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APNIC Training

Introduction to Internet Operation

28 January 2010 – Dhaka, Bangladesh

15 South Asian Network Operators Group (SANOG) Conference



In conjunction with ISPAB



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Introduction

- Presenters
 - Nurul Islam Roman
 - Technical Training Officer
 - nurul@apnic.net
 - Jeffrey Tosco
 - Training Office
 - jeffrey@apnic.net

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Assumptions & Objectives

<u>Assumptions</u>	<u>Objectives</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entry/Mid level engineers working in ISP/service provider network • Are not familiar or up-to-date with technology detail • Has not got advance experience to work with network equipment • Are interested in Internetworking technologies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To provide an understanding of current Internet protocols • To provide a working knowledge of the procedures managing Internet • To keep up updated knowledge of future Internet technology

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Overview

- Introduction to Internet Operation
 - Internet Protocols – some revision
 - IP addressing basic
 - IP Routing basic
 - Introduction to DNS & RevDNS
 - Infrastructure Security Fundamental

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Signal, Data and Information

- Data is transmitted over a physical network as a sequence of binary digits (bits - 0s and 1s).
- The "sending" process involves the source device generating a pattern of signals (voltages, light patterns, wavelengths).
- The pattern of signals generated represents the sequence of bits making up the data.
- These signals can be "read" by any device attached to the same physical network.
- "Reading" means identifying the signals to receive the same pattern of bits as generated by the sender.

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What is Protocols

- All data is transmitted in the same way irrespective of what the data refers to, whether it is clear or encrypted.
- The data communication protocols define the structure or pattern for the data transferred – this gives it its meaning.
- The Protocols define
 - *functions* or *processes* that need to be carried out in order to implement the data exchange and the
 - *information* required by these processes in order for them to accomplish this

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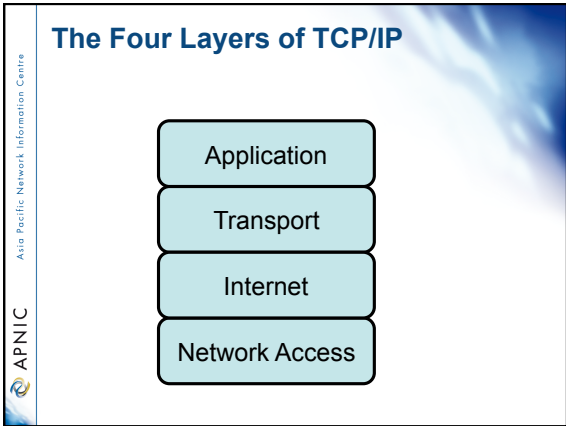
The OSI Model

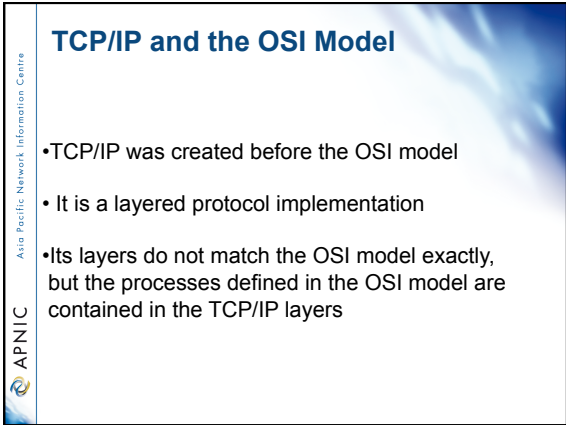
Application	Access to the network
Presentation	Manipulate data (Translate, encrypt)
Session	Manage sessions (connections)
Transport	Provide reliable delivery
Network	Internetwork - move packets from source to destination
Data Link	Configure data for direct delivery by physical layer
Physical	Physical delivery - electrical specs etc

