Neighborhood watch for Internet Routing: Can we improve the robustness of Internet Routing today?

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Abstract-Protecting BGP routing from errors and malice is one of the next big challenges for Internet routing. Several approaches have been proposed that attempt to capture and block routing anomalies in a proactive way. In practice, the difficulty of deploying such approaches limits their usefulness. We take a different approach: we start by requiring a solution that can be easily implemented now. With this goal in mind, we consider ourselves situated at an AS, and ask the question: how can I detect erroneous or even suspicious routing behavior? We respond by developing a systematic methodology and a tool to identify such updates by utilizing existing public and local information. Specifically, we process and use the allocation records from the Regional Internet Registries (RIR), the local policy of the AS, and records used to generate filters from Internet Routing Registries (IRR). Using our approach, we can automatically detect routing leaks. Additionally, we identify some simple organizational and procedural issues that would significantly improve the usefulness of the information of the registries. Finally, we propose an initial set of rules with which an ISP can react to routing problems in a way that is systematic, and thus, could be automated.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Border Gateway protocol (BGP) [27] sits at the heart of Internet routing, and is inevitably facing many security and robustness problems. The first problem is the unauthorized advertisement of IP prefixes. For example, in 1997, AS7007 [20] de-aggregated and advertised a large portion of the Internet, attracting traffic away from its rightful owners, thus creating a 'black-hole' for Internet traffic. The second type of problem is the use of illegitimate paths [23]. The traffic is going to the right destination but over the wrong path. In this paper, we focus on the first problem. These problems can appear either because of malice or human error, to which BGP is especially vulnerable [19]. Part of the problem is that configuring the routers is complicated, the available tools are usually lowlevel with no static correctness checking, and no immediate feedback control on possible errors. As a result, it is difficult to predict what will happen with a configuration change [10] and trial-and-error is often used.

BGP has evolved in an incremental way [13][30][7][11] and has partially addressed some of these security requirements. But, there is a need for more security [22][21][8]. Several *proactive* approaches have been proposed [18], [17][15][12][14][29][31][25][16], and IETF has a established a working group [3] to investigate and recommend routing security requirements. The most well-known and advanced approaches are S-BGP [18][17] proposed by BBN, and SoBGP [15] proposed by CISCO.

The current proactive proposals have several problems.

First, most of the solutions require significant changes in the routing protocol. Second, many solutions are computationally intensive requiring significant processing and resources at the router, which many current routers may not be able to provide [17]. Third, many approaches require additional global infrastructure such as certification authorities. Fourth, these solutions have limited usefulness when partially deployed [6]. Thus, the benefit of the first deployments is minimal, and no one is willing to make the start. Fifth, ISPs are commercial entities that are driven by profitability and customer demand, and proactive solutions can be quite expensive to deploy. Last, but not least, many proposals focus more on the technical and engineering aspects, and less on the usability and user friendliness. However, network operators are reluctant to adopt complex and difficult to manage solutions.

In this paper, we evaluate a reactive based framework that can be used to detect unauthorized advertisements of IP prefixes. The goal is to raise flags that a network administrator can further investigate. For our framework, we revisit the use of the Internet registries. There exist two different kind of registries. The Regional Internet Registries (RIR) contain the allocations of IP addresses and AS numbers. The Internet Routing Registries (IRR) contain the policies of the ISPs. The RIR registries are used for accounting and administration practices, while the IRR are used for decentralized filter generation and debugging of routing problems. It is widely believed that these registries can not be trusted to contain fresh and valid data, mainly based on empirical evidence. In this paper, we show that even though the status of the data is not the desirable, we get a very satisfactory result. We analyze a time period of 13 days and found the number of suspicious updates to be quite small, usually less than 1 to 3 per hour. This simply means that a network administrator will need to investigate less than 1 to 3 events per hour, something that is certainly feasible. Additionally, we analyze a real incident of a large routing leak and analyze how ISPs react. We show that many ISPs are quite unprepared and slow to respond to route leaks. It took ISPs over one hour to respond and erroneous updates were circulating 6 days later. Furthermore, the above validation tasks can be performed by a single AS or several cooperating ASes in a distributed way. These ASes could form a group of trust, exchange information, and look out for violations of each other policies, in a similar fashion as the Neighborhood Watch program in real life. The motto for the Neighborhood Watch program is "We look out for each other" and this can also be applied in the Internet case.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows. In section II

we present some definitions and background work. In section III, we describe our framework. In section IV, we examine our framework with real data. In section V, we present the profile of a major routing leak. In section VI we discuss the necessary steps to make our approach even more effective. In section VII we present our conclusions.

