

A New View on Classification of Software Vulnerability Mitigation Methods

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Abstract

Software vulnerability mitigation is a well-known research area, and many methods have been proposed for it. Some papers try to classify these methods from different specific points of views. In this paper, we aggregate all proposed classifications and present a comprehensive classification of vulnerability mitigation methods. We define software vulnerability as a kind of software fault, and correspond the classes of software vulnerability mitigation methods accordingly. In this paper, the software vulnerability mitigation methods are classified into vulnerability prevention, vulnerability tolerance, vulnerability removal and vulnerability forecasting. We define each vulnerability mitigation method in our new point of view and indicate some methods for each class. Our general point of view helps to consider all of the proposed methods in this review. We also identify the fault mitigation methods that might be effective in mitigating the software vulnerabilities but are not yet applied in this area. Based on that, new directions are suggested for the future research.

Index terms—

1 Introduction

Software is an important part of a computer system. Being complex or created by incompetent developers, faults might be introduced to the software. There are faults that cause violating the system security. These faults are called vulnerability. There has been much research on preventing, detecting and analyzing software vulnerabilities.

By the time of writing this paper there is a number of surveys on the methods of mitigating vulnerabilities, i.e. [1], [2], [3] and [4]. Among them, [4] surveys the static analysis vulnerability detection methods that are applied in three areas that are associated with sources of vulnerabilities, i.e., accesscontrol, information-flow and application-programmingconformance. It reviews around 88 papers. The studied methods, however, do not cover all the software vulnerability classes. Static analysis methods are also surveyed in [3]. It reviews 23 papers and classifies their methods with a different point of view. In [1] static and dynamic analysis methods are classified and 18 papers are briefly reviewed. The classification for static analysis methods presented in that paper is similar to the one in [3]. The most comprehensive survey is presented in [2] by Shahriar et al. in 2012. They review 173 papers and classify their methods in four classes, i.e., static analysis, dynamic analysis, monitoring and hybrid analysis.

In this paper, we present a new definition for software vulnerability. Based on this definition, vulnerability mitigation methods are classified and reviewed with a new point of view. We use the general classification of fault mitigation methods as a base and extend it to a detailed classification of software vulnerability mitigation methods.

Our comprehensive classification aggregates many of the classification presented in the previous surveys, i.e., [1], [3], [2] and [5]. Also, the general perspective applied in our survey helps to identify the fault mitigation methods that are not yet used in mitigating software vulnerabilities. Since we consider the software vulnerability

4 III. VULNERABILITY MITIGATION METHODS

44 as a type of fault, these methods may be helpful in mitigating software vulnerabilities. We suggest new directions
45 for the future researches based on our analysis during the review of the proposed vulnerability mitigation methods.

46 In this paper, our definition of software vulnerability is presented in section II. Based on this definition,
47 software vulnerability mitigation methods are classified in section III. In this section, each class is described in
48 details and some examples are reviewed. Section IV concludes the paper and presents some future directions.

49 2 II.

50 3 Defining Software Vulnerability

51 To review vulnerability mitigation methods, a precise definition of software vulnerability is required. Different
52 researchers have suggested definitions for this term which are nearly analogous but have differences. Matt Bishop
53 et al. define software vulnerability by modeling the software as a state machine in [6], [7], [8] and [9]. In this
54 model, a vulnerable state is the state that let unauthorized reads, changes or accessibility modifications to a
55 source. They define vulnerability as a property in the system that let it enter into a vulnerable state. In [8]
56 Bishop defines vulnerability as a weakness that makes it possible for a threat to occur, where a threat is a potential
57 violation of security policy. Amoroso defines vulnerability as an unfortunate characteristic that allows a threat
58 to potentially occur [10]. There are other definitions of software vulnerability in relation with S security policy,
59 e.g. [11] and [1]. Most of them define it as a property, characteristic or weakness that may cause compromising
60 the security policy.

61 In order to clarify the terms property and security policy compromise, we redefine "software vulnerability".
62 We use the precise definitions for the concepts in software security and reliability that are presented in [12] and
63 construct our definition of software vulnerability. The taxonomy in [12] is presented in 2004 for the concepts of
64 software security and reliability, such as fault, error, failure, vulnerability and attack. The authors define fault as
65 the cause of error, while error is a state of the system that is probable to failure. Failure -or service failure is an
66 event in which the delivered service is deviated from the correct service. In fact, a fault may become active and
67 produce an error. Also the error may propagate inside the system and produce more errors. If the propagated
68 error reaches system boundaries and affects the services, it becomes a failure.

69 A service is defined in [12] as the behavior perceived by users in system boundaries. Correct services are
70 determined by the system specification. Some parts of the system behavior are specified by the security policy,
71 which is a partial system specification. Thus when a system deviates from the security policy, a security failure
72 occurs. This means that compromising security policy causes a security failure.

73 Faults are classified in [12] based on eight criteria, such as the phase of creation or occurrence, the objective, the
74 phenomenological cause, the system boundary and the dimension. All combinations of the eight elementary fault
75 classes would result in 256 different combined classes. The authors, however, believe that not all combinations
76 are possible. For example, there is no malicious non-deliberate faults, or all the natural faults are non-malicious.

77 An attack is defined in [12] as a malicious external fault. An attack may be either an external hardware
78 malicious fault, such as heating the RAM with a hairdryer to cause memory errors, or an external software
79 malicious fault, such as a Trojan horse [12]. The term vulnerability is also defined in [12] as an internal fault that
80 enables an external fault to harm the computer system, although harming the computer system is not clearly
81 defined.

82 According to the previous definitions, we consider software vulnerabilities as:

83 We have concluded this definition, out of the definitions in [12], [8], [10], [11] and [1], since looking a
84 vulnerability as a fault, instead of a property, better clarifies the concept of vulnerability by considering its
85 relation to error, security failure and thus security policy. Like faults, a vulnerability may be dormant and never
86 be activated. It also may be activated and propagated in the system. The activated vulnerability might never
87 reach the boundaries. As an example, suppose that a buffer overflow occurs and the value of a return address in
88 the stack changes as a result. But using a monitoring procedure, the unauthorized change is detected and the
89 program halts. Thus, the security policy is not violated. Monitoring the program, as a vulnerability detection
90 method, is explained in section III-B. When an active vulnerability reaches the system boundaries, it causes a
91 security failure. For example, an attacker may activate the format string vulnerability in a program and make
92 it print some confidential data from the memory [13]. Since the active vulnerability has reached the system
93 boundaries, it has made a security failure.

94 4 III. Vulnerability Mitigation Methods

95 Since vulnerability mitigation is a well-known research area, a structured approach is required to review the
96 previous related works. In this paper, we review vulnerability mitigation methods using a new point of view.
97 We classify and review these methods based on how we define software vulnerability. In the previous section,
98 software vulnerability is defined as an internal software fault. Since we considered vulnerability as a type of
99 fault, the classifications of fault mitigation methods can be used as a base for classifying vulnerability mitigation
100 methods. Avizienis et al. present a classification for the means of mitigating the faults to achieve a secure and
101 dependable system in [12]. We use this general classification as a base and extend it into a detailed classification
102 of vulnerability mitigation methods. Our classification is illustrated in figure ???. The vulnerability mitigation
103 classes that are shown in figure ?? are described in more details in the following sections. This figure presents a

104 comprehensive view of the previous efforts in mitigating software vulnerabilities. Our classification also aggregates
105 the classifications presented in the previous surveys, such as the ones presented in [1], [3], [2]. Moreover, this
106 classification helps to identify the fault mitigation methods that can be applied to improve current software
107 vulnerability mitigation methods. This helps to suggest new directions for the future research.

108 **5 a) Vulnerability prevention**

109 Generally, fault prevention means avoiding the fault introduction and occurrence in the application during the
110 development. A fault may be introduced during any of the development phases: requirement analysis, design
111 and implementation. To prevent the occurrence of software vulnerabilities during these phases, software security
112 is emerged. Software security is the process of designing, building and testing software for security [14]. It
113 aims at designing and implementing a secure software and educating developers, architects and users to build
114 security in the software [14]. There are various secure software development methods presented by now, such as
115 Microsoft Security Development Lifecycle (SDL) [15], Security Quality Requirement Engineering (SQUARE) [16]
116 and McGraw's secure development method [14]. Also, there are secure coding best practices that are suggested
117 for different programming languages. These best practices educate the programmers to prevent introduction of
118 well-known vulnerabilities during the coding phase, such as [17] for .NET framework, [18] for C/C++ and [19]
119 for Java.

