



Review Article

Android Botnets: A Serious Threat to Android Devices

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ABSTRACT

Android devices have gained a lot of attention in the last few decades due to several reasons including ease of use, effectiveness, availability and games, among others. To take advantage of Android devices, mobile users have begun installing an increasingly substantial number of Android applications on their devices. Rapid growth in many Android devices and applications has led to security and privacy issues. It has, for instance, opened the way for malicious applications to be installed on the Android devices while downloading different applications for different purposes. This has caused malicious applications to execute illegal operations on the devices that result in malfunction outputs. Android botnets are one of these malfunctions. This paper presents Android botnets in various aspects including their security, architecture, infection vectors and techniques. This paper also evaluates Android botnets by categorising them according to behaviour. Furthermore, it investigates the Android botnets with respect to Android device threats. Finally, we investigate different Android botnet detection techniques in depth with respect to the existing solutions deployed to mitigate Android botnets.

Keywords: Android botnets, malware, detection techniques, DDoS attacks, mobile security

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INTRODUCTION

Mobile devices (mobile devices/android devices are used interchangeably in this article) are gaining popularity in the 21st century (Narudin, Feizollah, Anuar, & Gani,

2016). These devices offer a host of advanced capabilities and ample storage of large volumes of personal and confidential data (Peng, Yu, & Yang, 2014). Nowadays, most mobile devices offer more computing capabilities and memory storage than many personal computers did a few years back. According to former Android boss Andy Rubin, “There should be nothing that users can access on their desktop that they cannot access on their cellphone” (Rubin, 2008). Any mobile device has three core features, such as Applications, Storage and Connectivity. These key features make Android devices an attractive tool for malware writers to attack organisation/individual devices. While protecting stored data on these devices is crucial against today’s threats, most mobile devices use the Android operating system due to its open nature. Android provides a full set of software for Android devices including operating system, middleware and key Android applications (Sears, 2007). The open nature of Android devices make these devices an attractive source for cybercriminals and over the years there has been a number of threats faced by mobile devices such as spyware, botnet, vulnerable applications, privacy threats, drive-by-download, phishing scams, malware, network exploits, browser exploits and Wi-Fi sniffing (Fossi et al., 2011; Inayat, Gani, Anuar, Khan, & Anwar, 2016), Botnet is one of the most dangerous threats faced by mobile devices recently.

Malware is used to damage Internet-connected devices and gather sensitive information from individuals or it uses spyware for accessing the most private information on the infected device (Sharma, Chawla, & Gajrani, 2016). Spyware gathers all this information specifically for advertising purposes (Sheta, Zaki, El Salam, & Hadad, 2015). Privacy threats can be caused by those Android applications that may not be malicious by nature but use sensitive information obtained illegally from unsuspecting Android users. Vulnerable applications are those that contain deficiencies that may cause malicious attacks and malicious activities. Phishing scams are those that use the victim’s device emails for sending the virus infected links to the Internet-connected devices (Naraine, 2012). In drive-by-download, the infected devices download an application when they access a website. While the browser-exploits benefits from the vulnerabilities in mobile device web browsers or applications launched by the browser such as flash player, PDF reader and much more, in network exploits, cybercriminals take advantage of Android operating system flaws for criminal activities (Naser, Zolkipli, Majid, & Anwar, 2014). When the data are transferred from one device to another connected by Wi-Fi as many applications do not use proper security rules, this results in data obstruction known as Wi-Fi sniffing. In this article, we focus on the Android botnet.

A botnet (Robot Network) is a type of malware that enables the infected devices to perform criminal activities according to the botmaster’s instructions (Anwar, Zain, Inayat, Haq, Karim, & Jaber, 2016; Naser et al., 2014; Peng et al., 2014). A malicious Android application is installed in a susceptible host that is capable of carrying out a series of different harmful activities to the end user according to the botmaster’s instructions. These applications can be downloaded to the victims’ devices using different methods. The most common ways to infect a victim’s device includes access to the infected websites, drive-by-download, spam emails, viral mechanism and much more (Anwar, Zain, Zolkipli, Inayat, Khan, Anthony, & Chang, 2017; Karim, Shah, Salleh, Arif, Md Noor, & Shamshirband, 2015). Once an end-user’s device is infected with malicious software, it receives instructions from the cybercriminal (botmaster) through a command and control server using communication channels. Botmaster is the entity

that performs criminal activities from these bot devices, while a communication channel is the way through which a botmaster can communicate with the C&C server and bots. A bot can be a servant and a client as well at the same time. It can propagate themselves to infect vulnerable hosts (Silva, Silva, Pinto, & Salles, 2013).

To the best of our knowledge, this paper aims to present the Android botnet from first appearance. We aim to guide interested readers and researchers on Android botnets and detection techniques. This paper organises the Android botnet detection techniques with respect to their benefits and limitations; understanding this information can improve Android botnet detection techniques.

The key contributions of this survey paper are:

- It provides up-to-date information on mobile device threats: We provide comprehensive details of the possible threats to mobile devices. We have also categorised these threats in sub-groups according to their nature.
- It provides exhaustive information about Android botnets: We provide in-depth information about Android botnets, their background and timeline.
- We provide in-depth information about Android botnet detection techniques: This paper presents detailed information about Android botnet detection techniques. We explain these techniques regarding their benefits and limitations. These limitations are also explained in more detail in table form.
- We introduce future research challenges: We suggest potential research areas for Android botnet detection techniques and we highlight the challenges present in Android botnet detection techniques as well.

Classification of Mobile Device Threats

There are diverse types of threat to mobile devices that may badly affect mobile devices, such as viruses and spyware that can infect personal computers (PC). These threats can be divided into four broad categories: Application-Level, Web-Level, Network-Level and Physical-Level (see Figure 1).

Application-Level Threats

Application-level threats are based on the Applications, which are the core feature of every mobile device. These threats appear to be the most widely discussed threats in the literature, which presents application-level threats as the most widely discussed threat. Since the applications that run on these mobile devices are available from third-party markets, it is clear that they can be target vectors for mobile device security breaches (Faruki et al., 2015). Malware are Android applications that perform malicious activities can inject malicious codes into mobile device that send unsolicited messages and allow an adversary the ability to remotely control the device.

Malware. Malware is short for ‘malicious software’. This is specifically developed to damage machines on which they are executed or the network on which it communicates (Inayat, Gani,

Anuar, Anwar, & Khurram Khan, 2017; Preda, Christodorescu, Jha, & Debray, 2008). Malware is mostly installed on victims’ devices to perform illegal activities without the knowledge of the owner. The range of malware varies; it can be as simple as pop-up advertising or so dangerous that it causes machine invasion or damage. Stealing owner-sensitive credentials and infecting new vulnerable devices are the main targets of malware. The most common malware is found as financial, crypto locker and advertisement malware (Anwar, Zain, Zolkipli, Inayat, Jabir, & Odili, 2015).

Financial malware is developed for scanning mobile devices to gather financial information, while crypto locker malware is used in cyber-criminal activities. According to the Symantec report published in 2013, ransomware evolves regularly in the Android operating system. Compared with other OS on mobile devices, Android is most frequently attacked because of its open nature (Narudin et al., 2016; Odili, Kahar, & Anwar, 2015; Teuffl et al., 2013). Ransomware allows cybercriminals to hijack the victim’s device, encrypt the victim’s private files and then demand a ransom from the victim in order for the files to be released (Anwar et al., 2017). Malicious spyware is considered a significant threat to the confidentiality of mobile devices (Sheta, Zaki, El Salam, & Hadad, 2015). It covertly collects confidential data from the infected device and sends it to the cybercriminal (Botmaster) through the user’s Internet connection without the owner’s knowledge. These applications mostly contain freeware or shareware, which can be downloaded from third-party markets. Adware is another type of malware. It is a software package that automatically displays related advertisements to the mobile device users based on the user’s pattern of web surfing. These advertisements may be present during the installing phase of any Android application, or they are present when an end-user is using these applications. This adware engages in collecting confidential information, frequently by user consent, while stealing this personal information for covert harmful activities.