II. BACKGROUND AND PREVIOUS WORK

In this section, we briefly describe an overview of Internet routing and the Internet registries.

A. Internet and BGP-4

The Internet is structured into a number of routing domains that have independent administrations, called **Autonomous Systems (AS)**. Each autonomous system is identified by a number, **asn**, which is assigned to it by an Internet registry. An Autonomous System uses an intra-domain routing protocol, like OSPF or IS-IS, inside its domain, and an interdomain protocol to exchange routing information with other Autonomous Systems. The defacto standard for inter-domain routing is **BGP-4** [27]. The primary difference between the intra-domain and the inter-domain protocol is that the first one is optimized for performance, solely based on operational requirements, while the second is used to enforce the **policy** of the Autonomous System, which corresponds to the **business relations** with its neighboring ASes.

An Autonomous System given its policy, will advertise to its neighbors a list of **IP Prefixes** that are reachable through it. Each route is tagged with a number of **attributes**. The most important attribute is the **AS_PATH**. The AS_PATH is the list of ASes that packets towards that route will traverse. An AS uses **filters** to describe what it will import from and export to a neighboring AS. The filter can include a list of prefixes, a list of regular expressions on the AS_PATH, a list of BGP communities, or any possible combination of these three.

B. Resource Allocations: Regional Internet Registries(RIR)

Administrative procedures are necessary to ensure the uniqueness of IP addresses and Autonomous System numbers. The registration process is coordinated by the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority IANA. The registration is happening in a hierarchical fashion, in which IANA allocates parts of the Internet address space to regional Internet registries **RIR**. Currently, there are four RIR established¹. **ARIN** serving North America, a portion of the Caribbean, and sub-equatorial Africa. RIPE is serving Europe, the Middle East, Central Asia and African countries north of the equator. APNIC is serving the Asian Pacific region and LACNIC is serving the south America. RIR subsequently allocate IP space to National IR NIR or directly to Local IRs LIR usually large ISPs, which in their turn allocate resources to the end users, corporations and other ISPs. The community supports the RIR by paying annual fees based on how many resources they consume. For example

// RPSL Format	t
inetnum:	213.68.0.0 - 213.71.255.255
status:	ALLOCATED PA
mnt-by:	RIPE-NCC-HM-MNT
mnt-lower:	UUNETDE-I
mnt-routes:	AS1270-MNT
inetnum: status: mnt-by:	213.70.90.80 - 213.70.90.95 ASSIGNED PA UUNETDE-I
//SWIP Format	
NetHandle:	NET-216-160-0-0-1
OrgID:	USW
NetRange:	216.160.0.0 - 216.161.255.255
NetType:	allocation
TechHandle:	ZU24-ARIN

Fig. 1. Example of (partial) Prefix Allocation records for RPSL and SWIP.

for RIPE, the annual fee for an extra small organization is $\in 1,750$, while for an extra large organization the fee is $\in 6,500$.

The LIR and the end users of the IP allocations are required to utilize the address space in an efficient manner. They need to maintain detailed documentation to justify every assignment of resources. For example, in ARIN region, an ISP should have documented every assignment that contain eight or more addresses. The RIR may, at any time, ask for this information. If the information is not available, future allocations may be impacted or current allocations may be taken back. The basic criteria that should be met to receive prefixes are a 25%immediate utilization rate and a 50% utilization rate within 1 year. Additionally, in order to request a new allocation, an ISP must show at least 80% utilization of its current allocation. The assignments within an allocation are checked routinely for correctness when a LIR requests for a new allocation. For example, RIPE will make 3 random checks of assignments and will ask documentation to evaluate them.

The previous part describes the current procedures for allocation of IP space. Internet has evolved in both the IP address architecture and the administrative procedures used. First, Internet moved from a classful address to a classless address architecture. During this first period resources were allocated using classes and were provided very liberally to organizations with minimum requirements. They used five classes. In a class A allocation, the first 8 bits were used to identify the network, while the remaining 24 to identify the end host. A number of organizations have selfishly maintained these allocations. We refer to these allocations as LEGACY. In a class B and C allocation, the first 16 and 24 bits identify the network while the last 16 and 8 bits the host. We refer to these early allocations as ERX-RIR. The remaining two classes were used for multicasting and for experimental use, and we don't use them in our analysis. Note that for both LEGACY and ERX-RIR, we refer to them as separate RIR even though technically they are not. The reason is that even if these records physically exist in the RIR registries, the RIR have no authority on these records.

