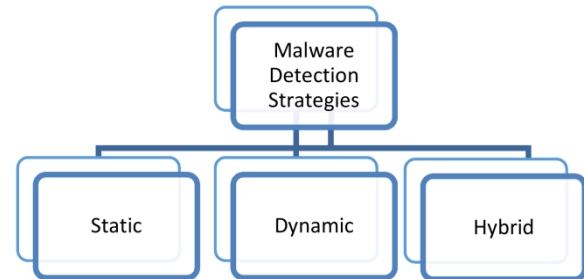


Fig 1 Architecture diagram

## 4. IMPLEMENTATION

There are two main phases to the suggested model: a) the creation of the benchmarking structure and proposed dataset, which could be used to create a pattern framework for finding weaknesses; and b) the development of a second method for looking at how weaknesses are presented. Modularized benchmarking structure: A single tick execution for building and testing weakness location models is provided by incorporating two elective code inserting systems and six normal brain network models.

The structure provides APIs for the straightforward joining of additional brain network models as well as support for additional code inserting arrangements to ensure extensibility. For reality dataset used to assess the exhibition of weakness location arrangements: For nine open-source projects, we used datasets that were painstakingly approved. The recommended benchmarking approach is partitioned into three modules: code encoding/implanting, preparing, and testing. During the preparation stage, clients might pick numerous installing methodologies and brain





network models for creating weakness locators. It permits clients to test the prepared organization model or get portrayals from an inconsistent layer of a prepared organization during the testing system. The stage has APIs that simplify it to incorporate word/code installing strategies with brain network models. Metric for surveying weakness finder execution: utilizing top % precision and top rate review as measurements for assessing weakness identifier execution. Comparable measurements are much of the time utilized with regards to data recovery frameworks, for example, web indexes to decide the number of applicable archives that are acquired from the top recovered records in general. We might use these measurements with regards to weakness recognition to duplicate a practical model in which the quantity of capabilities to be gotten for assessment represented a minuscule part of all out capabilities inferable from time and asset limitations.

## 5. CONCLUSION

Vulnerability detection using Deep Learning is far from perfect, and it is far from being useful in the improvement cycle. To enhance the deep learning-based vulnerability detection approach, both training and assessment data, as well as models, should be properly picked to assist Code Analysis. Traces should be included in future Static analysis of functionality and Dynamic analysis of execution to develop a more robust model for identifying vulnerability in source code.

We presented VulDeePecker, the primary deep learning-based weakness discovery framework, determined to let human experts free from the tedious

and abstract work of physically characterizing highlights and diminishing misleading negatives that current vulnerability detection techniques endure. We have presented a few early suggestions for directing the act of utilizing deep figuring out how to vulnerability detection since deep learning was made for purposes that are incredibly unique in relation to weakness discovery. These thoughts ought to be improved further since deep learning offers a ton of commitment for handling the weakness location issue. In order to evaluate the viability of VulDeePecker and the other deep learning-based vulnerability detection frameworks that will be developed in the future, we gathered and made freely available a supporting dataset. Broad testing shows that VulDeePecker accomplishes a considerably lower misleading negative rate than existing weakness discovery techniques while letting human experts free from the tedious errand of physically determining qualities. VulDeePecker found four weaknesses in the three programming items we tried (Xen, Seamonkey, and Libav) that were not referenced in the NVD and were "quietly" fixed by the makers when they distributed more current variants of these items. Interestingly, the other discovery frameworks missed practically these vulnerabilities, except for one framework, which remembered one of these vulnerabilities yet missed the other three.

## REFERENCES

[1] Marco Barreno, Blaine Nelson, Russell Sears, Anthony D Joseph, and J Doug Tygar. 2006. Can machine learning be secure?. In Proceedings of the



2006 ACM Symposium on Information, computer and communications security. ACM, 16–25.

[2] Wenbo Guo, Dongliang Mu, Jun Xu, Purui Su, Gang Wang, and Xinyu Xing. 2018. Lemna: Explaining deep learning based security applications. In Proceedings of the 2018 ACM SIGSAC Conference on Computer and Communications Security. ACM, 364–379.