120 The programmers' lack of security knowledge is an important reason for the introduction of vulnerabilities.
121 Transferring the related information to the developers is an issue in vulnerability prevention. The SHIELDS
122 project was an example of the attempts in this area [20]. The goal in this project was to create a database
123 of security related information for programmers that can be used automatically. A unified modeling language
124 was proposed in SHIELDS for representing this information [21]. Using this language, it is possible to specify a
125 vulnerability class and its relations to the well-known attacks. It also helps to define the methods of preventing
126 a vulnerability class. Thus, it helps the developers to learn how to prevent vulnerabilities in order to achieve the
127 security goals of the application. Some tools were also developed based on this language in that project, such as
128 GOAT [20] and TestInv-Code [22].

129 **6 b) Vulnerability Tolerance**

130 In spite of vulnerability prevention efforts, vulnerabilities are created. Thus, vulnerability tolerance is required.
131 Generally, fault tolerance methods accept the existence of faults and focus on preventing the activated faults
132 from reaching the system boundaries and causing a failure. Fault tolerance is usually performed in two steps:
133 error detection and recovery [12]. Therefore, we study monitoring methods based on three aspects: the applied
134 error detection, error handling and fault handling techniques. Please note that since we look a vulnerability
135 as a fault, we consider error as an active vulnerability. Thus, the mentioned three aspects are also named as
136 active vulnerability detection, active vulnerability handling and vulnerability handling techniques respectively.
137 Fig. ??: Our classification of vulnerability mitigation methods according to the classification of fault mitigation
138 methods in [12]. The boxes with dashed borders show the methods that have not been used in mitigating software
139 vulnerabilities yet.

140 **7 C Error detection (active vulnerability detection)**

141 There are vulnerability mitigation methods that control the execution of a program and detects active
142 vulnerabilities at run-time. These methods are also called monitoring methods [2]. Various active vulnerability
143 detection techniques have been used in the proposed monitoring methods. Some examples are monitoring the
144 memory and validating its integrity [23], [24], [25], controlling the flow of user provided data (taint analysis) [26],
145 [27], [28], [29] and validating the arguments of specific functions [30], [31], [32].

146 For example, the return addresses of functions in the stack memory of the program are monitored in [23], [24]
147 and [25] to detect stack overflows at run-time. If any unauthorized changes of the return addresses is detected, it is
148 concluded that a buffer overflow vulnerability has become active in the program. Some monitoring methods track
149 the flow of user provided un-trusted data at run-time and react appropriately if the untrusted data reach sensitive
150 statements in the program, such as [26], [27], [28], [29]. This method is used to tolerate various vulnerabilities,
151 such as DOM-based XSS [29], SQL injection [26], [27], [28], buffer overflow [26], [27], [28] and format string [26],
152 [27], [28]. Some monitoring methods locate specific functions in the program and control their arguments during
153 the program execution, such as [30], [31] and [32].

154 For example, in [31] the program code is analyzed statically and the query strings, that are used as the
155 arguments of SQL functions, are parsed to extract the ASTs of legitimate queries. In this method, the code
156 is instrumented to control the values of SQL queries before executing the relevant functions. Before executing
157 a query with un-trusted data, the monitoring procedure extracts the AST of the query. It then compares the
158 extracted AST with the AST of the legitimate queries. Any inconsistency between the two ASTs might reveal a
159 malicious query. Thus, an appropriate reaction is taken by the monitoring procedure to prevent security failures.

160 Detecting the errors may be performed during the normal service delivery (concurrent detection). Also, it may
161 be performed in specific times in which the application does not deliver services (preemptive detection). The
162 latter is usually applied to eliminate the negative effects of software aging. All the studied monitoring methods

163 detect active vulnerabilities during the normal service delivery. However, preemptive error detection can be used
164 to detect the activation of vulnerabilities that makes the program overuse the system resources, like the memory
165 leakage vulnerability.

166 8 Error handling (active vulnerability handling)

167 After an error is detected, it is handled in one of three ways: rollback, roll-forward and compensation.

168 Many of the presented monitoring methods focus on detecting active vulnerabilities, but less attention is paid
169 to handling the active vulnerabilities. It seems that more effort is required on designing appropriate handling
170 methods for active vulnerabilities. Although halting the program and throwing an exception prevents a successful
171 attack, they violate the availability of the software to the legitimate users. Thus, it may result in deniable of
172 service. Therefore, more intelligent active vulnerability handling techniques should be designed for the monitoring
173 methods. Since the rollback technique is usually used for the transient faults and software vulnerability is
174 a permanent fault, this technique cannot be applied in the monitoring methods. Thus, the roll-forward and
175 compensation techniques can be used to design more intelligent active vulnerability handling methods.

176 9 Fault handling (vulnerability handling)

177 After handling the error, sometimes fault handling is performed to remove the fault and prevent the similar
178 errors in the future. Of course, sometimes the fault is handled immediately after error detection. Fault
179 handling is performed by first recognizing causes of the Using the rollback method, the system is restored to
180 a previously stored error-free state. Then, the program continues normal execution from the restored state. In
181 some applications, such as real-time applications, there is no time to rollback. Thus, roll forwarding is performed
182 to change the system state into a degraded new state that contains no errors. Then, the program executes
183 normally from the degraded state. Roll-forwarding is applicable for predictable errors. Another error handling
184 method is compensation. In this method, the redundancy in the current state is used to mask the error and
185 let the program continues the execution. Many of the monitoring methods halt the program and generate an
186 error message when they detect an active vulnerability, e.g. [32], [27], [33], [24]. In other words, many of the
187 monitoring methods do not perform error handling. Some monitoring methods call an exception handler and
188 take the program to a pre-defined state [34], [26], [28]. Most of the monitoring methods that are used for web
189 applications ignore the requests that result in errors and continue normal execution [30], [31], [35], [29]. Calling
190 exception handlers and ignoring the malicious requests can be considered as simple rollforwarding actions, since
191 the erroneous state is changed into an error-free state and the program continues normal execution. However,
192 more intelligent reactions can be performed after detecting active vulnerabilities. For example, in ??36] the stack
193 content and return addresses are stored to compensate for buffer overflow errors. When a buffer overflow error
194 is detected, the monitoring procedure uses the stored data to help the program continue execution securely.

195 error. Usually, the faulty component is isolated to prevent the future activation of the fault. A spare faultfree
196 component is then replaced by the faulty one. The system is reconfigured based on the new structure. We are not
197 aware of any monitoring method that consists of a vulnerability handling procedure. However, there are some
198 specific methods for automatically patching the software vulnerabilities, such as [37], [38], [39], [40] and [41].
199 These methods might be usable in the proposed vulnerability tolerance methods to handle the vulnerabilities.
200 The automatic patching methods analyze the malicious data that is used in an attack and modify the program to
201 filter similar data in the future. These methods can be combined with preemptive active vulnerability detection
202 techniques to generate a complete vulnerability tolerance solution.

203 Table ?? summarizes the presented vulnerability tolerance methods so that the reader can review them easier.
204 To sum up, there are various monitoring methods with enhanced error detection mechanisms presented by now.
205 These methods pay more attention to detecting the errors. This might be due to the difference between software
206 vulnerability and the other faults. Usually, software vulnerability is activated by malicious external faults.
207 Therefore, detecting an active vulnerability reveals an ongoing attack. The software should resist the attack
208 as soon as possible to prevent further damages. Thus, the quick detection of the active vulnerability is very
209 important. Halting the program is the fastest low-risk response to the attack. However, it makes the program
210 unavailable to the legitimate users as well. Thus, more intelligent error handling and vulnerability handling
211 techniques should be added to the monitoring methods. To do so, a good starting point is inspiring by the
212 current fault handling and error handling techniques and designing software vulnerability handling techniques.

213 10 c) Vulnerability removal

214 Vulnerability removal is performed to detect and remove the vulnerabilities that are created in software despite the
215 vulnerability prevention efforts. Based on figure ??, the fault removal process consists of four steps: verification,
216 diagnosis, correction and nonregression verification. During the verification step, it is verified if the system
217 adheres to the specification. If not, the reason (fault) is diagnosed and corrected. After removing the fault, the
218 verification is repeated to check if the removal was effective. The verification at this step is called non-regression
219 verification.