The RIR use a number of different formats to register the allocation records. RIPE and APNIC use **Routing Policy Specification Language (RPSL)** [5] [9], while ARIN uses

¹A new RIR, Afrinic, was officially established in 2005 and is responsible for parts of Africa. In the time period we examined, the records that are now part of Afrinic were part of either RIPE or ARIN.

as-set:	AS-5
members:	AS5, AS5:AS-CUSTOMERS
mnt-by:	AS5-MNT
as-set:	AS5:AS-CUSTOMERS
members:	AS2
mnt-by:	AS5-MNT
route:	199.237.0.0/16
origin:	AS5
mnt-by:	AS5-MNT

Fig. 2. Example of (partial) policy records of an AS.

SWIP [26], and LACNIC use a mix of RPSL and SWIP. The NIR that exist in the APNIC region seem to use an RPSL based format. In Figure 1, we have an example of allocation records for prefixes in both RPSL and SWIP. Note that these are partial records. The first is the allocation record for 213.68.0.0/14. Note that the maintainer of the record is a RIPE maintainer and that it allows maintainer UUNETDE-I, to register further assignments. An example of such an assignment is 213.70.90.80/28. For the SWIP case, we have the OrgID attribute that can help us find the hierarchy in assignments and the correlation with the AS numbers.

RIR Dataset: For our analysis, we use the registries of December 28, 2004. The registries contain 3,417,553 prefix allocations and 31,105 AS number allocations and 2,277,091 technical personnel contacts. Note that in addition we analyze the registries of January 09, 2005 to capture the change in the registration records in that time period². We should stress here that our evaluation is based on public data³.

C. Routing Policy: Internet Routing Registries(IRR)

The need for cooperation between Autonomous Systems is fulfilled today by the Internet Routing Registries (**IRR**) [1]. The main uses of the IRR registries are to provide an easy way for consistent configuration of filters, and a method to facilitate the debugging of Internet routing problems. ASes use the RPSL to describe their routing policy. At present, there exist 70 registries, which form a global database to obtain a view of the global routing policy. Some of these registries are regional, like RIPE or APNIC⁴, other registries describe the policies of an Autonomous System and its customers, for example, cable and wireless CW or LEVEL3.

The design goal of RPSL is twofold. First, RPSL provides a standard, vendor independent language, so that the policy of an AS can be published in an easy to understand format. Second, RPSL provides high level structures for a more convenient and compact policy specification. There exist 12 different types of records that either describe portion of a policy, or describe

Alg	orithm 1 validate_originAS(prefix, asn)
1:	$inetnums \leftarrow find_prefix_allocations(prefix)$
2:	$routes \leftarrow find_routes_with_origin(prefix, asn)$
3:	for <i>inetnum</i> in <i>inetnums</i> do
4:	$org_inetnum \leftarrow find_prefix_organization(inetnum)$
5:	for <i>route</i> in <i>routes</i> do
6:	$org_route \leftarrow find_route_organization(route)$
7:	if org_inetnum == org_route then
8:	return strongly validated
9:	for <i>inetnum</i> in <i>inetnums</i> do
10:	$org_inetnum \leftarrow find_prefix_organization(inetnum)$
11:	$org_ases \leftarrow find_organization_ases(org_inetnum)$
12:	if asn in org_ases then
13:	return strongly validated
14:	if routes not empty then
15:	return weakly validated
16:	return not validated

who is administering this policy. In Figure 2, we have an example of partial policy RPSL records for an Autonomous System. The **route** class is used to register the IP prefixes an AS can originate. The **as-set** and **route-set** classes are high level structures that can be used to group prefixes. For example an AS can create an as-set that will contain the prefixes of its customers. Finally, the aut-num class contains the import and the export policies for every neighbor of the AS. Note that every class has a mnt-by attribute that specifies the maintainer of the record. This is done for security reasons so that only the maintainer can update that record.

In our previous work [28], we have developed a methodology to analyze the registered policy. Our tool Nemecis can solve problems such as merging multiple registries and cleaning the registered policy. Additionally, we can reverse engineer the policy of an Autonomous System, check for possible errors and find the correlation between the import and export rules. This way we can check the consistency of the registered policies.

III. FRAMEWORK FOR VALIDATING ORIGIN AS

In this section, we present our framework and show how we can validate the origin AS of a BGP announcement.