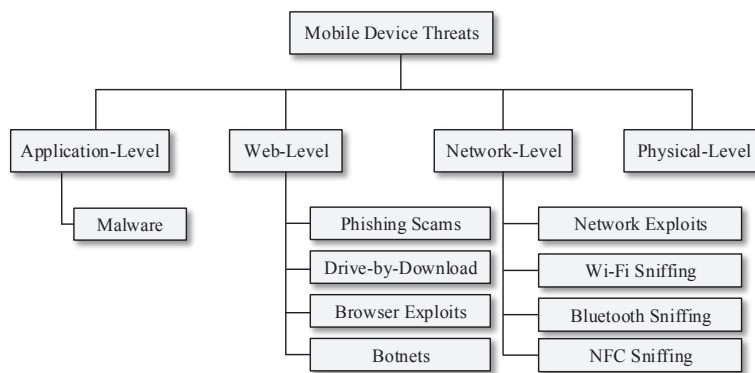


Figure 1. Threats to mobile device security

Web-Level Threats

The security and privacy threats to mobile devices from webs happens normally. The most dangerous web-level threats are phishing scams, drive-by-download and browser exploits. Phishing scams are the key web-level threat, which uses email or other social media apps

to send an unwitting user links to a phishing website designed to trick users into providing sensitive information such as user credentials. Phishing is one of the top seven security threats identified by the Kaspersky lab (Kaspersky, 2015). However, botware is the most dangerous threat to mobile devices nowadays. These are software programmes created to automatically perform specific operations.

Phishing scams. Phishing refers to the criminal action of generating a replica of web pages that exist to fool a mobile user entering private, extremely sensitive credentials, financial or online banking information and passwords (Alta, Loock, & Dabrowski, 2005). Phishing is a technique of attacking to obtain personal information from a mobile device user and is the main cause of various problems encountered by Internet users. This technique can cost the victim financially. Phishing is performed through instant messenger phishing, voice phishing, and flash phishing (Dunne, 2006; Milletary & Center, 2005). After launching a phishing attack on an individual or an organisation, the employees of the organisation handle the customer when he calls after losing his money.

Drive-by-Download. A drive-by-download refers to potentially harmful software code that is installed on a person's computer without the user's permission; the user may not even be aware that the software has been installed. Drive-by-downloads are a form of malware typically found on compromised web pages. By simply 'driving by', or visiting the web page, the drive-by-download begins to download and is then installed in the background on the computer or mobile device without alerting the user (Naraine, 2012).

Browser exploits. This is a malicious code that uses a piece of software or operating vulnerabilities to breach the security of the browser. Browser exploits perform these malicious activities without informing the owner of the device.

Botnets. Short for robot network, botnet, is the network of Internet-connected infected-devices (bots) under the control of a botmaster (cybercriminal) to perform cyber-criminal activities without the knowledge of the device owner (Anwar, Mohamad Zain, Zolkipli, & Inayat, 2014). There are two types of botnet: traditional botnets and mobile botnets. This paper focusses on mobile (Android) botnets. The purpose of Android botnets will most likely be similar to those of existing traditional botnets (e.g. providing means of DoS, DDoS and spam distribution); however, the targets are different (Enck, Ongtang, & McDaniel, 2009). In mobile botnets, the targets are mobile devices.

A common botnet having thousands of infected victims is called a bot (zombie). The botmaster sends instructions to all online bots to send queries to a particular system/server (Mirkovic & Reiher, 2004). By attacking a new victim from thousands of different bots in a botnet, the DoS (DDoS) is distributed. In a DDoS attack, the bot becomes harder to detect and it is difficult for cyber law enforcement to prevent DDoS attacks. Some DDoS attacks include UDP flood attacks, Zero-day DDoS attacks, Sync flood attacks, ICMP flood attacks, Slowloris and Ping of Death (LulzSec, 2011; Zang, Tangpong, Kesidis, & Miller, 2011). DDoS attacks are performed using diverse types of tool, such as agent- and IRC-based tools. These

attacks can be detected through screening of the time interval of requests and bandwidth size. Some DDoS attacks, such as Zero-day attacks, are unknown or new and thus, have no patch yet. The term DDoS is well-known among hackers as dealing with Zero-day vulnerabilities is a common activity.

Network-Level Threats

Any mobile device has three core features: applications, storage and connectivity. Network-level threats can occur due to mobile device connectivity with the cellular/mobile networks, local wireless networks or near field-communication (NFC). Network exploits, Wi-Fi sniffing, Bluetooth and NFC are the main types of network-level threats.

Network exploits. Network exploits take advantage of flaws in the mobile operating system or other software that operates on local or cellular networks, such as an International Mobile Subscriber Identity (IMSI) catcher. Once connected, they can intercept data connections and find a way to inject malicious software on users' phones without their knowledge.

Wi-Fi sniffing. Wi-Fi sniffing seizes data when they are traveling between the device and the Wi-Fi access point. Most Android applications do not use proper security measures while sending unencrypted data across the network. A cybercriminal can easily read the data as they travel. Public sites such as coffee shops, restaurants and bookstores may have WPA2, but it is likely that anyone with the password can decrypt your packets.

Bluetooth. People who leave BT on all the time leave themselves vulnerable to pairing from nefarious devices and the uploading of spyware. Blue jacking is an older-style attack in which a Bluetooth enabled device that is active is used by someone else. Blue jacking refers to the sending of unsolicited data (vCards etc.) to open Bluetooth listeners in the area. It has more recently been used for marketing, but many more modern smartphones are less vulnerable to Bluetooth stack exploits. This can lead to phishing attempts and the spread of malware or viruses.

Near field communication (NFC). Advanced mobile devices contain near field communication (NFC) as a medium for communication. NFC is a newly developed wireless technology that provides communication between two mobile devices, both of which must contain NFC tags using short-range radio waves. NFC enables the exchange of images, apps and other data between two devices without first pairing them. For this purpose, both devices use a feature that Google calls Android Beam (Sauter, 2013), while Beam is Android's trademark for NFC when the protocol is used for device-to-device communication. In the NFC communication, only two devices can communicate, such as the initiator and target. The initiator sends data, while the target receives them; both devices are active during the communication, consuming their own battery power. NFC provides extra opportunities to the attacker to compromise NFC-enabled devices, such as Wi-Fi and Bluetooth. So far, mobile threats are still mainly aimed at consumers rather than at enterprises.

Physical-Level Threats

Physical-level threats are more important than other mentioned threats. Since mobile devices are small, portable and valuable, it makes their physical security more important. Stealing and misplacing devices are the common issue among users of these devices. These devices are valuable not only because they are resold in the black market, but more importantly, because they contain sensitive organisational and personal data. Most mobile device users use their phone for banking, social communication and much more, while end-user are always connected to these accounts, which makes the stolen or misplaced phone more vulnerable for criminal activities. Furthermore, a lost or stolen device can be used to gain access to secret data stored on it.

Android Botnets as a Universal Threat for Mobile Device Users

The dramatic increment in the number of mobile device users has attracted cybercriminals to develop malicious applications (Narudin et al., 2016). In addition, mobile devices contain more sensitive information about the owners; this tends to be taken lightly by security organisations and individuals. A mobile device can be misused in many ways. The botnet is one of the most successful methods by which a mobile device can be misused for malicious activities against organisations or individuals.

Android Botnet as a Threat for Organisations

Android botnets are mostly used for organised economic fraud. Today, world economies must deal with a broad range of botnets that have caused a considerable amount of damage. About USD7.1 million was estimated lost due to click fraud performed by botnets using DDoS attacks in 2007 (Plohmann, Gerhards-Padilla, & Leder, 2011). It is very hard to detect click fraud, as these target legitimate users while they are surfing websites. According to a published report, on every USD3 million spent on digital advertisement, USD1million is spent on click fraud. Another statistics report showed that digital advertising hit the highest level of fraud in 2015, which was estimated at USD27.5 billion (Slefo, 2015). According to Kaspersky's monitoring results, 35,000 malicious mobile programmes were found at the end of 201. These malicious programmes steal sensitive data from the end-user devices, consume account balances while running digital advertisements, which is pushed by these malicious programmes (Christian & Maria, 2013). Kaspersky released security threat statistics for the year 2015, in which they blocked 0.8 billion attacks and used a list of 6.5 million unique host, to from web resources located in various countries around the world (LAB, 2015).

Android Botnet as a Threat for Individuals

Mobile devices offer advanced capabilities, with more storage capacity that can store organisational and confidential data of end users (Peng et al., 2014). Furthermore, advanced mobile devices offer more computing capabilities than many of personal computers offered a few years back. A mobile device has three main features, such as Android applications, storage, and connectivity with internet or cellular network (Rubin, 2008). Once a mobile device becomes

part of the Android botnet, botmasters attempt to take complete control of it to enable the botnet creator to perform illegal activities without the knowledge of the end user. After taking control of the mobile device, a botmaster can access everything from the compromised device. Furthermore, sending texts and making phone calls to premium numbers can be performed with these compromised devices. Botmaster can access contacts and messages on the compromised devices as well. These botnets take advantage of unpatched Android application updates.