220 Most of the vulnerability removal methods focus on the verification step and don't suggest any diagnosis or
221 correction methods for the detected vulnerabilities. There are, however, special vulnerability diagnosis methods

222 that diagnose the vulnerabilities that are exploited by malicious users. For example, in [42] exploitation of
223 memory corruption vulnerabilities is detected and then the exploited vulnerability is automatically diagnosed.
224 The result of diagnosis consists of the instruction that are exploited by an attacker to corrupt critical program
225 data, the stack trace at the time of memory corruption and the history that the corrupted data are propagated
226 after the initial corruption. This information helps the developers to remove the diagnosed vulnerabilities. We
227 could not find any vulnerability diagnosis or correction procedure that is used after the verification step of a
228 vulnerability removal method. We need vulnerability diagnosis and correction procedures that can be used after
229 the verification step, not after detecting an attack. In other words, these procedures should not be based on the
230 attack information, but based on the information achieved during the verification step.

231 Some vulnerability detection methods perform the verification step by checking if the software adheres to
232 the security specification, while some of them verify if specific vulnerabilities exist in the software. Figure ??
233 illustrated our classification of vulnerability verification methods. We divide the verification methods into three
234 main classes: static, dynamic and hybrid methods.

235 i. Static analysis Static analysis methods do not execute the program. Instead, they examine the program
236 code and study its possible behaviors. Therefore, the result of static analysis is true regardless of the input data
237 and static methods are usually sound and conservative [43]. A sound method is able to detect any specified
238 vulnerability in the program. In other words, if a vulnerability is defined for the static analyzer and exists in a
239 program, the analyzer will surely find it. In order to be sound, the analyzer produces conservative results that
240 are weaker than the actual ones and may not be very useful [43]. In fact, static analysis is appropriate in proving
241 the absence of a specific vulnerability. Usually static analyzers create many false alarms, hence they cannot be
242 very useful in proving the existence of a specific vulnerability. Static analysis may be performed on the program
243 or on the behavior model of the program [12]. Thus, static analysis methods are divided into two main classes:
244 program-based and modelbased methods.

245 11 ii. Program-based methods

246 As figure ?? shows, these methods are classified into seven subclasses. Each class is explained as follows.

247 12 Pattern Matching

248 The most basic static analysis method is pattern matching. A pattern matcher considers the program as a
249 text file. It may not even distinguish between the code and the comments. The pattern matcher searches for
250 vulnerable functions or patterns in the text of the program code. Thus, this method can be implemented using
251 any pattern matching utility, such as grep. Such a tool needs a database of the vulnerability patterns. As an
252 example, Flawfinder [44] scans C/C++ programs to detect buffer overflow or format string in them. This tool
253 ignores the text inside the comments and strings. However, it does not recognize the type of function parameters
254 and control flow or data flow of the program. This lack of knowledge results in many false decisions. Thus, it
255 makes many false positive and false negative alarms.

256 13 Lexical analysis

257 In this method, source code of the program is tokenized in order to recognize the variables and function arguments.
258 Thus, the results of a lexical analyzer can be more accurate than the results of a pattern matcher. As an example,
259 the tool ITS4 applies lexical analysis to detect buffer overflow, format string and race condition vulnerabilities
260 in C or C++ programs [45]. ITS4 scans the source code statically and breaks it into series of lexical tokens.
261 These tokens are compared with the token streams that are defined in a vulnerability database. The vulnerability
262 database contains several handlers for well-known vulnerable functions in C/C++.

263 14 Parsing

264 In this method, source code of the program is parsed and represented in Abstract Syntax Trees (AST). The
265 ASTs are then used to analyze the program syntactically and semantically. For example, Lint uses this method
266 to detect vulnerabilities in programs written in C [46]. As another example, in [47] the ASTs of the source code
267 are extracted and compared to the ASTs of different vulnerable codes. The main idea in [47] is that different
268 vulnerabilities in software may be related to the same flawed programming pattern. Thus, the suggested method
269 uses the ASTs of known vulnerable codes and searches for similar patterns in the target program. When a similar
270 pattern is found in the program, it may reveal an unknown vulnerability.

271 15 Data flow and taint analysis

272 In this method, the flow of data among the instructions is analyzed to determine possible values that a variable
273 holds during the run time. Two wellknown program representations are used in this method: control flow and
274 data flow graphs. In a control flow graph, each node represents an instruction and a

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276 Volume XVII Issue I Version I [48] extracts the control flow and data flow graphs from the source code. It then
277 compares extracted graphs with some patterns of known vulnerabilities. In this method, known vulnerabilities
278 are specified as simple patterns of vulnerable functions or more complex flow-based rules.

279 A subclass of data flow analysis is called taint analysis. A taint analyzer only tracks the flow of data that come
280 from un-trusted resources. The un-trusted resources include the network protocols, keyboard, touchpad, webcam,
281 files, etc. Since most of the vulnerabilities are exploited by un-trusted input data, this method pays attention
282 to the flow of un-trusted input data in the program. If such data reach sensitive statements in the program, a
283 vulnerability may be reported by the taint analyzer. The sensitive statements, called sinks, are defined according
284 to the specified vulnerabilities. For example, the functions that execute SQL queries are usually defined as the
285 sinks for SQL injection vulnerability. The propagation of tainted data among the instructions is determined based
286 on some predefined rules. For example, if the data in a tainted variable is assigned to an un-tainted variable, the
287 untainted variable will get tainted too.

288 Taint analysis is used in many of the proposed vulnerability detection solutions, e.g. [49], [50], [51], [52] and [53],
289 to detect various vulnerability classes. Since this method focuses on the flow of tainted data, it does not consider
290 the execution paths in the program that are not affected by malicious data. This feature reduces the time of
291 analysis and number of produced false positives. However, there are vulnerability classes that cannot be specified
292 in such a source-sink structure, e.g. logic vulnerabilities. Although an attacker exploits logic vulnerabilities with
293 malicious data, the sinks cannot be easily specified for this class of vulnerability. For example, the sinks for
294 SQL injection vulnerability are the query execution statements. But a sink for logic vulnerabilities may be any
295 statement that manipulates the input data.

296 **17 Annotation-based methods**

297 Annotation is a comment that the programmer makes in the code about the desired behavior of a function or
298 an instruction. It may be defined as a set of pre-and post-conditions or as simple pre-execution conditions.
299 An annotation-based analysis algorithm reads the annotations, analyzes the code statically and verifies if the
300 conditions are met in the program. There are plenty of annotation languages presented so far, such as SPLINT
301 [54], MECA [55], Sparse [56], SAL [57] and aComment [58].

302 Since there is a huge number of statements and functions in the programs, manual annotation is usually very
303 time consuming and fault prone [58]. There are annotation languages that provide some facilities to annotate
304 the program more easily, such as MECA [55] and aComment [58]. Among them, aComment is designed to help
305 in detecting concurrency faults in the operating systems and allows the programmers to define the pre-and post-
306 conditions that are related to the interrupts in each function. It also infers the annotation of some functions
307 automatically to reduce the programmers' workload. In this way, the programmers are not supposed to annotate
308 all the functions manually.

309 Although some of these languages help in reducing the required time and effort for annotating the programs,
310 they usually have a different syntax and directed edge between two nodes represents their semantics than the
311 applied programming languages. Therefore, the programmers and verifiers have to make extra efforts to learn
312 another language in order to use this method. Also, the programmers should be familiar with the security
313 requirements of the programs and the vulnerability classes to annotate the program appropriately. Therefore,
314 the success of this method depends on the programmers' knowledge of software security. Moreover, this method is
315 not helpful in analyzing the COTS 1 software and third party components since their source code is not available.

316 **18 Constraint analysis**

317 In this method, the program is analyzed statically and some constraints are calculated for specific objects in it.
318 The constraints are defined according to specific vulnerabilities and are solved to verify if the program suffers
319 from those vulnerabilities. Constraint analysis was first proposed by Wagner et al. in [50]. The resulted tool,
320 called BOON, considers the strings in a C program as an abstract data type. There are also predefined functions
321 that manipulate this data type, such as strcpy(), strcat(), etc. BOON summarizes the state of each string by two
322 integer values: the allocated size for the string and its current length. For each string in the buffer, it analyzes
323 the string manipulating statements in the program to verify if the length of the string exceeds its allocated size.
324 If such condition is inferred, the program might contains buffer overflow vulnerabilities.