Data for origin Validation: For the origin AS validation, we use mainly the allocation records of RIR. Our framework uses the fact that RIR allocate to an organization prefixes and AS numbers independently. Thus, any AS number that an organization handles can be the origin AS of the prefixes it administers. Note that using the route record, an organization can identify which of these ASes can be the actual origin AS.

A. Origin AS Validation

We try to find the following: Given the prefix I and the corresponding path $P = [a_1, ..., a_{i-1}, a_i]$, check that a_i can be the origin of I. The main algorithm is Algorithm 1. First, in lines 1 and 2, we find all records that contain the prefix both for the allocation records and route records that register the AS as the origin AS. Next, in lines 3 to 8, we check if a prefix allocation record and a route record are maintained

 $^{^2 \}rm With$ the exception of ARIN, since we were given access only to the December 28, 2004 records

³ARIN and LACNIC require an AUP agreement prior to providing access to their bulk whois data.

⁴Note that both RIPE and APNIC have a single registry for both allocation records and policy records. ARIN, maintains a separate registry for the policy but is not widely used and LACNIC maintains no registry for policy.

by the same organisation. This works mainly for the RIPE and APNIC registries, because ARIN has a very small IRR registry and LACNIC has none⁵. Next, in lines 9 to 13, we check if we can find that the origin AS and the prefix are part of the same organization. The first two cases are **strongly** validated, because the information to correlate the prefix and the origin are maintained by the same organization and are tied to the allocation records (RIR). If we can not find the necessary information using the RIR records, we will use the route records in IRR. These cases are **weakly** validated, because any AS can register that it is the origin of the prefix. We run the algorithm for both a_i and a_{i-1} in the case the a_i can not be strongly validated. We check both ASes inorder to capture cases where the provider has the prefix allocations but the prefixes are used by its customer.

Depending on the goal we want to achieve, there can be many different modes of operation for the origin AS validation. For example, if we want to detect malicious users, then the validation should only use the strongly validated cases. A malicious user can simply register a new route object in one of the IRR registries and thus avoid detection. In this paper, we focus more on how to detect misconfigurations and human errors, and thus we can use more relaxed criteria.

In this spirit, we also use a number of empirically derived rules for the validation. We refer to them as **empirical rules**, and we group them in two categories. In the first category, we use common information between already validated (origin AS, prefix) tuples and tuples we want to validate. In the second category, we use the references to technical personnel to correlate between prefixes and AS numbers. Regarding the first category, we can validate an origin tuple if we have validated a less specific prefix with the same origin AS. Additionally, if a validated tuple and a non-validated share the same DNS server and the same origin AS, then we can also validate the tuple. Regarding the second category, if we have the same technical contact for a prefix allocation and an AS number then the origin tuple is valid. Additionally, if, given the contact information associated with the prefix allocation and the AS number, the email server is the same, the origin tuple is considered valid. For the remaining cases, if we don't have conflicting data we assume that the origin tuple is valid. The conflict arises if we have another prefix that includes or is including the prefix we examine, and has a different origin AS. In our evaluation we didn't find an empirical rule that we use much more frequently than the others.

In later sections, we use the term **origin tuple** to refer to the (origin AS, prefix) tuple, and we refer to the tuples that we can not validate as **flags**.

IV. BGP VALIDATION

In this section, we evaluate the origin AS validation. We first analyze how well the validation works, and then we investigate

TABLE I Route Collectors **Data Summary**

Collector	rrc03	rv2	rrc06
Peers(AS/Total)	79/108	34/40	6/6
Routing Table	2,887,967	5,739,807	153, 491
Updates	36,658,783	72,549,959	2, 558, 233

TABLE II ROUTE COLLECTORS ORIGIN VALIDATION SUMMARY

Collector	rrc03	rv2	rrc06
Unique (Prefix,AS)	164, 152	177,507	158,498
Number of Flags	6,008	6,109	6,039
Percentage of Flags	3.6%	3.4%	3.8%

how a reactive scheme works.

For our evaluation, we analyze the BGP routing tables and updates during the 13-day period⁶, starting at December 28 2004. We analyze three collectors, rv2(routeviews2) [24] in North America (USA), rrc03 [2] in Europe (Holland), and rrc06 [2] in Asia (Japan). In table I, we have a summary of the routing collectors. The largest in terms of peers is rrc03 with 79 AS peers and 108 peerings. RV2 is the largest in terms of routing entries and the number of updates it received. The rrc06 collector is much smaller than the previous two, but we analyze it for geographical diversity.