[3] Lingxiao Jiang, Ghassan Mishherghi, Zhendong Su, and Stephane Glondou. 2007. DECKARD: Scalable and Accurate Tree-Based Detection of Code Clones. ICSE (2007).

[4] Brittany Johnson, Yoonki Song, Emerson Murphy-Hill, and Robert Bowdidge. 2013. Why don't software developers use static analysis tools to find bugs?. In Proceedings of the 2013 International Conference on Software Engineering. IEEE Press, 672–681.

[5] Jake Lever, Martin Krzywinski, and Naomi S Altman. 2016. Points of Significance: Model selection and overfitting. *Nature Methods* 13, 9 (2016), 703–704.

[6] Bo Li, Kevin Roundy, Chris Gates, and Yevgeniy Vorobeychik. 2017. Large-scale identification of malicious singleton files. In Proceedings of the Seventh ACM on Conference on Data and Application Security and Privacy. ACM, 227–238.

[7] Zhen Li, Deqing Zou, Shouhuai Xu, Hai Jin, Yawei Zhu, Zhaoxuan Chen, Sujuan Wang, and Jialai Wang. 2018. SySeVR: A Framework for Using Deep

Learning to Detect Software Vulnerabilities. arXiv preprint arXiv:1807.06756 (2018).

[8] Zhen Li, Deqing Zou, Shouhuai Xu, Xinyu Ou, Hai Jin, Sujuan Wang, Zhijun Deng, and Yuyi Zhong. 2018. VulDeePecker: A deep learning-based system for vulnerability detection. In Proceedings of the 25th Annual Network and Distributed System Security Symposium (NDSS'2018).

[9] Davide Maiorca and Battista Biggio. 2019. Digital Investigation of PDF Files: Unveiling Traces of Embedded Malware. *IEEE Security & Privacy* 17, 1 (2019), 63–71.

[10] National Security Agency Center for Assured Software. 2012. Juliet Test Suite v1.2 for C/C++ User Guide. [https://samate.nist.gov/SARD/resources/Juliet\\_Test\\_Suite\\_v1.2\\_for\\_C\\_Cpp\\_-\\_User\\_Guide.pdf](https://samate.nist.gov/SARD/resources/Juliet_Test_Suite_v1.2_for_C_Cpp_-_User_Guide.pdf) Last accessed 8 September 2019.

[11] Vadim Okun, Aurelien Delaitre, and Paul E Black. 2013. Report on the static analysis tool exposition (sate) iv. NIST Special Publication 500 (2013), 297.

[12] Xin Rong. 2014. word2vec parameter learning explained. arXiv preprint arXiv:1411.2738 (2014).

[13] Rebecca Russell, Louis Kim, Lei Hamilton, Tomo Lazovich, Jacob Harer, Onur Ozdemir, Paul Ellingwood, and Marc McConley. 2018. Automated Vulnerability Detection in Source Code Using Deep Representation Learning. In Proceedings of the 17th IEEE International Conference on Machine Learning and Applications (ICMLA 2018). IEEE, 757–762.



[14] Justin Smith, Brittany Johnson, Emerson Murphy-Hill, Bill Chu, and Heather Richter Lipford. 2015. Questions developers ask while diagnosing potential security vulnerabilities with static analysis. In Proceedings of the 2015 10th Joint Meeting on Foundations of Software Engineering. ACM, 248–259.

[15] Jost Tobias Springenberg, Alexey Dosovitskiy, Thomas Brox, and Martin Riedmiller. 2014. Striving for simplicity: The all convolutional net. arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6806 (2014).

[16] Guillermo Suarez-Tangil, Santanu Kumar Dash, Mansour Ahmadi, Johannes Kinder, Giorgio Giacinto, and Lorenzo Cavallaro. 2017. Droidsieve: Fast and accurate classification of obfuscated android malware. In Proceedings of the Seventh ACM on Conference on Data and Application Security and Privacy. ACM, 309–320.

[17] A Torralba and AA Efros. 2011. Unbiased look at dataset bias. In Proceedings of the 2011 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. IEEE Computer Society, 1521–1528.

[18] Fabian Yamaguchi, Alwin Maier, Hugo Gascon, and Konrad Rieck. 2015. Automatic inference of search patterns for taint-style vulnerabilities. In 2015 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy. IEEE, 797–812.