325 It is important to note that the constraints are determined by the analyzer in this method, not by the
326 programmer. This makes the constraint analysis method different from the annotation-based analysis method.

327 Moreover, constraint analysis does not increase the programmer's workload since generation of the constraints
328 is performed automatically and does not involve the programmer. Of course, it cannot profit the programmers'
329 knowledge of the code to do a more efficient analysis.

330 **19 Theorem proving**

331 In this method, the software and its specification are expressed as some formulas of logics or algebraic systems.
332 Also, the security requirements of software are expressed as some theorems. Proving these theorems demonstrates
333 the satisfaction of the security requirements. Otherwise, there is a fault (vulnerability) in the program. As an

334 example, in [59] the source code of target program is statically analyzed and some firstorder formulas are generated
335 that assert the absence of certain faults and vulnerabilities, such as out-of-bounds array access. If the generated
336 asserts are proved, the program does not contain such faults and vulnerabilities.

337 Although the results of analysis are accurate in the theorem proving methods, they demand expertise and
338 enough experience. In fact, theorem proving is difficult to be achieved automatically and requires highquality
339 staff to apply this method, which is very timeconsuming. So it is generally used to verify correct design rather
340 than the actual code [60]. Simple, fast.A

341 Does not have any idea about the types of function parameters and control or data flow of the program and
342 so generates many false alarms. [44].

343 **20 Lexical Analysis**

344 Tokenizes the code to recognize variables and function arguments.

345 Variables and function arguments are recognized. More accurate than the pattern matching method.

346 Lack of knowledge about the syntax and semantics of the code causes false alarms. Requires the high level
347 source code. [45].

348 **21 Parsing**

349 Parses the code and represents it in Abstract Syntax Trees (AST) to be analyzed syntactically and semantically.

350 Understands the code syntactically and semantically, less false alarms in comparison with the above two
351 methods.

352 Requires the high level source code.

353 [47],

354 [46], [30], [31], [66].

355 **22 Annotation-based methods**

356 Comments that the programmer makes about the desired behavior of the code. The code is then analyzed
357 statically to verify if the conditions are met.

358 Profits the programmers' knowledge to do a focused analysis.

359 The programmer must learn an additional language to do the annotation.

360 [54],

361 [55], [56],

362 [57], [58].

363 **23 Theorem proving**

364 The security requirements of software are expressed as some theorems. Proving these theorems, demonstrates
365 the satisfaction of the security requirements or existence of vulnerabilities.

366 **24 Accuracy.**

367 Difficult to be achieved automatically and requires high-quality staff to apply this method [59].

368 **25 Data flow analysis (Taint analysis)**

369 Tracks the flow of the data that comes from un-trusted resources and warns if the data reaches sensitive program
370 points.

371 Reduces the analysis time and number of false positives by not considering the execution paths in the program
372 that are not affected by un-trusted data.

373 Cannot detect vulnerabilities that are not defined specifically in a source-sink structure.

374 [51], [52], [53],

375 [67], [50],

376 [68], [69], [70].

377 **26 Constraint analysis**

378 Analyzes the program, associates constraints with some objects in the code and solves them to verify if the
379 program is vulnerable.

380 Constraints are generated automatically and do not increase the programmer's workload.

381 Does not profit the programmer's knowledge of the code (in comparison with the annotation method).

382 [50],

383 [51], [52], [53].

384 **27 Model checking**

385 Models the program and then checks the model to verify if it satisfies specified requirements.

386 Only the modeling and requirement specification is performed manually by the human analyzer, rest of the
387 analysis is done automatically.

388 Modeling the program and specifying its security requirements-if done manually is time consuming and fault
389 prone. State-explosion problem when the number of program states is large.

390 [61],

391 [62], [63],

392 [71], [64]. In this method, the program is modeled and then analyzed to verify if it complies with its
393 specifications, e.g. [61], [62], [63] and [64]. If a specific requirement is not satisfied in the software, this method
394 provides some counter examples. Model checking helps the human analyzers by automating a noticeable part of
395 the analysis. Although modeling and specifying the requirements may be done manually, analyzing all possible
396 states of the program and verifying the requirements are done automatically. This is a great help in analyzing
397 large programs. A well-known example of using this method for detecting vulnerabilities is MOPS [63]. Using
398 MOPS, the program is modeled as a push-down automaton 2 . Also, the requirements are defined through safety
399 properties. A safety property is represented as a finite state automaton. It defines the ordering constraints on
400 security related operations. After modeling the program and defining its constraints, MOPS searches exhaustively
401 through possible program states to check if a reachable state violates the safety properties.

402 Abstracting the program in a model is a challenging task in this method. The model should be expressive
403 enough to have a precise analysis. Thus, some model checking methods 2A push down automaton is a type of
404 computational model. It is similar to NFAs except that it uses an additional component called a stack. In this
405 model, state transitions are chosen based on three components; input signal, current state and what is at the
406 top of the stack. Thus, the stack plays the role of an additional memory for it. also help the analyzer to model
407 the target program. For example, MOPS uses the control flow of the program to build its automata. Also, in
408 [64] the GCC compiler is used to automatically model and verify the programs that are written in any language
409 supported by this compiler, i.e. C, C++, Java, etc. This is done by employing an intermediate language of GCC,
410 called GIMPL, that is common to all the supported languages. The model is extracted from the intermediate
411 representation of the program and is checked against the defined specification by the use of Moped. Moped is a
412 model checking tool for push down systems 3 [65].

413 There are, however, some shortcomings in the model checking method. Although the modeling phase is
414 performed automatically in some model checking methods, the analyzer should manually specify the security
415 requirements in this method. This is again time consuming and may cause errors in the results. Also, the
416 method suffers from state-explosion problem for large programs.

417 Table ??I summarizes the reviewed static analysis methods. Note that all these methods inherit the general
418 advantages and shortcomings of static analysis. iv.

419 28 Dynamic Analysis

420 By executing the program with actual data, dynamic analysis studies the exact run-time behavior of the program.
421 Dynamic analysis can be as fast as the execution of the program, whereas static analysis generally requires more
422 computation time to obtain accurate results [43]. The main challenge in dynamic analysis methods is executing
423 all the possible execution paths in the program and activating all vulnerabilities in those paths. In fact, acquiring
424 an appropriate test data set, that make the program behave more diversely, is an issue in these methods. The
425 most important shortcoming of dynamic analysis methods is that they components; input signal, current state
426 and what is at the top of the stack. Thus, the stack plays the role of an additional memory for it. are unable to
427 guarantee the analysis of all feasible execution paths. Therefore, the dynamic analysis is not sound and is mostly
428 used to prove the existence of specific vulnerabilities in the programs. The dynamic methods are classified into
429 two main classes in [12]: methods that use symbolic input values and methods that use actual (concrete) input
430 values to test the program. Based on the recent advances in dynamic analysis methods, we classify these methods
431 in three classes based on the type of applied input values: concrete execution, symbolic execution and concolic
432 (concrete + symbolic) execution methods. The following subsections describe each class in more details.

433 29 a) Concrete execution

434 In this method, the program is executed with actual data and its behavior is analyzed to detect vulnerabilities.
435 There are four dynamic analysis methods that use actual data to execute the program during the analysis: fault
436 injection, mutation-based analysis, dynamic taint analysis and dynamic model checking.

437 i. Fault injection In this method, the external faults are injected to the program to examine its behavior.
438 According to our definition in section II, the external faults abuse the internal faults and cause unauthorized
439 behaviors in the program. In other words, internal faults are activated by the external fault and are propagated
440 to reach the program boundaries. Therefore, inability to handle external faults may reveal a vulnerability in the
441 program.