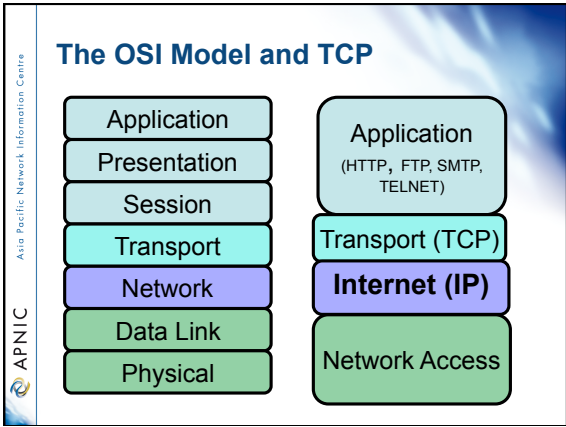
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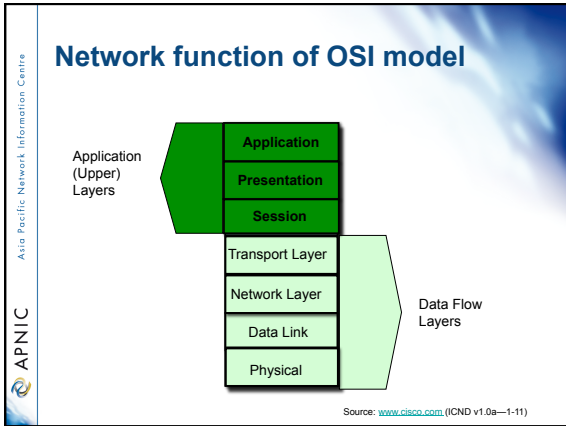
Protocol Models

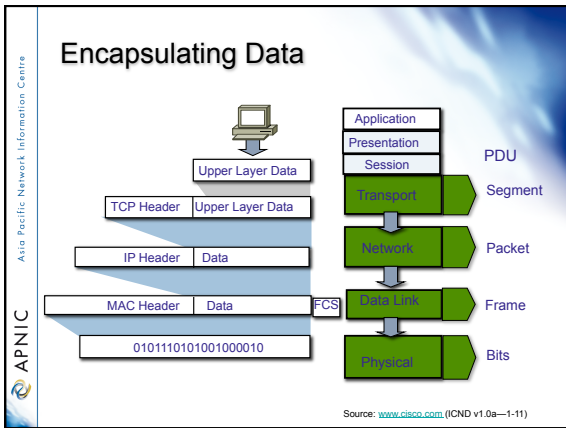
- In the late 1970s the ISO (International Standards Organisation) introduced a model defining the functions for data communications between two computers in a **7 layer model** - The OSI (Open System Interconnection) Model
- Not a protocol but a framework intended to facilitate the design of protocols for inter-computer communication.
- Defines the processes required at each of the modularised layers
- OSI is "protocol independent"

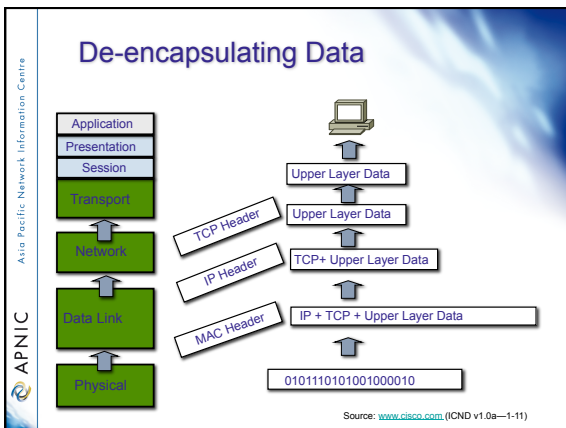












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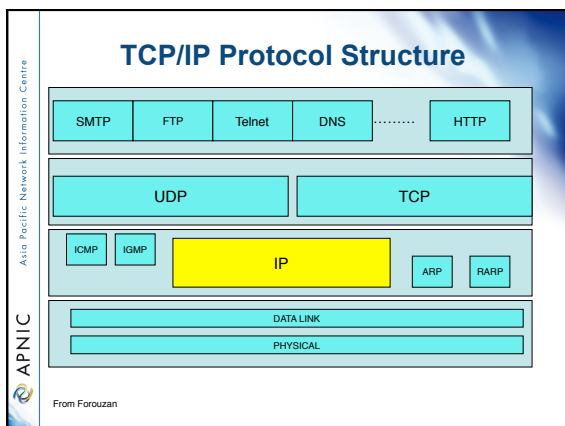
Packets