A. Origin AS validation

The first validation is to check whether the origin AS is authorized to advertise the prefix associated with the path. We examine all unique origin tuples, i.e. (prefix, origin AS), found in a collector. We find the origin tuples by analyzing both the routing table, which is our starting point, and the BGP updates that the collector received during the 13 days period. In table II, we show the number of unique origin tuples and the percentage of origin tuples that raised a flag in our approach. For rrc03 we have 6,008 flags out of the total 164,152 origin tuples. The percentage of flags is 3.6% for rrc03, 3.4% for rv2 and 3.8% for rrc06. This result is both positive and negative. On the positive side, we have over 158,000 origin tuples that can be validated. On the negative side, the allocation records should be accurate. In the next part, we examine in more detail how we validate the origin tuples and analyze the flags per RIR and per origin AS. Due to space limitation, our analysis focuses on the rrc03 collector.

Examining prefixes per RIR: We start by classifying every prefix, found in the origin tuples, according to its RIR. We have 64, 272 prefixes from the ARIN region, 29, 071 from RIPE, 29, 242 from APNIC, 7, 483 from LACNIC, 29, 661 from ERX-RIR and 4, 423 from LEGACY. Note that old allocations, ERX-RIR and LEGACY, have a significant number of prefixes.

ARIN and ERX-RIR have significant contribution in the number of flags. In Figure 3, we have the number of flags

⁵Note that the route records are part of an IRR registry. The difference between an IRR registry that is run by a RIR is that there exist consistency checks so that an organization can register a route record only if it is authorized via the allocation record.

⁶Our evaluation is limited to 13 days due to limited access to ARIN's data.



Fig. 3. Unique (Prefix, AS) origin tuples that can not be validated per RIR.

per RIR. We have 3,000 flags for ARIN but only 232 flags for RIPE. The contribution of ARIN and ERX-RIR, is significantly larger than the contribution of the others. In table III, first, we have the percentage of flags compared to the total number of origin tuples for every RIR. For ARIN we have 4.7%, which is an order of magnitude larger compared to RIPE, APNIC and LACNIC. Additionally, the old allocations have a comparably high percentage of flags with 5.7% for ERX-RIR and 8.7% for the LEGACY IP space. Second, we have the percentage of contribution for the total number of flags. 50% of the flags are from ARIN while 28% are from ERX-RIR. These results reveal that potentially there exists a problem with the ARIN registry and with old allocations.

RIPE is the best maintained RIR. In Figure 4, we analyze the different RIR by examining how we validate the origin tuples. As we describe in section III, we have three categories, the strongly validated, the weakly validated and the empirical rules. The best overall RIR is RIPE where most of the origin tuples can be validated in a strong way. A surprising result is that APNIC is not performing as well as RIPE even though they use the same registry format. If we compute the percentages, we have that 73% are strongly validated for RIPE but only 40% for APNIC, while we have 51% for ARIN and 61% for LACNIC. In APNIC, we can validate more origin tuples using route records than allocation records. One possible explanation for this poor performance is the existence of national registries(NIR) within the APNIC region. We will talk in more details about this problem in section VI.

Examining flags per origin AS: Next, we look for patterns of flags by correlating the flags by the origin AS. In Figure 5, we plot the flags for an AS versus the total prefixes this AS originates. As we see from the figure, we have flags both from ASes that originate a small number of prefixes and from ASes with a large number of prefixes. This shows that there are no implicit patterns. For example, we don't have the case that only large ASes generate flags. Thus we need our system, since we can not focus only on a few ASes.

US administered ASes are the main source of flags. Next, in Figure 6, we find for every origin AS that creates a flag, the



Fig. 5. Distribution of number of unvalidated prefixes an AS originates.

country of registration. The vast majority of ASes that create flags are caused by US administered ASes. Note that this holds across administration areas. For example, most of the flags within the RIPE region are caused by US administered ASes. Another interesting point here is that the second column is for ASes from Turkey. Most of these flags are due to a single AS that advertised erroneous prefixes from all RIR areas. This is the known event of AS9121 [4] which advertised over 100,000 prefixes to its peers. What is not known is that even though the event happened in December 24 2004 and believed to have lasted for a day, we could see its effect on December 28 and for at least two more days for a small number of prefixes. We will examine that event in section V. The fourth spot, Unknown, is for ASes that we could find no allocation records in any RIR region.