442 The external faults may be injected by corrupting input data to verify if the program is able to handle them.
443 Most of the blackbox vulnerability scanners corrupt input data and analyze the reaction of the program, such as
444 [72] and [73]. The black-box scanners have access to the inputs and outputs of the program. They might also have
445 very little knowledge about the program internal structure [74]. They usually create the corrupted data based on

446 known attack patterns to study if the program can resist these attacks or suffers from the relevant vulnerabilities.
447 Another group of dynamic vulnerability detectors that inject corrupted input data to the programs are fuzzers.
448 Takanen et al. introduced fuzzing for detecting vulnerabilities for the first time. They suggested injecting
449 unexpected random input data to the program and studying its behavior [74]. The difference between fuzzers
450 and black-box vulnerability scanners is that fuzzers don't corrupt input data exactly based on a list of attack
451 patterns. In fact, they generate numerous random faulty data hoping that some data make the program crash.
452 The main advantages of this method were simplicity and independence from the analyzed program. Thus, the
453 method could be used easily to detect vulnerabilities in different programs. However, fuzzers were not intelligent
454 enough to corrupt input data effectively and cover most of the execution paths. In order to have better program
455 coverage, new fuzzers focus on producing well-formed corrupted data [75], satisfying data validation checks in
456 the program like checksums [76], being aware of the state of the program during the fuzzing [77] and producing
457 consistent input data with the path conditions to make the program execute all the branches [78], [79], [80], [81].
458 All these enhancements made fuzzers play an effective role in detecting vulnerabilities during the recent years
459 [82]. Injecting faults into the program can be done randomly or intelligently. By the word random, we mean
460 that faulty data are generated semi-randomly based on predefined patterns. For example, in order to detect
461 buffer overflow, random input data with different lengths are generated. Here the predefined pattern determines
462 the length of input data and the other properties are set randomly. Takanen et al. consider random fuzzers as
463 the ones that make small random changes into the valid data. For example, a FTP fuzzer may randomly add
464 valid/invalid commands to the test data or chose the arguments of the commands randomly [74]. Random fuzzers
465 sometimes use evolutionary algorithms to guide random choices and extend the program coverage, e.g. [83], [84].
466 Random corruption of data is simple and independent from the logic and structure of the programs. Moreover,
467 randomness helps to reveal a wide range of behaviors of the programs while the designed testcases by the human
468 analyzer may not. This is because the designed test-cases are prepared by a human analyzer who may not think
469 of all possible behaviors of the program.

470 Corrupting the data intelligently is performed based on a previous analysis of the program. Although it
471 requires more analysis efforts, it helps in extending the program coverage. For example, imagine a program that
472 compares one of the input values with an integer value and exits if they are not equal. Using the random method,
473 the possibility of passing this constraint is one out of 232. By analyzing the code before injecting faulty data,
474 the analyzer is able to extract the constraint and generate the data in a way that complies with the constraint.
475 This helps the intelligent corruption method have more reliable program coverage [74].

476 30 ii. Mutation-based analysis

477 As mentioned before, acquiring appropriate test data is an issue in dynamic analysis. When the program behaves
478 normally during the test process, it means that either there is no vulnerability in the program or the test data
479 don't reveal the vulnerabilities in the program. In the latter case, the data set is not diverse enough to activate
480 the vulnerabilities. Mutation is a method that is concerned with enhancing the data set during the dynamic
481 analysis. In this method, specific vulnerabilities are injected into the program code intentionally. If the current
482 data set does not detect the injected vulnerability, it will not detect similar vulnerabilities in the original version
483 of the program. Thus, the analyzer augments the data set so that it can detect the vulnerability. A version of a
484 program in which a specific vulnerability is created, is called a mutant. For example, in a mutant the function
485 `strncpy()` is replaced with `strcpy()` to make it buffer overflow vulnerable. A good test data set distinguishes the
486 mutants from the original version of the program and kills them. If no test-case kills the mutants, the data set
487 must be augmented [85].

488 This method is effective in detecting software vulnerabilities [85], though it requires considerable amount of
489 time and effort. If the changed statements in a mutant are executed by the test data, the mutant would be
490 effective. Otherwise, the result of analysis does not reveal the difference between the mutant and the original
491 version of the program. Therefore, some computations are required to generate appropriate testcases that make
492 the program execute the intended path which contains the vulnerability.

493 Also, automatic creation of mutants for complex vulnerabilities is a challenge. As an example, the `strncpy()`
494 functions are automatically changed to `strcpy()` for creating mutants to detect buffer overflow in [85]. There
495 are, however, more complicated buffer overflow scenarios like copying an array in a loop that causes overflow.
496 Moreover, creating mutants for logic vulnerabilities requires a deep understanding of the logic of the program.
497 Thus, automatic generation of mutants may not be feasible.

498 iii. Dynamic model checking This method, which is also called executionbased model checking [86], [87], is a
499 model checking method that executes the program exhaustively and checks if it satisfies the specifications. For
500 example, the tools VeriSoft [88], JavaPathFinder [89], CMC [90], Bogor [91] and DART [92] apply this method in
501 their analysis. Random execution in dynamic model checking is mostly the result of two factors: program inputs
502 and scheduling choices of a scheduler [87]. For each random input and schedule choice, the resulted behavior
503 of the program is analyzed by monitoring the process and its environment, e.g. registers and the stack. Here,
504 each state consists of the entire machine state. When the execution reaches a state, in which the specification is
505 compromised, the related input value and schedule choice are presented as a counterexample.

506 An advantage of dynamic model checking is that by executing the program, the machine handles the semantics
507 of the instructions. In other words, there is no need to formally represent the semantics of the programming

language and the machine instructions [87]. However, there is a time-state-soundness tradeoff in this method. Since the states represent the entire machine state, they contain many details and require more storage space. Thus, storing all the states might be infeasible for large programs. At the same time, exploring the states without a history of visited ones may cause visiting similar states again and again. When no state is recorded, the model checker spends too much time to make sure it has traversed all possible states. Storing the states reduces the verification time by making sure that no state is revisited. Yet, it requires too much space [87].

iv. Dynamic taint analysis This method is similar to static taint analysis as it tracks the flow of information from un-trusted sources to the sinks. However, it tracks the flow of tainted data during the execution of the program, some examples are [93], [94], [95] and [96]. Schwartz et al. describe this method precisely in [93]. They introduce a language, named SIMPIL, that formally defines the algorithms of dynamic taint analysis. Before the execution, all the variables are considered untainted. While executing the program, variables may get tainted according to a predefined policy. This policy defines how the taint data propagate from a variable to other variables. For example, when tainted data are used in an argument of an arithmetic operation, the policy defines that the result of this operation should be considered tainted. If a tainted value reaches a sink, the analyzer reports a vulnerability.

The basic taint analysis methods limit taint propagation to the direct assignments. This might make the results of the analysis inaccurate [97]. Sarwar et al. present some scenarios in [97] to show how basic taint analysis can be ineffective. An example scenario is that the tainted data are used in a conditional statement (without any direct assignment to other variables) and affect on the control flow of the program. Also, tainted data might be used to define the number of an iterative action or as the index of an un-tainted array. The taint analysis method should pay attention to these indirect effects of the tainted data in calculating the taint propagation. Considering such effects is not always easy. For example, the tainted variable might cause information leakage through a side channel. To detect such vulnerability, the analyzer should taint a large amount of variables that results in many false alarms [97].

Table ??II summarizes and compares the advantages and disadvantages of the concrete execution methods. Each method inherits the advantages and shortcomings of dynamic analysis.

31 b) Symbolic execution

Using the symbolic execution method, the program is executed with symbolic input values instead of concrete data values [98], [99]. Thus, the values of program variables are represented as symbolic expressions over the symbolic input. During the symbolic execution, the state of the program and the conditions of the current path are calculated symbolically. The path conditions are updated any time a branch instruction is executed. At the end of an executed path, the path conditions are solved using a constraint solver. There are various constraint solvers presented by now, such as STP [100] and Z3 [101] that solve the constraints on binary vectors and Hampi [102] and S3 [103] that solve the constraints on string variables. If the constraint solver solves the path conditions, it generates some concrete input data that are used to execute the intended path in the program.

There are several challenges with the symbolic execution method. For example path explosion, the overhead of constraint solving for complicated paths, non-determinism of concurrent programs and the tradeoff between precision and scalability of modeling the memory are some of the challenges in applying symbolic execution [104]. Cadar and Sen present the challenges of this method and mention some solutions for them [104].

To overcome these challenges, a solution is combining symbolic execution with concrete execution. The result is a new method that is called concolic execution. This method is described in the next section.

32 c) Concolic execution

A problem with pure symbolic execution is that the constraints of complex loops and recursive functions may get very complicated and cannot be resolved in an acceptable time [105]. Concrete execution applies real data to execute the program. There is a little chance to traverse all the feasible paths in this method. Using the combined method, concolic + symbolic execution, the concrete data is used to simplify the complex constraints that are generated by the symbolic execution. This method was first presented by Godefroid et al. in [92]. Concolic execution is performed by changing some symbols in the complex constraints into the concrete values. This helps to achieve better program coverage with much less computation overhead.