Android Botnet Security

As smartphones are the largest category of Android devices, they have become an essential tool in how people communicate with one another. Each Android device has three key features: Applications, online and storage. Android applications are one of the core features of Android devices. They enable users to play games, read the news, connect with others, check weather conditions, perform online banking, read maps and navigators and perform many other functions. These applications are available from third parties like Google Play Store and Amazon (Silva et al., 2013). It may be a primary feature for many end users.

The core function of the Android device is to enable the user to make calls, take photographs, send text or picture messages and access personal data storage. It also allows the developer to develop richer applications. The developer may also access the user's address book, SMS content, GPS location data, movement data by G-sensor and accelerometer and even information in other applications. The Android does not differentiate between the phone's core applications and third-party applications. However, such applications from third parties can access personal/confidential information in the Android device very easily. These core features of Android devices make these devices an easy target for cybercriminals.

In this modern era, trojanised Android applications are a common infection method of Android devices. This is most often targeted by cybercriminals who use different types of malware. Botnet, a dangerous malware, compromises Android devices such as smartphones, smartware, tablets and notebooks, attempting to get full access to the device and provide control to the botmaster. The data found on Android devices include text messages (SMS/MMS), contacts, call logs, e-mail messages (Gmail, Yahoo), chats, location coordinates using the global positioning system (GPS), photographs, videos, web history, search history, driving directions, Facebook and Twitter information, music collections and other information. These third-party applications provide a simple and easy means of accessing content and services of Android devices. It is important to be aware of how to use these third-party applications safely and securely. Android botnets are able to spread themselves by sending copies to compromised devices.

The criminal activity the Trojan-Ransom.Android-OS.Small family is a multifunctional ransomware Trojan performed by an Android botnet. After connecting to the botnet army, it receives commands from the command and control channel and performs the activities received from them. Once run, it asks for the victim's device's admin rights and loads information about the victim's device to a malicious server. It can be an international mobile equipment identity (IMEI), international mobile subscriber identity (IMSI), device model, brand and phone number or other information.

In addition, the Trojan is registered in the Google cloud messaging (GCM) system. As such, the Trojan can receive commands from both the C&C server and via GCM. With this information, it can perform the commands shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Commands between C&C server and trojan

| Command | Description |
|-----------------|--|
| START | Start the main service of the Trojan |
| STOP | Stop the main service of the Trojan |
| RESTART | Restart the main service of the Trojan |
| URL | Change the C&C address |
| MESSAGE | Send an SMS to a specified number with a specified text |
| UPDATE_PATTERNS | Update the rules for processing incoming SMS |
| UNBLOCK | Disable the device administrator's rights |
| UPDATE | Download a file from the specified URL and instal it |
| CONTACTS | Send out a specified SMS to all contacts from the list of contacts |
| LOCKER_UPDATE | Update the text with the ransom demand |
| LOCKER_BLOCK | Block the device |
| LOCKER_UNBLOCK | Unblock the device |
| CHANGE_GCM_ID | Change the GCM id |

The main idea behind botnets is to control interaction in Internet Relay Chat (IRC) chat rooms. They are able to interpret simple commands, provide administration support, offer simple games and other services to chat users and retrieve information about operating systems, logins, email addresses and aliases, in addition to other information (Silva et al., 2013). The first known iKee.B Mobile botnet was found in 2009. It was discovered to be using the Command and Control Server in the iPhone. This botnet is able to propagate itself and to instal third-party applications on the end-user's phone without user information (Peng et al., 2014).

Table 2 shows the timeline of Android botnets with respect to their first appearance in terms of year, platform, instruction, categories and C&C type in addition to other related information.

Table 2
Android Botnet timeline

| Year | Name | C&C Type | Botnet Instructions | Criminal Activities by Default | Requires Permission |
|------|---------------|----------|---|--|---------------------|
| 2010 | SMSHowU.A | SMS | Leak location, GPS and maps through SMS | None | N/A |
| 2011 | Geinimi.A | HTTP | ON, OFF, ADD or Set or Rem Sender | IMEI, IMSI, SIM, SIM state, Build info, GPS, Board, Brand, CPU type, User, Software version, SIM country, SIM operator | N/A |
| | DroidKungFu.A | HTTP | Leak location, GPS and maps through SMS | Send sensitive data, execDelete, Exploit known vulnerabilities to gain root, Instal APK, execOpenUrl, execStartApp | N/A |

Table 2 (continue)

| | | | | | |
|------|------------|--------------|---|--|---|
| 2012 | Fjcon.A | HTT Phone | ICCID; | Financial, Propagation of malware | N/A |
| | Rootsmart | HTTP | action.host start; action.boot; action.shutdown; action.install; action.installed; action.check live;action.download apk; | IMEI, IMSI, cell ID, location area code, mobile network code | N/A |
| | TigerBot.A | SMS | Change APN; Notify of SIM change; Kill running process | IMEI | N/A |
| 2013 | Stealer.B | HTTP and SMS | HTTP: time; sms; send; delete; smscf SMS: ServerKey +001; +002; anything | IMEI, IMSI, contacts | READ_SMS; INTERNET; RECEIVE_BOOT_COMPLETED; READ_PHONE_STATE; RECEIVE_SMS; READ_CONTACTS; SEND_SMS; WRITE_EXTERNAL_STORAGE |
| | Tascudap.A | HTTP | time; sms; send; delete;smscfSMS: ServerKey + 001; 002; anything | Specify time when trojan should next contact C&C, send SMS, delete SMS from phone, selective SMS hiding, start application, forward received SMS, update | READ_SMS; ACCESS_NETWORK INTERNET; READ_PHONE_STATE; RECEIVE_SMS; READ_CONTACTS; SEND_SMS; WRITE_EXTERNAL_STORAGA; |
| | BadNews.A | HTTP | news; showpage; install; showinstall; iconpage; coninstall; newdomen; seconddomen; stop; testpost | Propagation of possible malware; download and instal APK | RECEIVE_BOOT_COMPLETED; SEND_SMS; RECEIVE_SMS; INTERNET; ACCEESS_INTERNAL_MEMORY; ACCESS_EXTENAL_MEMORY; |
| | Spamsold.A | SMS | Display same icon on the menu, retain the image same but the name may change, instal APK once clicked | Sends SMS spam messages without the user's consent | INTERNET; CHANGE_COMPONENT_ENABLED; RECEIVE_SMS; READ_SMS; SEND_SMS WRITE_SMS; RECEIVE_SMS; RAISED_THREAD_PRIORITY; READ_CONTACTS; WRITE_EXTERNAL; RECEIVE_BOOT_COMPLETED; WAKE_LOCK; |

Android Botnets: A Serious Threat to Android Devices

Table 2 (continue)

| | | | | | |
|------|--------------|--------------|---|--|--|
| 2014 | FriectSpy.E3 | HTTP; SMS | Command and Control to execute malware activities such as call records, use camera for pictures and videos, use mic for recording voice | Incoming/Outgoing call; Incoming/Outgoing SMS, GPS location information, URLs that the device user accesses | ACCESS_NETWORK_STATE; CALL_PHONE; GET_TASKS; INTERNET; READ_PHONE_STATE; READ_SMS; RECEIVE_BOOT_COMPLETED; RECEIVE_SMS; SEND_SMS; SYSTEM_ALERT_WINDOW; WAKE_LOCK; WRITE_SMS; |
| | Geinimi.A | HTTP | ON, OFF, ADD or Set or Rem Sender | User, Software version, IMEI, SIM State, CPU type, SIM country, IMSI, SIM, SIM operator, build info, GPS, Board, Brand | CALL_PHONE; GET_TASKS; INTERNET; READ_PHONE_STATE; READ_SMS; RECEIVE_BOOT_COMPLETED; RECEIVE_SMS; SEND_SMS; SYSTEM_ALERT_WINDOW; WAKE_LOCK; WRITE_SMS; |
| | SpyBubb.A | SMS | Leak location, GPS and maps through SMS; HTTP: time; sms; send; delete; smscf SMS: ServerKey +001; +002; anything | Collect SMS, Call, Fine location, Coarse location, GPS, Device info like IMEI, IMSI etc. Share phone information to vendor site | ACCESS_NETWORK_STATE; ACCESS_WIFI_STATE; READ_PHONE_STATE; INTERNET; WAKE_LOCK; |
| 2015 | Leech.A | HTTP | action.host start; action.boot; action.shutdown; action.install; action.installed; action.check live; action.download apk | Instal itself persistently, run with full privileges, unwanted payment through SMS, spying activities, dynamically load command and control server | ACCESS_NETWORK_STATE; ACCESS_WIFI_STATE; READ_PHONE_STATE; INTERNET; WAKE_LOCK; |
| | Tediss | SMS | N/A | Monitor calls, SMS and conversation applications | CALL_PHONE; GET_TASKS; INTERNET; READ_PHONE_STATE; READ_SMS; RECEIVE_BOOT_COMPLETED; RECEIVE_SMS; SEND_SMS; SYSTEM_ALERT_WINDOW; WAKE_LOCK; WRITE_SMS; |
| | WormHole.A | HTTP and SMS | WormHole.A HTTP and SMS | Instal applications without notification; Location information; Add contact items; Monitor list of applications | READ_EXTERNAL_STORAGE; READ_PHONE_STATE; READ_NETWORK_STATE; INTERNET; READ_INTERNAL_STORAGE; WAKE_LOCK; READ_COARS_LOCATION; |