B. Reactive origin AS Validation

We will consider a fictitious case where we would like to validate events as they arrive. We would only need to check unique events, which then we could cache and remember. With our system, we assume that we will only need to check the flagged events, thus our scheme can act as an administrator advisor. We find that usually one would need to check no more than one flag per hour.

We start with the origin tuples found in the routing table of December 28, 2004. We take these tuples as given, and we examine the updates for the next 13 days. We try to validate every unique origin tuple that we see for the first time, which we refer to as **event**.

Caching alone does not help much. How many new events do we see over time? If we keep seeing the same updates the need for our tool may be limited. Simple caching of legitimate events would eventually ensure that we only accept good updates. In Figure 7, we plot the number of unique events and the corresponding events that caused a flag versus the 13 days



Fig. 7. The evolution of unique (prefix, origin AS) origin tuples

of observation, we aggregated the time in intervals of one hour for visualization purposes. We find that it is not uncommon to have a large number of events like over 100 events per hour, and it can go as high as 500 events⁷. Additionally, we don't find any reduction in the number of events as time progresses. This shows that a scheme that is solely based on history to validate the prefixes would not help in practice, since there are too many new origin tuples to validate. When we use the information stored in RIR, thus find the flags, we see that we have much fewer events to investigate.

We usually have 0 to 3 flags per hour. We examine in more detail the flags per hour. In Figure 8 we plot the Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) for the unique events and events that caused flags for all three collectors. Note that the x axis is in log scale. As we can see the total events for the three collectors follow the same pattern, and the rrc03 and rv2 collectors have an almost identical distribution. We have a 50% probability to have more than 10 events per hour, and a 10% probability to have over 40. On the other hand for the flags, the probability to have equal or less than 0 and 1 flags in an hour for rrc03 is 51% and 70% respectively. The probability of having less or equal than 3 flags in an hour is 88%. Additionally, we have a maximum of 48 flags per hour. This can be potentially a problem, but we will show that the flags are not independent of each other and thus we can minimize even further the cases that need to be investigated.

AS-based correlation of events and flags. In Figure 9, we plot the number of total events and flags aggregated in intervals of one hour and grouped by the origin AS within that interval. This means that if for example AS1 was the origin AS for three flags during a time period of one hour, we have only one AS-based flag and not three. The reason we do this is



Fig. 8. CDF of unique events and flags per hour for various collectors.



Fig. 9. CDF of unique events and flags per hour grouped by the origin AS for various collectors.

that usually these flags are correlated to one incident and the administrator can analyze them as one. Using this approach, we find that we have a maximum of 4 AS-based flags per hour for rrc03, 6 for rv2 and 11 for rrc06. Additionally, with 79% probability we have equal or less than 1 AS-based flags per hour for rrc03. These results are quite encouraging and show that we can achieve a significant reduction in the number of flags.

Next, we focus on rrc03 and we classify the flags based on their RIR. In Figure 10, we plot the CDF of AS-based flags per hour. As expected, ARIN and ERX-RIR, have a much higher probability of having flags. Note, that for RIPE and LACNIC, the probability of having zero AS-based flags per hour is around or over 95%, while APNIC follows with 90%.

Duration of flagged origin tuples. The next question is for how long flags are present in a routing table. If the flags are present only for a small time period then the ability or even the need to a reaction could be limited. We focus on rrc03 and RIPE, APNIC and LACNIC that have the fewest percentage of flags, and thus it is more likely that these flags could be actual routing leaks. First, we want to investigate how persistent these flags were. We compute the percentage of time these flags were present in the routing table. Note that the withdraw of a flag can be both explicit, via a withdraw, or implicit if the peer advertises for this prefix a new path. In Figure 11, we plot the histogram of the persistence of the flags. The persistence of the flags is bimodal. First, we have the flags that are present for a small percentage of time, usually they last for less than 30%from the time we first saw the announcement. We have around 300 such cases, 30% of the total flags. The remaining 70% of the flags were very persistent in the sense that they were visible until the end of our data from the time they appeared.

In Figure 12, we plot the histogram of the duration in hours

 $^{^7\}mathrm{We}$ have cropped the y axis to 180 max, the points at 36 go to 538 and at 298 go to 235 events.



Fig. 10. CDF of unique events that raised flags, grouped by the origin AS for rrc03.