A New View on Classification of Software Vulnerability Mitigation Methods Concolic execution is used in many of the recent fuzzers to extend their knowledge about the program, such as KLEE [78], EXE [80], Simfuzz [75], CUTE [106], SAGE [79], Taintscope [105] and [107]. For example, CUTE combines symbolic execution with concrete execution to create input data traverse deeper paths in the program. It first executes the program with concrete input data. During the execution, it calculates symbolically the constraints of the executed path. The calculated constraints are then negated one by one, from the last to the first. After each negation, the resulted constraints are queried from a constraint solver. If the constraint solver solves the new constraints, the result is used to generate new test data that traverse other execution paths in the program.

565 **33 Global**

566 **34 Table 3: Concrete execution methods: a comparison**

567 Concolic execution is also used in other dynamic vulnerability detection methods. For example in [108] a
568 dynamic model checking method is applied that uses concolic execution for state-space exploration of the analyzed
569 application. In [108], concolic execution helps to model the application as a finitestate automata and to guide
570 further state-space exploration.

571 **35 d) Hybrid analysis**

572 The previous sections described static and dynamic analysis methods and their advantages and shortcomings.
573 The idea of combining static and dynamic analysis was first proposed by Ernst in [43]. He suggested that hybrid
574 analysis can combine the static and dynamic analysis methods to generate a new analysis method that profits a
575 great amount of soundness and accuracy advantages of each method with little sacrifices.

576 Monitoring and static analysis methods are also combined in [110] to detect SQL injection errors and [83],
577 [84], [75], [76], [79], [80].

578 **36 Mutation-based Analysis**

579 Injects vulnerability into the program code. If the current data set does not reflect the injected vulnerability, it
580 would not detect similar vulnerabilities in the original version of the program.

581 Reduces false negatives by enriching test data.

582 Expensive in time and computation. Automatic mutation of complicated vulnerabilities is a challenge. [85].

583 **37 Dynamic taint analysis and sanitization**

584 Tracks the flow of information from input sources to the sinks during the run-time.

585 Reduces the analysis time and number of false positives by not considering the paths in the program that are
586 not affected by malicious data.

587 Cannot detect vulnerabilities that are not defined in specific source-sink structure.

588 [93], [96].

589 **38 Dynamic Model checking**

590 A model checking method in which the program is executed with concrete input values exhaustively.

591 No need to formally represent the semantics of the programming languages and machine instructions. Time-
592 state-soundness tradeoff.

593 [88], [89], [90], [91], [92].

594 From then, many researchers have combined these methods, in different manners, to make up for each other's
595 shortcomings. For example, Monga et al. combine static and dynamic analysis to detect XSS and SQL injection
596 vulnerabilities in PHP applications in [109]. The suggested method first analyzes the code statically and extracts
597 the control flow graph of the functions in it. These graphs are then connected together to obtain an inter-
598 procedural control flow graph (iCFG). The iCFG is analyzed to extract the possible paths from the tainted
599 sources to the sinks in it. For each sink, backward slicing is used to detect the statements that affect the tainted
600 argument. These statements are monitored at run time. When a tainted value is used in a sink, the monitoring
601 procedure passes it to an oracle to verify if it can exploit a vulnerability. The oracle have a database of well-known
602 attack patterns that are used to exploit different vulnerabilities. For example, the implemented oracle for mysql
603 query() performs a limited syntactically analysis on the SQL queries and searches for the tainted characters in
604 unsafe positions. In this method, the sanitizing procedures are assumed to be perfect. prevent the successful
605 attacks. In the static analysis phase the hotspots, that are statements in the program that execute a SQL query,
606 are identified. Also the control flow of the program is extracted. Then, the query strings in the hotspots are
607 parsed. Considering the control flow of the program, a FSA for each hotspot is created to model the legitimate
608 queries. During the monitoring phase, the queries are checked against the relative FSA to prevent execution of
609 malicious queries.

610 As the last example, hybrid analysis is used in [111] to detect logic vulnerabilities in web applications. The
611 logic vulnerabilities are usually related to the intended functionality of an application. Thus, there is no general
612 specification for them that can be used in different applications. For example, consider an online store that allows
613 the users to use coupons for having discount on specific items. It has a policy which determines that each coupon
614 should be used only once. A logic vulnerability, however, allows the users to reuse a coupon and reduce the cost
615 to zero. Since logic vulnerabilities are created based on the functionality of the application, the vulnerability
616 detection method requires the specification of the program. The proposed method in [111] consists of two steps.
617 First, the web application is executed with normal input data. The executed traces are then analyzed to infer
618 the specification of the application. This is based on the intuition that normal behavior of the program reflects
619 the properties that are intended by the programmer. In fact, because the specification of the program is not
620 always available, this method uses dynamic analysis to obtain it. The inferred specification is presented in the

621 form of likely invariants. In the second step, model checking is used to analyze the web application based on the
622 inferred specification.

623 39 e) Vulnerability forecasting

624 Generally, fault forecasting is used to predict the quality or quantity of the faults that are left in the system and
625 will be activated in the future. It is mainly concerned with estimating the current reliability of the system and
626 predicting its future reliability. This prediction may be qualitative or quantitative (usually probabilistic). The
627 qualitative forecasting identifies and ranks the future failure modes. Also, the event combinations that lead to
628 the failures are identified.

629 The quantitative forecasting is performed by modeling or operational testing. These methods are comple-
630 mentary, since the results of operational tests are usually used to model the system more accurately. Software
631 Reliability Growth Models (SRGM) are used generally for fault forecasting. In fact, SRGMs model the testing
632 process [112]. In most of these models, the rate of fault detection gradually reduces and the cumulative number of
633 faults eventually approaches a fixed value. These models help to predict the number of left faults in the software
634 and determine when the software is ready to be released. They are also used to estimate the required efforts for
635 future maintenance.

636 There are probabilistic models for predicting the rate of vulnerability detection, named Vulnerability Detection
637 Models (VDM). Alhazmi and Malaiya proposed a specific model, named AM 4 for vulnerability detection in [113].
638 In this model the rate of vulnerability detection depends on two factors: one of these factors reduces as the number
639 of remaining undetected vulnerabilities declines. The second factor increases with the time. In this way, the rate
640 of vulnerability detection is modeled in a S-shaped form. In fact, AML is created based on the observation that
641 the detectors 5 pay little attention to the newly published software. Gradually people become familiar with the
642 software and the detectors pay more attention to it. Thus, the rate of vulnerability detection increases by time
643 and peaks at some period. By the introduction of newer versions of the program, the detectors' interest becomes
644 lower and the rate of vulnerability detection decreases. Alhazmi and Malaiya examined the applicability of this
645 model to various operating systems in [113] and [114]. The results demonstrated that AML fits the data of several
646 operating systems.

647 All the mentioned models are time-based. It means that they determine the detection rate based on the
648 calendar time. An effort-based model, named AME 2, is proposed by Alhazmi and Malaiya in [113]. They
649 believe that time-based models do not consider the changes that occur in the environment during the lifetime of
650 the system. Thus, they consider the number of installations as an important environmental factor that affects
651 the rate of vulnerability detection. It is based on the observation that the detectors are more interested in the
652 software that is installed in many computers. Therefore, the rate of vulnerability detection is modeled in AME
653 based on the number of installations. Sungwhan Woo et al. explore the applicability of AML and AME to
654 some HTTP servers, i.e., IIS and Apache. The results indicate that these models are applicable to the HTTP
655 servers in addition to the operating systems [112]. Of course, this method does not consider many of the effective
656 factors on the detection trend. For example, it only calculates the cyclomatic complexity to estimate the code
657 complexity. There are other complexity metrics that can be considered in addition to A problem with the studied
658 VDMs is that they are parametric models that should be fitted to real vulnerability data [115]. To model the
659 vulnerability detection rate in a specific application, a large amount of historical vulnerability data is required.
660 Therefore, it is necessary that many of the vulnerabilities be discovered already. Hence, these models cannot be
661 applied to predict the detection rate for newly released software. Also, it is shown in [116] that the precision of
662 VDMs depend on the number of known vulnerabilities. The precision of the VDMs are usually very low at the
663 early stages in the lifecycle of the program. It seems that the problem is because the models don't consider the
664 features of each application in their predictions. Thus, they need a history of detected vulnerabilities to estimate
665 the security level of the program. There are many features in each application and its environment that affect
666 the rate of vulnerability detection. Rahimi and Zargham present a VDM in [115] based on two effective factors:
667 code complexity and code quality. The code complexity is defined based on the cyclomatic complexity. Also,
668 the code quality determines its compliance with secure coding practices. They believe that more vulnerabilities
669 are detected in the applications with lower code quality. Also, the possibility of detecting vulnerabilities is less
670 in the applications with complicated codes. Thus, the source code of the application is statically analyzed to
671 compute the two factors. The computed data are then used to model the vulnerability detection rate. Since this
672 model does not need a database of detected vulnerabilities, it can be used for newly released applications. The
673 authors analyze four applications to study the impact of these factors on the vulnerability detection trend. The
674 analysis results show that the proposed method can predict vulnerabilities even in early stages of the application's
675 lifecycle.