Table 2 (continue)

| | | | | | |
|------|--------------|--------------|---|--|--|
| | SilverPush.A | HTTP and SMS | HTTP: time; sms; send; delete; smscf SMS: ServerKey +001; +002; anything; ON, OFF, ADD or Set or Rem Sender | IMEI number; Operating system version; Location; Potentially the identity of the owner; Behaviour of users using TVs; Web browsers; Radios | ACCESS_NETWORK_STATE; CALL_PHONE; GET_TASKS; INTERNET; READ_PHONE_STATE; READ_SMS; RECEIVE_SMS; SEND_SMS; WRITE_SMS; |
| 2016 | MazarBOT.A | SMS | N/A | Sends premium SMS, exfiltrate sensitive information and steal the received SMS messages by setting up a backdoor on device | ACCESS_NETWORK_STATE; CALL_PHONE; GET_TASKS; INTERNET; READ_PHONE_STATE; READ_SMS; RECEIVE_BOOT_COMPLETED; RECEIVE_SMS; SEND_SMS; SYSTEM_ALERT_WINDOW; WAKE_LOCK; WRITE_SMS; |
| | Morder.A | HTTP and SMS | Command and Control to execute Malware activities such as calls record, use camera for pictures and videos, use mic for recording voice | Track location; Leak contacts to C&C; Upload data from SD Card to C&C; Delete or download files in the infected device; Leak phone call history; Take pictures with the camera; Record audio and calls; Execute shell commands | ACCESS_NETWORK_STATE; CALL_PHONE; GET_TASKS; ACCESS_FINE_LOCATION; ACCESS_COARSE_LOCATION; INTERNET; READ_PHONE_STATE; READ_SMS; RECEIVE_BOOT_COMPLETED; RECEIVE_SMS; SEND_SMS; SYSTEM_ALERT_WINDOW; WAKE_LOCK; WRITE_SMS; |
| | Smishing.D | SMS | time; sms; send; delete; smscf SMS: ServerKey +001; +002; anything; ON, OFF, ADD or Set or Rem Sender | Detect text messages; Access fraudulent fake bank URL; Steal user's sensitive credential; Password stealing; Additional information stealing | ACCESS_NETWORK_STATE; CALL_PHONE; GET_TASKS; INTERNET; READ_PHONE_STATE; READ_SMS; RECEIVE_SMS; SEND_SMS; WRITE_SMS; |

NA=Not Available, HTTP=Hyper-Text Transfer Protocol, SMS=Short Message Service, PUP=Potential Unwanted Programmes, SD=Secure Digital, C&C=Command & Control Servers, IMEI=International Mobile Equipment Identity, IMSI=International Mobile Subscriber Identity, HTTP=Hyper-Text Transfer Protocol

Components of Android Botnet

A typical Android botnet has four elementary components as shown in Figure 2: bot, botmaster, command and control server and communication channel.

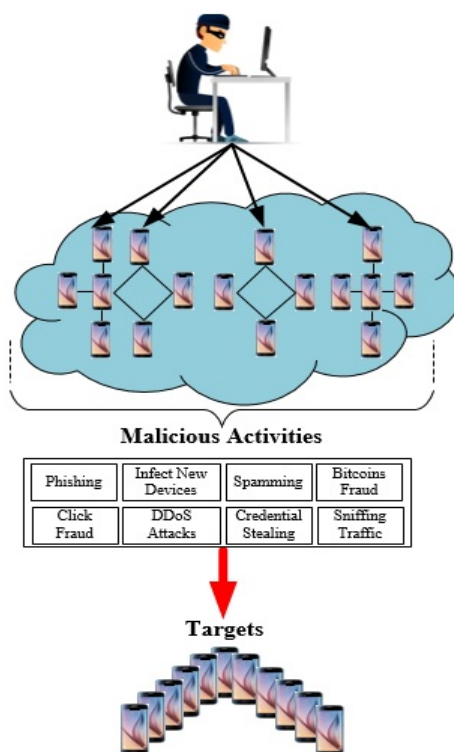


Figure 2. Typical android botnet structure

Bot. A bot is a malicious Android application that is installed in a susceptible host that can perform a series of different harmful actions upon the end user at a cybercriminal’s command. This application can be installed to the victim devices in diverse ways. The most common ways include access to the infected websites, drive-by-downloads, spam emails, viral mechanisms and much more (Karim et al., 2015). Once an end-user device is infected with malicious software, it receives commands and controls from the botmaster through the command and control server using communication channels. A bot can be a servant and client at the same time.

Botmaster. The attacker is also known as the botmaster, who maintains and operates the command and control of botnets from remote areas. The botmaster, also known as the bot-herder, is responsible for a variety of malicious activities. Botmasters ensure that errors are fixed and that the bot does not break any of the rules of the channel or server it is logged into. Most botmasters hide their identity via proxies, the onion ring (TOR) and/or shells to disguise their ip address from detection by investigators and law enforcement agents.

Command control server. The term ‘command and control’ (C&C) is a military concept. Command and Control servers allow a bot entity to take new instructions and malicious capabilities as commanded by a remote individual (botmaster). These servers are used to control botnets, in particular. Command and control in the botnet’s Fast-flux Domain Name System (DNS) can be used to make track the control server difficult to do, as the server may change from day to day. These servers may also hop from one DNS domain to another. The Domain Generation Algorithm (DGA) is used presently to create new DNS names for controller servers. A botnet may have different C&C server topologies like Star, Multi-Server, Hierarchical and Random topology.

Communication channels. The botnet communication channel refers to the protocol used by bots and the botmaster to communicate with each other. Bluetooth, Internet Relay Chat (IRC), Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP), peer-to-peer (P2P) and voice over internet protocol (VoIP) servers are used to pass information between bots and the botmaster. The botmaster creates IRC channels on the C&C server, after which the compromised machines will wait for commands to perform malicious activities. An interesting feature of the IRC protocol is the possibility of multicast communication through groups. The IRC channel has some serious limitations like being easy to detect and interrupt. It is rarely used in corporate networks and is usually blocked (Silva et al., 2013).

Due to these limitations of the IRC channel, the HTTP has become the most usable mechanism for implementing command and control communication (Liu, Chen, Yan, & Zhang, 2008). The first Android botnet named SymbOS/Yxes, which appeared in 2009, (Suarez Tangil, Tapiador, Peris-Lopez, & Ribagorda, 2014) targeted the SYMBIAN OS platform using a rudimentary HTTP-based command and control (C&C) channel. Centralised botnets are not more secure as discussed above, so the trend shifted to decentralised botnets. Most of the decentralised botnets are based on a variety of P2P protocols (Jelasity & Bilicki, 2009). Similarly, VoIP is used as the communication channel in vishing (VoIP and phishing) instead of the more usual email technique.

Life Cycle of Android Botnet

Android botnets can come in different structures and sizes, but in general, they go through the same steps as computer botnets (Silva et al., 2013), as shown in Figure 3. An active botnet requires the bot device to complete its life cycle. A typical Android botnet can be developed and maintained in five phases: initial infection, secondary injection, connection, malicious command and control, update and maintenance. In the first phase, initial infection, the end-user device is infected and becomes an active member of the Android botnet. The second phase, secondary injecting, can be carried out by injecting the malicious code into the end-user devices through Bluetooth, drive-by-download, automatic scan, NFC and Wi-Fi (Faruki et al., 2015).

After injecting the code into the victim’s device, the bot finds a way to connect to the command and control server. This happens in the connection phase, which is the only phase that may occur several times during the botnet’s life cycle (Liu et al., 2008). Once an infected device connects to the Android botnet’s command and control server, the botmaster will send

commands through the C&C server using communication channels, while the bots await commands from the botmaster.