Fig. 11. Persistence of flags for the three RIR (RIPE, APNIC, LACNIC).

of flags that have a persistence equal or less that 30%. We find that flags can last for over 40 hours sometimes close to 90 hours. On the other hand, we have around 23 flags that last for less than one hour. Note that the flags that lasted approximately 40 hours, were actual leaks as we will see in the next section.

To summarize the origin AS validation results, we show that a reactive approach could be effective but mainly against misconfigurations and human errors. Even if we include all prefixes, the number of flags is sufficiently low to guarantee a low overhead in validating the origin AS. Problems exist mostly in the ARIN region and old allocations, but these are not so serious as to prevent the effective deployment of a reactive approach.

V. THE PROFILE OF A MAJOR ROUTING LEAK

In this section, we study an actual leak that occurred in December 24 2004. We use the routing collector rv2 to study the leak. At 9:29 UTC time, an AS from Turkey, AS9121 by mistake advertised to its neighbors over 100, 000 prefixes. This was the largest single incident since the AS7007 leak in 1997. The AS9121 leak gives us a unique opportunity to examine the reaction of ISPs and observe the behavior of the system. It is similar to studying the frequency response of a system, which is typically measured by applying an impulse to the system and measuring its response. This leak was so large that every ISP should have identified it within few minutes.

What happened? The source of the leak AS9121 advertised to its peers over 100,000 prefixes. Usually, ASes accept from a peer a maximum number of prefixes to limit the damage for exactly these kind of incidents. This was the case for example with AS1239 and AS1299. Unfortunately, this was not the case with AS6762, which accepted everything AS9121 advertised to it. In total we found that 90% of all paths in rv2 were propagated by AS6762, while only 7.3% by AS1239 and 2%



Fig. 13. Evolution of flags that AS9121 originates.

by AS1299. Note that we calculated this percentage by using the AS that is adjacent to AS9121 in the AS path. The reason we mention this is that for example AS1239 also propagated bad prefixes it learned from AS6762.

There was virtually no warning for the leak: In figure 13, we plot the number of origin AS flags for AS9121 versus time. We start our evaluation in December 20, 2004, 4 days before the leak. As shown in the figure, there is only a single spike at the hour that the leak happened. AS9121 created no flags before the main incident. This means that there was no warning that something was going to happen, and thus the ISPs were unprepared.

Duration of Incidents: Interestingly, AS9121 created two rounds of incorrect advertisments. In figure 14, we have the first round. We plot the evolution of the number of bad entries in the routing table of rv2. The round started at 9:19:57 and peaked at 9:33:47 with close to 600,000 bad entries. This figure shows that for the first round we had a duration of over one hour. In figure 15, we plot the second round that started at 19:47:7, and peaked at 50,000 bad entries. The second round was much smaller than the first. This shows that when ASes anticipate possible leaks the leak incident becomes much smaller and shorter.

ASes reacted slowly: In figure 16 we plot the reaction time for a total of 18 ASes. The figure shows that most of the ASes reacted very slowly. Their reaction time was over an hour. The AS that reacted first was AS701, but it took half an hour. Basically, the bad entries were withdrawn from the routing table when AS6762 stopped advertising the bad prefixes.

VI. DISCUSSION

In this section, we first discuss how ISPs can improve their reaction to routing problems. Then, we discuss what should be improved in the registries, both RIR and IRR, in order to



Fig. 14. Bad entries in the routing table for rv2 for the first round.



Fig. 15. Bad entries in the routing table for rv2 for the second round.

improve their usability.

A. A Systematic reaction approach for ISPs

In the previous section, we saw indications that some ISPs may not handle problems effectively, and they react too slowly. We believe that the ISPs should be prepared for these kind of situations, since these are not uncommon. Our goal is to limit the impact of routing errors and go from problems that last hours to problems that last seconds or in the worst case minutes.

A simplified reaction to origin AS flags: In order to react, an ISP will have to answer the following questions: a) Is it a big or a small event? b) Does it involve my own prefixes or prefixes of my customers? c) Will I use a conservative approach? In table IV, we have a high-level initial decision table for an ISP that can be elaborated and fine-tuned further. Based on the conditions, we have a number of rules that determine the actions and the sequence of actions for the ISP. For example, rule r1 is invoked if (a) we have a small event that (b) includes prefixes that the ISP originates. The action that correspond to rule r1, is first to deaggregate the prefixes that are affected, and then apply filters based on prefixes to block the leak. This way even if it takes hours to block the original leak, the more specific prefixes that the ISP advertised will guarantee that no traffic will be lost. Of course, after the end of the event the ISP should withdraw these prefixes. A problem can arise with the length of the deaggregated prefixes. For example, if we own a /19, and someone leaks our prefix, we can advertise more specific prefixes than the leak, thus two /20, and we can solve the problem. This may not work if the hijacked prefix is a /24. Advertising two /25 will not necessary solve the problem since most ASes will not accept such specific prefixes. The only possible way to solve this problem is to use some sort of special BGP community with



Fig. 16. Reaction time for ASes that appear in at least 10,000 invalid entries.