676 this one. The environmental parameters can also be considered for a good prediction. As an example, even
677 the seasonal changes affect the rate of vulnerability discovery. It is shown in [117] that more vulnerabilities are
678 reported during the mid-end and year-end months. Also, the presented method in [115] is based on analyzing
679 the source code of the application. So it cannot be helpful when the source code is not available. There are some
680 qualitative methods for estimating the current security level of the application. For example OWASP ASVS
681 consists of several check lists that helps to determine the security level of a web application [118]. It classifies
682 the check lists in thirteen classes, such as authentication, access control, session management, etc. In each class

683 the check lists are grouped into three security levels. If an application passes all the check lists of a group, it
684 is achieves the respective security level. These methods only estimate the current security level. Based on the
685 current level, it is possible to predict the future failure modes. However, we could not find any qualitative method
686 that predicts and ranks the future security failures based on the current state.

687 V.

688 40 Conclusions

689 During the past decades various methods have been presented for mitigating software vulnerabilities. A
690 comprehensive classification of the proposed methods helps to achieve a general understanding of this research
691 area. In this paper, we defined software vulnerability as an internal fault. By considering software vulnerability
692 as a type of fault, we classified the vulnerability mitigation methods based on the general classification of the fault
693 mitigation methods. We extended the general classification of fault mitigation methods, represented it in the
694 context of software vulnerability and added more detailed subclasses into it. We divided vulnerability mitigation
695 methods into four main classes: vulnerability prevention, vulnerability tolerance, vulnerability removal and
696 vulnerability forecasting. The vulnerability prevention methods attempt to prevent the occurrence of software
697 vulnerability. Software security and the secure coding best practices are examples of these efforts. The question
698 is why, despite the vulnerability prevention efforts, vulnerabilities are still created. Oliveira et al. believe that
699 educating the developers is not enough for preventing the vulnerabilities [119], because security is not an issue for
700 the developers. They believe that the human's memory is limited and can only keep a limited number of mental
701 elements available at a time. The programmers are also supposed to create applications with correct functionality
702 and acceptable performance. Under the time pressure, an ordinary situation in software programming, the
703 programmers usually chose the simplest solutions for developing the software and pay little attention to the
704 security concerns. Oliveira et al. suggest developing assistant tools that remind the educated programmers the
705 security concerns during the development.

706 Besides educating the programmers, intelligent assistant tools are required to notify the security concerns
707 at specific statements or functions. Thus, in the future we should work on designing and implementing
708 intelligent assistant tools that help the programmers to avoid generating vulnerabilities during the design and
709 implementation of the applications. These tools should be intelligent enough not to bother the developers with
710 many false alarms. They may use the enhanced static analysis methods to analyze the code during the coding
711 phase and warn the programmers at sensitive situations. This will help the programmers to use their security
712 knowledge more effectively in preventing the vulnerabilities.

713 Vulnerability tolerance methods accept the existence of vulnerabilities in the programs and prevent the active
714 vulnerabilities from making security failures. In this paper, the vulnerability tolerance methods were studied
715 based on three aspects: the applied active vulnerability detection technique, active vulnerability A New View
716 on Classification of Software Vulnerability Mitigation Methods handling technique and vulnerability handling
717 technique. All the reviewed vulnerability mitigation methods detect active vulnerabilities during the normal
718 execution of the program (concurrently). However, there are active vulnerabilities that overuse system resources
719 and make the resources unavailable to legitimate users after a period of time, such as the memory leakage
720 vulnerability. The security failure as a result of these vulnerabilities can be prevented by checking the system
721 resources periodically. Thus, preemptive error detection can be applied to detect if such vulnerabilities are active.

722 Most of the vulnerability tolerance methods focus on detecting the active vulnerabilities. However, less
723 attention is paid to handling the (active) vulnerability. In the proposed methods, active vulnerabilities are
724 handled by halting the program, restarting the program or invoking an exception handler. Although these
725 mechanisms limit the negative effects of the active vulnerability, they violate the availability of the application
726 to the legitimate users. Thus, more intelligent vulnerability handling techniques are required for the current
727 vulnerability tolerance methods. A good starting point is inspiring by the current fault tolerance methods. As an
728 example, software diversity is a fault tolerance method that is used to make the programs reliable. In this method,
729 various versions of software with the same specification but different design or implementationprocess the same
730 request and the correct result is achieved by voting the results of the different versions. The result of such system
731 is more reliable, since it is less possible that all the versions of software suffer from the same fault and so a request
732 does not cause errors in all versions. This method can be used in software security to tolerate malicious requests.
733 For example, recently software diversity has been used in [120] to tolerate active vulnerabilities in web browsers.
734 In the proposed method, different browsers are used to process the user's requests. Since the browsers are designed
735 and implemented differently, it is less probable that all the applied browsers contain similar vulnerabilities. Thus,
736 malicious data cannot compromise all the browsers. The correct response to the client's request is achieved by
737 voting the responses of the browsers. Also, some protection mechanisms, such as ASLR that protects system
738 against memory corruption vulnerabilities [121], are inspired by the idea of using diversity to make the program
739 unpredictable for the attackers. A new direction for the future research could be adopting the current fault
740 tolerance methods to handle different software vulnerabilities. As there is no vulnerability handling mechanism
741 in the current proposed methods, we should work on designing complete vulnerability tolerance methods that
742 contain appropriate active vulnerability handling and vulnerability handling mechanisms.

743 Vulnerability removal is performed to detect and remove the vulnerabilities in the software. The focus of most
744 of the current vulnerability removal methods is on verifying the vulnerabilities. In fact, less attention is paid

745 on designing appropriate methods for diagnosis, correction and regression verification of software vulnerabilities.
746 There are some vulnerability diagnosis and correction methods that are used after detecting the exploitation of
747 a vulnerability. But specific methods are required for diagnosis and correction of the vulnerabilities that are
748 detected during the verification of the program. Currently, automatic patching methods analyze an attack and
749 generate software patches based on the pattern of malicious data that are used in the attack. These methods
750 can be modified to automatically generate patches based on the results of analyzing the program and according
751 to the mechanism of detected vulnerabilities.

752 There are numerous vulnerability detection methods presented by now. Most of the recent vulnerability
753 detection methods tend to combine the previous methods in order to profit their advantages at the same time.
754 For example, the concolic execution method combines the concrete and symbolic execution methods to reduce
755 the complexity of pure symbolic execution and increase the program coverage. As another example, static taint
756 analysis is used with the constraint analysis method to limit the overhead of program analysis and compute
757 the constraints only on the tainted data [51]. Also, the control and data flow of the program are extracted in
758 [122], ??62 and [63] to model the program automatically and detect vulnerabilities by performing the model
759 checking. There are more possible combinations that are not applied yet and might be effective in detecting
760 the vulnerabilities more accurately. For example, the annotation can be used in model checking to profit the
761 programmers' knowledge for modeling the program.

762 Also, most of the vulnerability removal and vulnerability tolerance methods consider a specific vulnerability
763 class based on their own definition of the relevant software vulnerability. Therefore, an imprecise definition of the
764 intended vulnerability would cause inaccurate results in the proposed method. In addition, some methods only
765 consider a limited number of vulnerability classes. To handle new vulnerability classes, the algorithm of these
766 methods has to be changed. Many of the presented methods or tools are not able to detect all of the vulnerability
767 classes [123], [124]. By now, the researchers' focus was mainly on designing more accurate methods.