- A packet then contains a set of data made of the various headers from each layer including the data generated by the application layer.
- The packet is “built” during a sending process when each layer determines the information needed for its tasks, and adds this header information
- The layer will then take this information, with any other data it might have received from a higher layer, and pass it as one set of data to a lower layer.
- This process is then repeated and is called *encapsulation*

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Internet Protocol (IP)

- IP is an unreliable, connectionless delivery protocol
 - A best-effort delivery service
 - No error checking or tracking (no guarantees – Post Office)
 - Every packet treated independently
 - Can follow different routes to same destination
 - IP leaves higher level protocols to provide reliability services (if needed)
- IP provides three important definitions:
 - basic unit of data transfer
 - specifying exact format of the headers
 - routing function
 - choosing path over which data will be sent
 - rules about delivery
 - how IP datagrams should be processed
 - how to deal with unusual events (errors)



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IP Datagram format

- That part of a packet containing the IP headers and the data from the higher layers passed to the IP layer are called **datagrams**
- IP specifies the header information for the data it requires for its tasks - information needed for routing and delivery
 - eg source and destination IP addresses
- It has nothing to do with higher layer headers or data and can transport arbitrary data

Datagram header	Datagram data area
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IPv4 Datagram header fields

Bit 0		Bit 15		Bit 16		Bit 31	
Version (4)	Header Length (4)	Priority & Type of Service (8)		Total Length (16)			
Identification (16)				Flags (3)	Fragment offset (13)		
Time to live (8)		Protocol (8)		Header checksum (16)			
Source IP Address (32)							
Destination IP Address (32)							
Options (0 or 32 if any)							
Data (varies if any)							

20 Byte

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IPv6 header

- Comparison between IPv4 header and IPv6 header

IPv4 Header				IPv6 Header			
Version (4 bits)	IHL (4 bits)	Type of Service (8 bits)	Total Length (16 bits)	Version (4 bits)	Traffic Class (8 bits)	Flow Label (20 bits)	
Identification (16 bits)		Flags (4 bits)	Fragment Offset (12 bits)	Payload Length (16 bits)		Next Header (8 bits)	Hop Limit (8 bits)
TTL (8 bits)	Protocol Header (8 bits)	Header Checksum (16 bits)		Source Address (128 bits)			
Source Address (32 bits)				Destination Address (128 bits)			
Destination Address (32 bits)				Destination Address (128 bits)			
IP options (0 or more bits)							

IHL=IP Header Length
 TTL=Time to Live
 = Eliminated in IPv6
 = Enhanced in IPv6
 = Enhanced in IPv6
 = Enhanced in IPv6

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Questions?

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Overview

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 - Internet Protocols – some revision
 - **IP addressing basic**
 - IP Routing basic
 - Introduction to DNS & RevDNS
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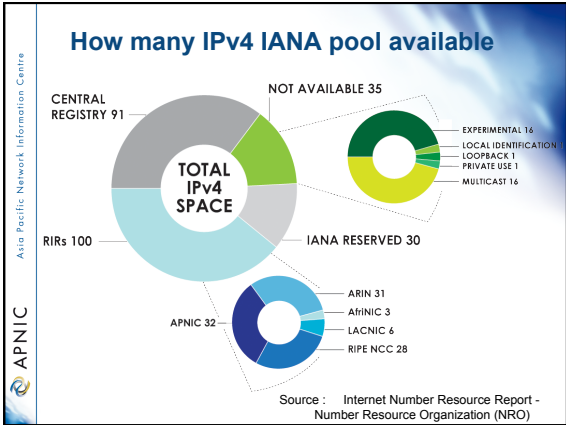
Overview

- IP addressing Issues and solution
- Variable Length Subnet Mask (VLSM)
 - Written exercise : VLSM calculation
- Summarisation of routes
- Classless InterDomain routing (CIDR)
- Internet registry IP management procedure
 - Written exercise : Route summarisation