TABLE IV Decision table for an ISP on how to React to Routing Leaks

	Rules			
Conditions	r1	r2	r3	r4
Small Event	Y	Y	Y	Ν
Own Prefixes	Y	Ν	Ν	-
Conservative	-	Ν	Y	-
Actions				
Filter based on Prefixes	2	1	2	-
Filter based on Path	-	-	-	1
Deaggregate	1	-	-	-
Confirm Leak	-	2	1	-

universal meaning.

There are several other issues that our systematic reaction needs to address. First, how we define an event as small. We use the size of the event to differentiate how we will block the leak, either by using filters on prefixes or using filters on path. For this first case, we can leave this for the ISPs to decide, since it depends on many other things such as their infrastructure. We also use the size of the event to decide if we want to deaggregate our prefixes. In the case of 9121, if everybody decided to deaggregate during the event, the routing tables would be flooded with more specific prefixes and thus it could probably cause worse problems in the Internet. Thus, the size of the event should be small enough to guarantee that there would be no danger for the Internet at large. Given that the routing tables currently have over 160,000 prefixes, a few thousands of additional prefixes for a single event should be fine.

B. How can we improve the registries?

In the previous sections, we identify some subtle issues with the registries that are the cause of inaccuracies and inability to use the information effectively. These issues were not evident prior to our analysis, and we argue that these are the first issues that can and should be fixed.

RIR specific improvements: First, ARIN could prevent the unnecessary use of organization records in its registry. There exist close to one million organizations in ARIN. Practically, for every AS number or IP prefix, an ISP creates a new organization. The side effect is that we can not always find the correlations between the AS numbers and IP prefixes. The fix here can be that only ARIN can create new organizations, so

that the hierarchical nature of the registration is maintained.

In addition, it would be important to disambiguate the organizations at a global scale. There exist a lot of organizations that operate across many RIR regions, the ideal case will be to have a unique ID across regions and administrative domains.

Second, RIR could improve the exchange and interoperability of information with the national Internet registries(NIR) that operate within their region. APNIC and LACNIC are the only RIR that allow the operation of NIR. In the APNIC area there exist four NIR that allocate resources within their country limits. The problem with these registries is that they are not transparent, and some of them don't register the direct top allocations to the ISPs. The ISPs do register their assignments, but this is not sufficient to analyze the allocations. Additionally, most of these registries have no records about organizations and AS number allocations. Another problem with not registering the top allocations is that we can't find the prefixes that are not allocated yet. As a result, these prefixes can easily be hijacked. In LACNIC, we have similar problems. For example, the brazilian NIR doesn't provide the necessary bulk whois data, that is, their allocation records.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

Our work suggests the use of a reactive approach until (if ever) an ultimate solution for BGP robustness appears in the future. We advocate that we should not wait, since the "small" problems of today, can lead to significant problems in the future. For example, the permanent de-aggregation because of hijacking. It was recently discussed in the NANOG mailing list that Covad, AS18566, has de-aggregated their prefixes. Under normal operation they could originate 6-9 prefixes, but they originate 817, to prevent a future hijacking of their prefixes. Another example is the unauthorized use of resources. There are a number of prefixes and AS numbers that even though appear to be unallocated appear in routing tables. These problems are just the tip of the iceberg, and need to be addressed.

As our main contribution, we develop an approach and a tool for validating the origin of a BGP update. The method is ready-to-use: it can be deployed today, with the currently available information. Our approach is intended to act as an advisor to a network administrator. By applying our tool on real data, we arrive at three high-level observations.

A. Registries are useful. The registries contain enough information to be very useful even as they are, although careful processing is needed.

B. Small effort, big pay off. Small modifications and attention at improving the information of the registries can have significant impact in our ability to safeguard BGP routing.

C. ASes are unprepared. Many ASes do not seem well prepared to handle routing misbehavior. We saw that the reaction time for a large scale event (which should have been easier to detect) took hours. We conjecture that smaller scale events, which can be more frequent, may take longer to detect, if they ever get detected.

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