768 A new research trend is making the vulnerability detection methods extendable. In this way, an accurate
769 method for detecting a specific vulnerability can also be used to detect other vulnerabilities. To make a
770 vulnerability detection method extendable, we suggest designing vulnerability detection algorithms that are
771 A New View on Classification of Software Vulnerability Mitigation Methods independent from the sought
772 vulnerability classes. Such algorithms are able to detect any specified vulnerabilities in the program. Designing
773 such methods requires a general model for specifying the vulnerabilities that encompasses any vulnerability
774 classes, even the future ones. Based on this model, various vulnerabilities are specified for the detection algorithms
775 to be detected automatically in the programs.

776 There are a few extendable vulnerability removal methods, such as [125], [126] and [124]. However, these
777 methods are limited to specific programming languages. Also, some of them are not expressive enough to specify
778 any vulnerability classes. For example, in [127] an extendable vulnerability method is presented for detecting the
779 vulnerabilities in web applications that are written in Java. The specification method of [127] does not support
780 some data types, e.g. integer, float and character. Therefore, it is not possible to define certain operations, such
781 as mathematical operations or comparing the characters, in specifying a vulnerability. This is not a limitation for
782 specifying vulnerabilities in object-oriented programs, such as Java. Because they encapsulate these operations in
783 certain methods for each data type. It is, however, a limitation for specifying vulnerabilities in other languages,
784 such as C. For example, it is not possible to specify integer overflow vulnerabilities in C programs with this
785 method.

786 The vulnerability forecasting methods predict the number of left vulnerabilities in the software and determine
787 when the software is ready to be released. They are also used to estimate the required efforts for the future
788 maintenance. Some vulnerability forecasting methods use the vulnerability detection models to predict the rate
789 of vulnerability detection during the lifecycle of the software. The first vulnerability detection models were in
790 fact software reliability growth models that were applied for predicting the vulnerability detection rate. The next
791 models were designed especially for the vulnerability detection rate. These models consider effective parameters
792 on the detection of vulnerabilities, such as time and the number of installations. Since these models do not
793 consider characteristics of the software in their predictions, they need a history of the detected vulnerabilities to
794 predict the vulnerability detection rate in the future. These models are not accurate especially at the early stages
795 in the lifecycle of programs. New vulnerability detection models consider the characteristics of the software to
796 achieve more accurate predictions. In this paper, we reviewed a vulnerability detection model that is based on two
797 characteristics of the program: cyclomatic complexity of the source code and the level of compliance with secure
798 coding practices. There are, however, other characteristics that affect on the rate of vulnerability detection, such
799 as software support, version of the program, availability of the source code or usage of third-party components.
800 For example, the rate of vulnerability detection decreases in time for a program with effective support that
801 periodically presents patches and resolves problems in the program. Also, it might be more difficult to detect
802 vulnerabilities in the higher versions of a program than in its lower versions. The future models can use other
803 characteristics of software to model the vulnerability prediction rate more accurately. Also, they can combine
804 software characteristics with the effective environmental factors, such as time and number of installations, to
805 generate more accurate models.

806 The possibility of analyzing the program and the program analysis method become important when the
807 vulnerability detection models consider the characteristics of software. For example, a model may be based on

808 some characteristics in the source code of the program. Thus, it is not possible to use such model when the source
 809 code of the program is not available. Also, vulnerability forecasts based on inaccurate software analysis are not
 810 reliable. In the future, static and dynamic analysis methods that are proposed for detecting the vulnerabilities
 811 can be used to better analyze the current characteristics of a program and predict the future rate of vulnerability
¹² detection accurately.

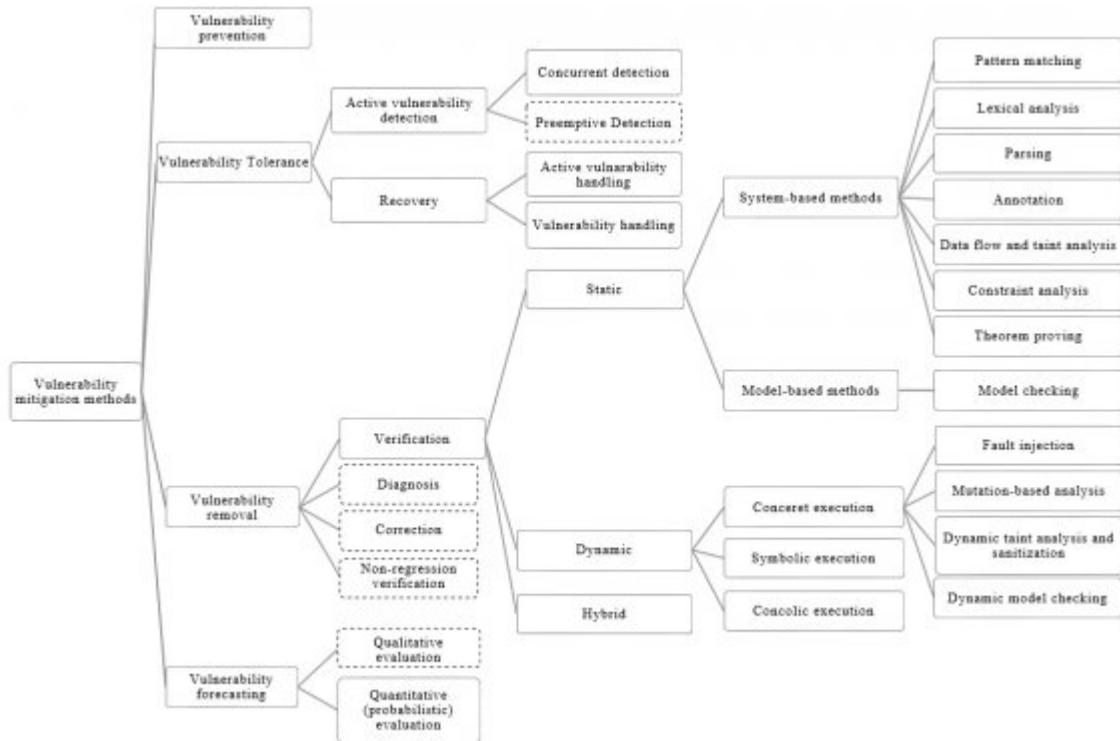


Figure 1: A

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Reviewed	Active vulnerability detection Pa- per	Active vulnerability handling	Vulnerability handling	Vulnerab
[23]	Detect unauthorized changes of re- turn addresses. (preemptive)	Halts or restarts the program. (rollback)	None	Buffer over-
[24]	Detect unauthorized changes of re- turn addresses. (preempt- ive)	Halts the program.	None	Buffer over-
[25]	Detect unauthorized changes of re- turn addresses. (preempt- ive)	Halts the program.	None	Buffer over-
[26]	Monitor the flow of un-trusted data. (preemptive)	Invokes exception handlers. (roll- forward)	None	Any vul- n- erability that exploitab- by input data. Any vul- n- erability that exploitab- by input data.
[27]	Monitor the flow of un-trusted data. (preemptive)	Halts the program.	None	Any vul- n- erability that exploitab- by input data.
[30]	Monitor the argument of SQL-related functions. (preemptive)	Ignores the request. (roll-forward)	None	SQL injec-
[31]	Monitor the argument of SQL-related functions. (preemptive)	Ignores the request. (roll-forward)	None	SQL injec-
[32]	Monitor the format argument of printing functions. (pre- emptive)	Halts the program.	None	Format s-
[28]	Monitor the flow of un-trusted data. (preemptive)	Invokes exception handlers. (roll- forward)	None	SQL in- Buffer o- Format s- Buffer over-
[36]	Detect unauthorized changes of re- turn addresses. (preemptive)	Recovers the stack. (compen-sation)	None	DOM-based XSS
[29]	Monitor the flow of un-trusted data. (preemptive)	Ignores the request. (roll-forward)	None	

Figure 2:

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(C

Figure 3: Table 1 :

Analysis Method	Description	Advantages	shortcomings	Examples
Pattern Matching	Considers the program as a text file and searches for vulnerability patterns in the text.			

Figure 4:

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Figure 5: Table 2 :

Analysis Method	Description	Advantages	shortcomings	Examples
Fault injection	Faults are generated semi-randomly. (random corruption) Fault injection is based on some previous analysis of the program. (intelligent corruption)	Simplicity and independence in random corruption of in-puts. (random corruption) More reliable code coverage, less false negatives. (intelligent corruption)	Cannot detect logic vulnerability. Less reliable code coverage. (random corruption) More effort is required for testing each single program. (intelligent corruption)	

Figure 6:

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