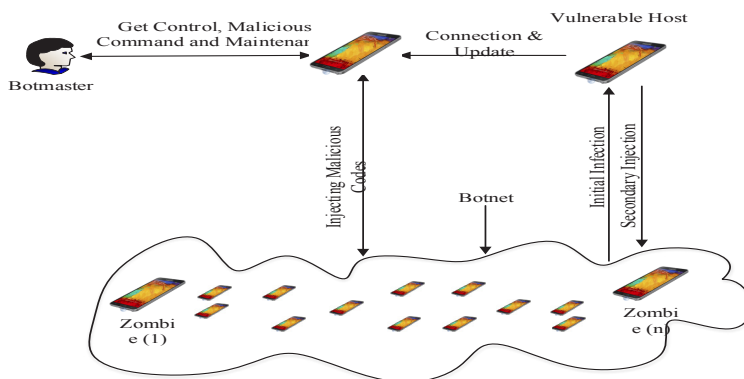


Figure 3. Android botnet life cycle

The last phase of the Android botnet’s life cycle is updating and maintenance of the infected devices. Maintenance is important for a botnet to keep his army of infected devices active. The new updates are then sent to these bots many times for many reasons that propagate the different types of criminal activity such as spamming, identity theft, DDoS attacks and much more.

Mobile Device Infection Vectors

There are multiple infection vectors for delivering malicious content to mobile devices. In this survey, we classify infection vectors into four categories: SMS/MMS, Bluetooth, Internet access and file duplication with USB. Cellular services, such as short message service (SMS) and multimedia messaging service (MMS), can be used as attack vectors for smartphones, as shown in Figure 4. For example, SMS/MMS messages can be used to deliver malicious content and to maintain communication with an attacker. For example, ComWar is a worm that browses the host’s phonebook and then spreads via SMS/MMS messages (Peng et al., 2014).

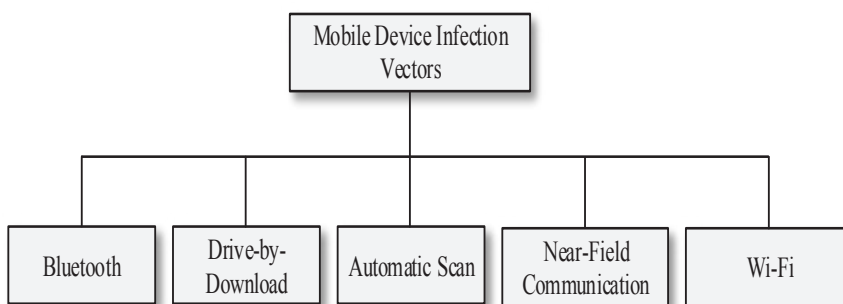


Figure 4. Mobile device infection vectors

Bluetooth

Bluetooth is short-range radio communication protocol used for exchanging data over a limited distance between Bluetooth-enabled devices. Device-to-Device (D2D) malware attacks are performed on the bases of Bluetooth. Once the cybercriminal infects a smartphone with the bot code, it can enable Bluetooth without the knowledge of the owner and target another Bluetooth-enabled device in its range. If the connection is established, the infected device sends the bot code to the targeted device using this Bluetooth vector. This limits the attack vector in some way, such as one-to-one connection, limited distance range and others.

Drive-by-Download

To secure Android devices from botnet attacks, users should only visit reputable websites for downloading application software and other video/audio materials. Botnet infection is possibly acquired by visiting a malicious website. When visited by a smartphone or tablet user, the malicious website forces the user to download the plugin software, which is in fact a malware. If a web page causes the automatic downloading and installation of software without the Android device user's consent, the page is considered malicious. This mechanism, which is also called drive-by-download, allows malware to control Android devices.

Automatic Scan

Automatic scan is performed to infect new victim's devices by compromising and influencing them to be a part of the botnet. In this technique, a new host inside the botnet must be recruited to establish a new botnet through vulnerability scanning (Ianelli & Hackworth, 2005). This goal can be achieved by infecting many hosts, which attempt to identify exploitable vulnerabilities in other new hosts. For example, FTP services suffer buffer overflow exploitation (Lashkari, Ghalebandi, & Moradhaseli, 2011).

Near-Field Communication

Near-Field Communication (NFC) is an advanced wireless technology that allows fast data transfer between two close devices with an enabled NFC setting. NFC is related to mobile payments, such that it has the personal banking information of a user. It has gained popularity among botmasters for spreading malicious commands to compromise other devices because of its fast data transfer capability. In addition, dependence on NFC has induced the C&C channel of botnets to be more challenging (Stevanovic, Revsbech, Pedersen, Sharp, & Jensen, 2012).

Wi-Fi

Wi-Fi has assured compensation over other communication media applicable to Android botnets. The use of open Wi-Fi networks for an Android botnet provides a higher level of stealth and fewer entry barriers than other communication media. Denial of service (DoS) attacks and distributed DoS attacks are threats that can simultaneously inflict devastation on many users. Apart from the aforementioned-infection vectors, smartphones could be compromised

using other methods e.g. the use of USB. If the files used to synchronise smartphones are compromised, malware can also infect smartphones. As a result, attackers can access the host's classified information and instal malicious applications on the smartphone.

Android Botnet Architecture

Personal-computer-based botnet are considered the most compromised platforms for botnet attacks compared to the recently evolved Android botnets due to some limitations, such as limited battery power, limited processing speed, limited internet access and limited memory storage. Android botnets have similar architecture as computer botnets, namely, centralised architecture, decentralised architecture and hybrid architecture. Table 3 shows the advantages and disadvantages of existing Android botnet architecture with respect to map complexity, detection, message latency and survivability.

Table 3
Command-and-Control architecture

| Architecture | Centralised | Decentralised | Hybrid |
|-----------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|
| Alias | Star | Peer-to-peer | Random |
| Map Complexity | Very low | Medium-High | Moderate |
| Detection | Medium | Low-Medium | High |
| Message Latency | Very low | Moderate | Moderate-High |
| Survivability | Low-Medium | Medium | High |

Centralised botnet architecture. In centralised botnet architecture, all the bots relate to a central command-and-control server to establish a communication channel with central point as illustrated in Figure 5. In centralised architecture, the botmaster controls and supervises all bots in a botnet from a single C&C server. Botmasters are able to communicate with the bots continuously by sending instructions to them through these central servers (Anwar et al., 2014). As all bots receive commands and report to a C&C server, it is easy for botmasters to manage botnets using centralised architecture. Furthermore, centralised botnet architecture uses two types of topologies, star topology and hierarchical topology, and two types of protocols, Internet Relay Chat (IRC) and Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP) (Khattak, Ramay, Khan, Syed, & Khayam, 2014; Li, Jiang, & Zou, 2009). The design of centralised architecture is less complex compared to other architecture, while message latency and survivability rate are low. This causes low reaction time, easy means of communication and direct feedback (Plohmann et al., 2011).

It also possesses some limitations. For instance, centralised architecture has more maximum failure chances compared with other architecture. If the C&C server fails, then all the botnets may stop working because of the central point of control. Detection of a botmaster is easier compared than if the decentralised and hybrid architecture were used (Bailey, Cooke, Jahanian, Xu, & Karir, 2009; Cooke, Jahanian, & McPherson, 2005; Zang et al., 2011).

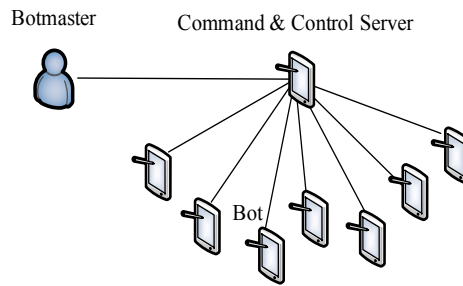


Figure 5. Centralised android botnet architecture

Decentralised botnet architecture. In decentralised botnet architecture, no single responsible entity controls different bots in a botnet. More than one C&C server communicate with various bots as described in Figure 3. Botnets using decentralised architecture are known as decentralised botnets. However, the term peer-to-peer botnet is also commonly used for this type of botnet. Decentralised botnets are more difficult to detect compared with centralised botnets. Figure 6 shows that no specific C&C server exists in decentralised architecture, and all bots act as the C&C server and the client at the same time (Dong, Wu, He, Huang, & Wu, 2008). Decentralised architecture is based on Peer-to-Peer (P2P) protocols. Compared with centralised architecture, the design of P2P architecture is more complex and detection of a botnet with the same architecture is more difficult than detection of other botnets. Message latency and survivability rate are higher than those of the centralised botnet architecture. Failure chances are lower in decentralised architecture than in centralised architecture because if a C&C server fails, then other C&C servers can manage and monitor the botnet (Cooke et al., 2005).