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IP Addressing issues

- Exhaustion of IPv4 addresses
 - Wasted address space in traditional subnetting
 - Limited availability of /8 subnets address
- Internet routing table growth
 - Size of the routing table due to higher number prefix announcement
- Tremendous growth of the Internet



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IP addressing solutions

- Subnet masking and summarization
 - Variable-length subnet mask definition
 - Hierarchical addressing
 - Classless InterDomain Routing (CIDR)
 - Routes summarization (RFC 1518)
- Private address usage (RFC 1918)
 - Network address translation (NAT)
- Development of IPv6 address

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Variable Length Subnet Mask

- Allows the ability to have more than one subnet mask within a network
- Allows re-subnetting
 - create sub-subnet network address
- Increase the routes capability
 - Addressing hierarchy
 - Summarisation

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Calculating VLSM example

- Subnet 192.168.0.0/24 into smaller subnet
 - Subnet mask with /27 and /30 (point-to-point)

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Calculating VLSM example (cont.)

- Subnet 192.168.0.0/24 into smaller subnet
 - Subnet mask with /30 (point-to-point)

Description	Decimal	Binary
Network Address	192.168.0.0/30	x.x.x.00000000
1 st valid IP	192.168.0.1/30	x.x.x.00000001
2 nd valid IP	192.168.0.2/30	x.x.x.00000010
Broadcast address	192.168.0.3/30	x.x.x.00000011

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Calculating VLSM example (cont.)

- Subnet 192.168.0.0/24 into smaller subnet
 - Subnet mask with /27

Description	Decimal	Binary
Network Address	192.168.0.32/27	x.x.x.000 00000
Valid IP range 192.168.0.33 - 192.168.0.62		x.x.x.000 00001
		x.x.x.000 00010
Broadcast address	192.168.0.63/30	x.x.x.000 11111

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Calculating VLSM example (cont.)

- Subnet 192.168.0.0/24 into smaller subnet
 - Subnet mask with /27

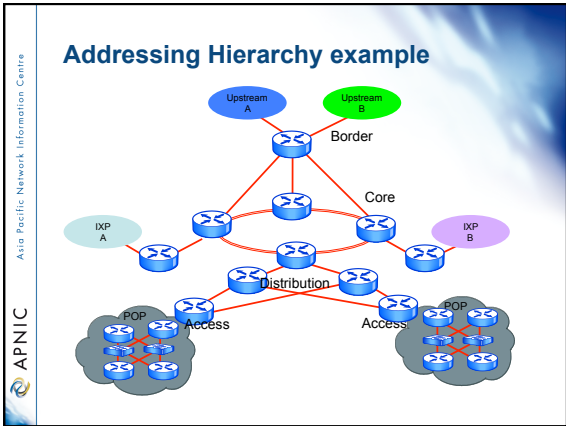
Description	Decimal	VLSM	Host	Host range
1 st subnet	192.168.0.0/27	x.x.x.000	00000	0-31
2 nd subnet	192.168.0.32/27	x.x.x.001		31-63
3 rd subnet	192.168.0.64/27	x.x.x.010		64-95
4 th subnet	192.168.0.96/27	x.x.x.011		96-127

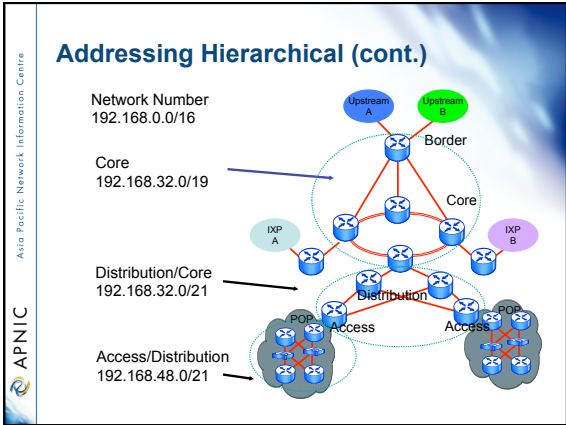
n = 5 (n is the remaining subnet bits)
2ⁿ - 5 = 30 host per subnet