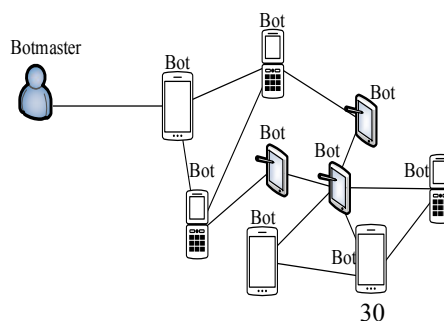


Figure 6. Decentralised architecture

Hybrid botnet architecture. Hybrid architecture is the combination of centralised and decentralised architecture as shown in Figure 7. Hybrid architecture comprises two types of bots, namely, the servant and the client. Bots are connected to the hybrid botnet as a client or a servant. Monitoring and detection of botnets with hybrid architecture is more difficult than detecting those with centralised and decentralised architecture. However, hybrid architecture is less complex in design.

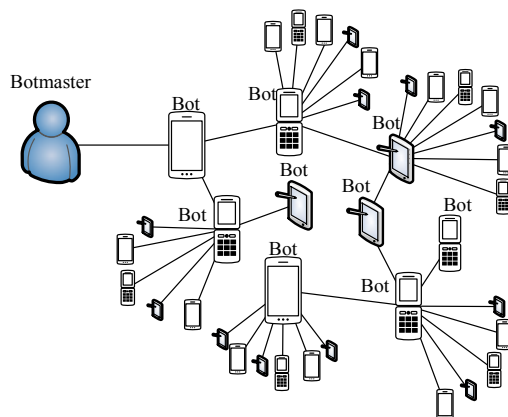


Figure 7. Hybrid architecture

Mobile Botnet Detection Techniques

The challenges faced in mobile-device security are quite similar to those faced in personal-computer security. To solve this problem, researchers have proposed and developed common desktop security solutions for smartphones. Some of the popular security solutions are listed below.

Kirin. Kirin security service is an OS-level protection service that provides enhanced security mechanisms for Android smartphone applications (Enck et al., 2009). This approach performs lightweight certification of applications to mitigate malware at installation time with modification of the Android applications installer. Kirin has different security rules; a well-known combination of permissions is the most important part in these rules. To define these security rules, a detailed understanding of malware and protection techniques is required; it is usually performed by security experts. Furthermore, it prevents access to sensitive information. However, once information enters the application, no additional mediation occurs.

Multi-Agent system. Szymczyk (2009) proposed the Multi-Agent Bot Detection System (MABDS) based on the hybrid approach. It is the combination of multiple agents such as administrative agent, user agent, a central knowledge database, system analysis, honeypots, agent collections and network analysis (Silva et al., 2013). In this technique, each agent observes traffic using different sensors by implementing the Markov chain model to perform dynamic risk assessment (Shameli, Cheriet, & Hamou-Lhadj, 2014). These systems in multifaceted, piercing, real-time domains involve autonomous agents that should act as a team to compete against malware (Castiglione, De Prisco, De Santis, Fiore, & Palmieri, 2014). The slow convergence of new signatures with the knowledge database is the key limitation of this technique. The new signature updates are another limitation of this system (Karim et al., 2014).

SAINT. SAINT (Ongtang, McLaughlin, Enck, & McDaniel, 2009) is a rule-based runtime approach for Android application security that defines application protection at runtime,

depending on the caller and permission constraints. It protects Android applications from one another by their policies during the installation time and runtime interaction. In this case, it allows an application to define which application can access its interfaces and how other applications use those interfaces. This technique has the same limitation as Kirin security services. To define these security rules, a detailed understanding of malware and protection techniques is required, and security experts are required to perform the job.

AASandbox. AASandbox was the first technique to perform both static and dynamic analysis of the Android applications and was proposed by Bläsing, Batyuk, Schmidt, Camtepe and Albayrak (2010). The static analysis scans the Android applications for malicious patterns without installation on the Android platform, while in the dynamic analysis, the Android application is executed in a fully isolated platform called sandbox. It also intervenes and logs low-level interaction with the system for further analysis during application execution. In contrast, both the detection algorithm and sandbox algorithm are implemented in the cloud. AASandbox uses a system called foot-printing approach for detecting suspicious Android applications. In its early days, when AASandbox was proposed, there were no known botnet malware samples available to evaluate this technique, although it seems to be unmaintained nowadays.

Paranoid. Considering various factors of smartphone technology including resources, storage, processing and memory, Paranoid Android malware detection technique was proposed for the first time in mobile technology (Portokalidis, Homburg, Anagnostakis, & Bos, 2010). Paranoid Android is a security model implemented on remote servers (cloud server) to observe the dynamic behaviour of Android applications and to detect zero-day attacks, system call anomaly and antivirus file scanning. Both Crowdroid and Paranoid Android incur a 15-30% overhead for smartphone devices. This particular technique records information that is necessary for application execution and transmits it to a cloud server over an encrypted channel. While a complete replica of the executing application is running parallel on the remote virtual machine, the server can detect the potential malware using this technique. Both the application and its replica are executing parallel to one another, which may cause a lot of space and time complexity. It also converts energy by using ‘loose synchronisation’, which may cause loss of battery power usage that specifically sends information when the mobile user is using the mobile device.

Crowdroid. Crowdroid is a dynamic approach based on the behaviour of Android applications and was proposed by Burguera, Zurutuza and Nadjm-Tehrani (2011). Crowdroid is a lightweight application available online on Google Play Store, which can be downloaded and installed on Android smartphone devices. It monitors and collects the API calls of apps that are running on mobile devices and sends them to a centralised server after preprocessing. With the application of cluster algorithms, Android applications can be evaluated with this approach. The given approach is also able to detect self-written malware.

DroidRanger. DroidRanger is the combination of two systems based on permissions' behaviour, foot-printing and heuristic-based filtering (Odili, Kahar, Anwar, & Ali, 2017). It was proposed by Zhou, Wang, Zhou and Jiang (2012). This technique applies both the static and dynamic approaches to detect malicious applications in existing Android markets. Permissions-based behaviour foot-printing is used for the detection of known malware, while heuristic-based filtering is used for unknown malware Android applications. Despite the advancements in the detection approaches applied by DroidRanger, the system has some limitations; it requires manual operation for analysing and collecting behaviour of Android applications (Babu Rajesh, Reddy, Himanshu, & Patil, 2015). Manual operation takes more time than other detection techniques (Odili & Kahar, 2015).

Bouncer. Bouncer was proposed in 2012 by Oberheide and Miller (2012). It provides static and dynamic scanning together with Android applications that are automatically performed on the server. Google Play Store uses this technique to scan an Android application before hitting the application market (Penning, Hoffman, Nikolai, & Wang, 2014). Bouncer has the potential to take newly-uploaded applications to the app market. If this application is able to send an SMS to the malicious sites or detect other criminal activities, it classifies that Android application as malware. If not, it classifies it as benign. However, in this advanced era, it seems that cyber attackers have found ways to bypass detection. This technique is better for those who download applications from Google Play Store, while those who download applications from third-party app stores are not protected by this technique.

RobotDroid. RobotDroid is an Android malware detection technique that is based on SVM machine learning classifier algorithm and was proposed by Zhao, Zhang, Ge and Yuan (2012). This technique focusses on the signature of the applications. It has the ability to detect unknown malware like Plankton, DroidDream and Gemini. This framework can be used only for these few types of malware; this is the main limitation of this framework.

DroidScope. DroidScope designed by Yan and Yin (2012) is a fine-grained dynamic binary instrumentation tool for Android. It rebuilds two levels of semantic information: OS and Java. It provides an instrumentation interface that can be used to write plug-ins. It implements API tracing, native instruction tracing, Dalvik instruction tracing and taint tracking plug-ins. DroidScope works entirely on the emulator level and requires no changes to the Android sources. It runs the analysis outside the smartphone software stack and can analyse kernel-level attacks. This system has a big drawback: not able to detect real-time attacks. The second drawback is that it does not cover the subtleties of real devices (Enck et al., 2014).

Table 4 shows the list of Android botnet detection techniques with respect to year, major contribution and limitations.

Table 4
List of Android Botnet detection techniques

| Ref | Techniques | Year | Architecture | Key Concept | Major Contribution | Limitation |
|---|--------------------|------|-------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Enck et al., 2009 | Kirin | 2009 | Static | Based on permissions | Used rules to detect malware in installation time | No access to sensitive information of application; Cannot detect new malware |
| Szymczy, 2009 | Multi-Agent System | 2009 | Hybrid | Based on permissions and rules | Used agent for traffic analysis | Slow interaction with the knowledge database |
| Ongtang et al., 2009 | SAINT | 2009 | Static/ Dynamic | Based on rules | Installation time detection of malware | No access to sensitive information of application; Cannot detect new malware |
| Bläsing et al., 2010 | AASandbox | 2010 | Static/ Dynamic/ Hybrid | Base on signatures and behaviour of the logs | Before instal detection of malware | NA |
| Portokalidis et al., 2010 | Paranoid Android | 2010 | Dynamic/ Hybrid | Based on behaviour | Dynamic analysis, memory scanners, system call anomaly detection | Consumption of more time, space and power |
| Burguera et al., 2011 | Crowdroid | 2011 | Dynamic | Based on behaviour | Client APK, behavioural detection | More clients, dynamic analyser |
| Zhou et al., 2012 | DroidRanger | 2012 | Static/ Dynamic | Permissions-based behaviour | Detection of known and unknown malware, 0-day malware detection | Only a few of all possible execution paths are negotiated within one analysis run |
| Oberheide & Miller, 2012 | Bouncer | 2012 | Static/ Dynamic | Permissions-based | Detection of unknown malware | Can be easily evaded by cybercriminals |
| Zhao et al., 2012 | Robotdroid | 2012 | Static | Signature-based | Detection of unknown malware such as Plankton, DroidDream, and Gemini | Detects only specific malware families such as Plankton, DroidDream and Gemini |
| Yan & Yin, 2012 | DroidScope | 2012 | Dynamic | | Dynamic binary instrumentation | Cannot detect real-time botnet attacks |
| Zhou et al., 2012 | DroidMOSS | 2012 | Dynamic | Permissions-based, | Fuzzy Hashing Technique, | Identifies only repackaged official Android market applications |
| Alparslan, Karahoca, & Karahoca, 2012 | Data Mining | 2012 | Static | Behaviour-based | utilise auditing programmes to extract and extend features | Cannot detect real-time botnet attacks |
| Faruki, Ganmoor, Laxmi, Gaur, & Bharmal, 2013 | AndroSimilar | 2013 | Static/ Dynamic | Statistical features | Improbable signature generation, thwarts obfuscation and repackaging | Limited malware DB, more false positives; Cannot detect new malware |
| Spreitzenbarth, Freiling, Ehtler, Schreck, & Hoffmann, 2013 | Mobile-Sandbox | 2013 | Static | Smali, emulator | Both static and dynamic analysis, obfuscation resistance, native API call track, web accessibility | More detection time |

Table 4 (continue)

| | | | | | | |
|--|-------------------------|------|--------------------|------------------------------|--|---|
| Rastogi, Chen, & Enck, 2013 | AppsPlayground | 2013 | Static/ Dynamic | N/A | he-based UI interaction based on contextual exploration | Cannot detect real-time botnet attacks |
| Reina, Fattori, & Cavallaro, 2013 | CopperDroid | 2013 | Dynamic | Behaviour-based approach | Automatically performs dynamic analysis, reconstructs behaviour of Android | Identifies only repackaged official Android market applications |
| Gascon, Yamaguchi, Arp, & Rieck, 2013 | Embedded call graph | 2013 | Dynamic | Function call graphs | Obfuscation resistance | Undecidability of static call graph construction; Cannot detect new malware |
| Abdelrahman, Gelenbe, Görbil, & Oklander, 2013 | NEMESYS | 2013 | Static | Model-based approach | Generate background traffic of network for simulating smaller set of users, learn Random Neural Network, | Limited to a small number of users, space complexity |
| Roshandel, Arabshahi, & Poovendran, 2013 | LIDAR | 2013 | Static/ Dynamic | Behaviour-based | automatically detects, analyses, protects, remediates | N/A |
| Moonsamy, Rong, & Liu, 2014 | Mini Permission Pattern | 2013 | Static/ Dynamic | Based on permission | 'Used' permission extraction, informative data from contrast permission patterns | Careful analysis of permissions, no repackaging resistance; Cannot detect new malware |
| Enck et al., 2014 | TaintDroid | 2014 | Static | Behaviour-based | Different APIs, specifically SMS APIs | It does not track implicit control flows due to performance overhead |
| Suarez-Tangil, Tapiador, Pens-Lopez, & Blasco, 2014 | Dendroid Approach | 2014 | Dynamic | Code Chunks | Unknown malware classification, fast and scalable, dendograms | No obfuscation resistance, large feature vectors; Cannot detect new malware |
| Dhaya & Poongodi, 2014 | N-gram analysis | 2014 | Static | N-gram CVSS | Produced N-grams signatures | No obfuscation resistance; Cannot detect new malware |
| Lindorfer, Neugschwandtner, Weichselbaum, Fratantonio, Van Der Veen, & Platzer, 2014 | Andrubis | 2014 | Static/ Dynamic | Based on behaviour and rules | Static and dynamic analysis on both Dalvik VM and System Level | Dynamic analysis consumes more space; Cannot be used for latest Android applications |
| Andronio, Zanero, & Maggi, 2015 | Heldroid | 2015 | Static/ Dynamic | Behaviour-based | Static and dynamic analysis | Portability, internationalisation and evasion |

DroidMoss. Zhou et al. (2012) proposed DroidMoss in 2012, using the fuzzy hashing technique to effectively localise and detect repackaged and injected applications. This technique detects Android applications in the existing mobile app market that are injected with malicious codes using the repackaging technique. The main feature of the applications used in this technique is the Dalvik opcodes. DroidMOSS calculates fuzzy hashes on each N sequential opcode,

which then applies a measure function on the two applications to realise their similarity quantitatively. The use of DroidMOSS is limited to identifying repackaged official Android market applications.

Data mining. The hardest part of the detection of malicious traffic is to differentiate C&C data flow from normal data flow behaviour. To overcome this limitation, data mining techniques are used to recognise the pattern by extracting the unexpected network patterns (Alparslan et al., 2012). Data mining is the most used machine learning device method for classification, prediction, regression and inference. This technique is extensively used in anomaly detection, especially in establishing generic and heuristic methods (Odili, Kahar, & Noraziah, 2016; Schultz, Eskin, Zadok, & Stolfo, 2001). Data mining approaches detect structures in a wide range of data, such as byte code, and use these structures to detect upcoming malicious occurrences in related data. Researchers such as Gu, Perdisci, Zhang and Lee (2008), Gu, Porras, Yegneswaran, Fong and Lee (2007), Gu, Zhang and Lee (2008), Wang, Huang, Lin and Lin (2011) and Yu, Dong, Yu, Qin, Yue and Zhao (2010) proposed BotMiner, BotHunter, BotSniffer and behaviour-based botnet detection systems based on the data-mining approach. This technique is very effective though it has some limitation as well. In experiments, BotMiner and BotHunter have been able to achieve 99% success rate with 1% false alarm and 99.2% success rate with 0.8% false alarm, respectively (Zhao et al., 2013).

AndroSimilar. AndroSimilar (Faruki et al., 2013) detects Android malware regions of statistical similarity starting from the .dex file. This method employs the similarity digest hashing system on byte-stream-based robust statistical malicious features. Similarly, a digest hashing scheme uses this feature to generate a list of signatures for this app. Here, the feature values between 100 and 990 are selected and the rest are discarded using the Bloom filter. A set of malicious signatures are generated and thus, a database of signatures is created. For testing a sample app, its signature is created in the same way as described above and is matched against a signature database and is considered malware if the similarity score crosses 35% (Sharma et al., 2016). Authors obtain an accuracy of 72.27% using a dataset of 101 malicious applications. Androsimilar performs at file level as an alternative for codes in decompiling; therefore, control of shared library is not protected. Also, porting the approach to constrained memory and a strong database remains a concern.

Mobile-SandBox. Mobile-SandBox is a static and dynamic analysis system that is publicly available. It was proposed by Spreitzenbarth, Schreck, Echtler, Arp and Hoffmann (2015). In this technique, the comparison of applications occurs in different stages: first, it compares the hash value with the Virustotal database of the running application; second, it extracts the manifest file for permissions, background services, broadcast receivers and intents. This technique also extracts API calls from the Dalvik bytecode; this happens frequently in botnets. Mobile-SandBox makes it very easy to submit applications for static and dynamic analysis because of its user interface. A user can easily upload an application for static and dynamic analysis to the Mobile-SandBox by using the user interface. However, in some aspects, Mobile-SandBox seems unable to cope with the submission load.

AppsPlayground. AppsPlayground, based on TaintDroid, is a scalable dynamic analysis system that is used for detection of possible data leaks (Skovoroda & Gamayunov, 2015). Proposed by Rastogi, Chen and Enck (2013), it employs a Javaapp that connects to an emulator running a modified version of the OS and governs app behaviour exploration logic. Simply, the aim of AppsPlayground is to improve the stimulation of apps during dynamic analysis because it also detects dangerous API calls.

This technique also helps to create a more realistic analysis environment. It tries to drive the app along paths that are likely to reveal interesting behaviour through targeted stimulation of UI elements. This approach can be seen as an intelligent enhancement of the Application Exerciser Monkey and the custom stimulation of activity screens. This technique is largely orthogonal, as it focusses on stimulating broadcast receivers, services and common events instead of UI elements. Its main contribution is a heuristic-based intelligent black box (Monkey Exerciser-like) execution approach to explore the app's GUI (Odili, Kahar, Anwar, & Azrag, 2015). This technique can be more useful if combined with the static analysis technique.

CopperDroid. CopperDroid is a dynamic detection system presented by Reina, Fattori and Cavallaro (2013) that is built on top of the quick emulator (QEMU). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first technique that performs system call monitors of the Android applications out-of-the-box through virtual machine introspection (VMI) by reconstructing Dalvik behaviour and monitoring Binder communication (Lindorfer et al., 2014). CopperDroid carried the binder analysis to perform the reconstruction of high level Android-specific behaviour. It is available to the public as a web application that users can use to submit samples.

Embedded call graphs. Embedded call graphs is a static approach proposed by Gascon Yamaguchi, Arp and Reick (2013) in 2013. This technique can be used to find similarities between samples: first, it extracts function call graphs and then employs explicit mapping through kernel graphs from map call graphs to-feature-space. Sharma, Chawla and Gajrani (2016) showed that time and space complexity are high and large, respectively. Its key concept is functions call graphs, while obfuscation resistance is the major contribution. Embedded call graphs specially observe assembly-level analysis and support vector-machine implementation. The main disadvantage of this technique is that it cannot decide the static call graph construction.

NEMESYS. NEMESYS is a network model-based security solution that combines learning and modelling for detection of anomalies and attacks in mobile network. It deals with every mobile connection during communication between devices in a network. The motivation behind this approach was the difference between the number of mobile users who are monitored and dealt with in real time. Furthermore, a clear and understandable approach was needed to deal with every unique call. The second consideration in constructing this approach was the computational tools that were developed for anomaly detection that were based on mathematical models. However, NEMESYS has some limitations. For instance, it is limited to a small number of users. Also, this approach is complex and it uses a huge amount of memory.

Layered intrusion detection and remediation. The Layered Intrusion Detection and Remediation (LIDAR) framework focusses on automatic detection, analysis, protection and remediation of security threats. This framework is specially designed to detect intrusion in a multi-dimensional mode that is of network dimension, application dimension and social dimension (Roshandel, Arabshahi, & Poovendran, 2013). This approach contains both local and remote analyses, which causes some drawbacks. For instance, a set of local analyses is performed in the mobile device to detect malware and intrusion, leading to the use of more battery power in addition to time consumption and space complexity, among other issues.

TaintDroid. TaintDroid is a system-wide dynamic taint tracking and analysis system for simultaneous tracking of multiple sources of sensitive data. This technique monitors methods, variables, files and messages during application execution according to data flow (Suarez-Tangil et al., 2014). TaintDroid uses tag chunks to keep track of data in order to find information leakage at runtime. Information flow tracking needs lots of memory. None of these schemes is energy-efficient; hence, they are not suitable for resource-constrained mobile platforms.

Dendroid approach. The dendroid approach is based on text mining and information retrieval techniques (Suarez-Tangil et al., 2014). This technique extracts code chunks (CC) to analyse and classify the code structures in Android malware families. The authors present a simple way to measure the similarity between malicious applications by formulating the modelling process. In the experiments performed, more than 33 families with 1249 malware applications (Sharma et al., 2016) were detected. This approach also provided automatic classification of zero-day malware samples, which is based on the applications-code structure. With respect to time and accuracy, this technique is very fast and accurate, with high scalability. However, this technique features vector growth and new families create issues, while the strategies of obfuscation are not implemented.

N-gram. The N-gram [12] analysis is a probabilistic approach to detect the presence of malware. Reverse engineering tools like DexToJar, Java Decompiler-Graphical User Interface (JD-GUI) and ApkTool are used in this technique to convert executable to source code (high level or low-level language), thereby creating the training dataset. After this, the source code is considered as N-gram signatures. This N-gram model is a popular machine-learning algorithm and it is a type of probabilistic language that predicts the next item in the sequence with given datasets of order (N-1) as in the Markov Model. These signatures are then stored in a Comma Separated Values (CSV) file for the reason that signatures occupy a lot of space.

After this, a Common Vulnerability Scoring System (CVSS) is used to assess the vulnerabilities' severity level in software applications. It is a freeware tool. By applying this tool on the APK file under test, the description of all the vulnerabilities and solutions to mitigate the same is appended to the CSV file. It makes intuitive use of the N-gram machine-learning algorithm to analyse the Android apps. Limitations include the obfuscation techniques not being implemented.

Andrubis. Andrubis is a cloud-based malware detection technique proposed by Lindorfer et al. (2014). This technique combines both static and dynamic analyses on both Dalvik VM and the system level. First, it performs the static analysis by extracting the information including broadcast receivers, requested permissions, activities, services, SDK version and package name from the application manifest and its bytecode. Andrubis uses the modified DroidBox output to generate XML files that contain the analysed results. In the dynamic stage, it executes the application in a complete Android environment; during the execution its action is monitored at both the Dalvik and the system level. Other than this, Andrubis provides a web interface for users to submit Android applications and, so far, it has collected a dataset of over one million Android applications, 40% of which are malware. The only disadvantage of this technique is that it cannot track native codes. API calls that frequently happen in botnet are extracted from the Dalvik code, while the Andrubis is limited to the application's API level 8.

HELDROID. HELDROID is a fully automated behaviour-based approach to recognise known and unknown ransomware and scareware (Andronio et al., 2015). This approach analyses the Android application statically and dynamically as well. By using the static taint analysis approach, it analyses the function calls flow. Its result is more accurate when compared to those of previous apps. Still, it has some limitations. Although they focus on the mobile case, the results shown are far from being accurate. Ransomware is a general problem, but in this approach, it is limited to mobile devices only. HELDROID is based on sentence structure; this needs internationalisation.

CHALLENGES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

In this section, we discuss the challenges and future directions based on the findings of our study. Research into Android botnets is still in its initial stages. Therefore, sufficient opportunity exists for the betterment of detection and prevention of botnet attacks. The following challenges will help the researchers, academics and industry players to enhance this field.

Hybrid Approach Towards Android Botnet Detection

There is no way to ignore the rising security threats to mobile devices at this time. Researchers and industry players have proposed different botnet detection techniques. Practically, most of the existing Android botnet detections are either static or dynamic, and can detect known and unknown Android botnets. As can be seen in Table 2, few of the existing detection techniques based on the hybrid approach have a low detection rate and maximum false-alarm rate. This is a disturbing discovery.

Limitation of Mobile Devices

Personal computers are considered a more suitable platform for botnet attacks compared with mobile devices. Mobile devices have certain limitations, such as limited power storage, limited memory storage, limited Internet access and resource constraints. They attract

cybercriminals because of the open environment they operate in as well as their availability, Internet connectivity and storage capacity.

Existing Android botnet detection techniques are based on the estatic and dynamic approaches. These require heavy battery consumption, which is the most crucial challenge in protecting mobile devices (Ali, Zain, Zolkipli, & Badshah, 2014). Furthermore, the dynamic approach of scanning and blocking malicious codes needs a runtime environment. This is a big issue for mobile devices due to their limited battery power.

Internet Service Providers Should Also Provide Security Measurements

One of the biggest challenges for Internet Service Providers (ISP) is to protect mobile device users from the botnet threats as they do not use static addresses. Mobile device users are continuously changing their location; this creates difficulties for ISPs.

Difficulties in Estimating Botnet Size

It is very difficult to estimate the botnet size. To the best of our knowledge, there is no technique that estimates the size of compromised bots in a botnet. With rapid developments in detecting botnet attacks in Android devices, researchers need to find a quantitative methodology to find the number of bots in a botnet (Odili & Kahar, 2016).

CONCLUSION

Android botnets are harmful to Android devices. The popularity of mobile devices has made it a soft target for potential attacks. This survey aimed to find the real threat behind Android botnets. We conducted a comprehensive survey of existing Android botnets and their detection techniques. We categorised the detection techniques according to their detection environment, such as static, dynamic and hybrid detection techniques. Limitations in the existing Android botnet detection techniques as well as their benefits are listed here in an organised way. To the best of our knowledge this is the most current organised survey on Android botnets and their detection techniques. This research will help both academics and industry players.

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