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Addressing Hierarchy

- Support for easy troubleshooting, upgrades and manageability of networks
- Performance optimisation
 - Scalable and more stable
 - Less network resources overhead (CPU, memory, buffers, bandwidth)
- Faster routing convergence





Classful and classless

- **Classful** (*Obsolete*)
 - Wasteful address architecture
 - network boundaries are fixed at 8, 16 or 24 bits (class A, B, and C)
- **Classless** (Best Current Practice)
 - Efficient architecture
 - network boundaries may occur at any bit (e.g. /12, /16, /19, /24 etc)
- **CIDR**
 - Classless Inter Domain Routing architecture
 - Allows *aggregation* of routes within ISPs infrastructure

Classless & classful addressing

	Classful	Classless	Prefix	Classful	Net mask
A	128 networks x 16M hosts	8	/29	...	255.255.255.248
B	16K networks x 64K hosts	16	/28	...	255.255.255.240
		32	/27	...	255.255.255.224
		64	/26	...	255.255.255.192
C	2M networks x 256 hosts	128	/25	1 C	255.255.255.128
		256	/24	...	255.255.255.0
	
	Obsolete	4096	/20	16 Cs	255.255.240.0
	• inefficient	8192	/19	32 Cs	255.255.224.0
	• depletion of B space	16384	/18	64 Cs	255.255.192.0
	• too many routes from C space	32768	/17	128 Cs	255.255.128.0
		65536	/16	1 B	255.255.0.0

Best Current Practice

* Network boundaries may occur at any bit

Prefix routing / CIDR

- Prefix routing commonly known as classless inter domain routing (CIDR)
 - It allows prefix routing and summarisation with the routing tables of the Internet
- RFCs that talks about CIDR
 - RFC 1517 Applicability statement for the implementation of CIDR
 - RFC 1518 Architecture for IP address allocation with CIDR
 - RFC 1519 CIDR : an address assignment and aggregation strategy
 - RFC 1520 Exchanging routing information access provider boundaries in a CIDR environment

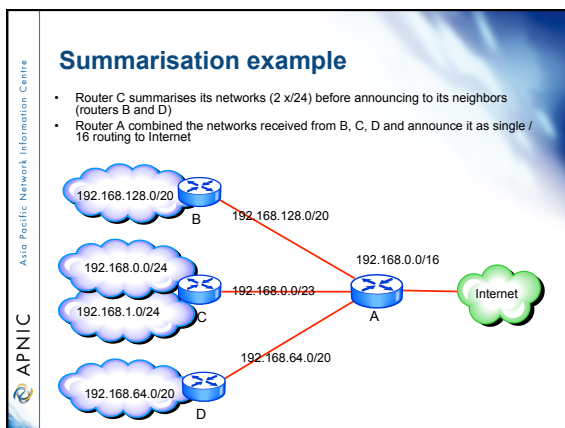
CIDR solution advantage

- CIDR offers the advantages reducing the routing table size of the network by summarising the ISP announcement in a single /21 advertisement

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Route summarisation

- Allows the presentation of a series of networks in a single summary address.
- Advantages of summarisation
 - Faster convergence
 - Reducing the size of the routing table
 - Simplification
 - Hiding Network Changes
 - Isolate topology changes



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Route summarisation

- Subnet 192.168.0.0/24 and 192.168.1.0/24 combining then to become a bigger block of address "/23"

Network	Subnet Mask	Binary
192.168.0.0	255.255.255.0	x.x.00000000.x
192.168.1.0	255.255.255.0	x.x.00000001.x
Summary	192.168.0.0/23	x.x.00000000.x
192.168.0.0	255.255.254.0	x.x.00000000.x

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Configuring summarisation

- Manual configuration is required with the use of newer routing protocols
 - Each of the routing protocols deal with it in a slightly different way
- All routing protocols employ some level of automatic summarisation depending on the routing protocol behavior (be cautious about it)

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Manual summarisation

- Manual summarisation uses by OSPF are more sophisticated.
 - Sends the subnet mask including the routing update which allows the use of VLSM and summarisation
- Performs a lookup to check the entire database and acts on the longest match

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Discontiguous networks

- A network not using routing protocol that support VLSM creates problem
 - Router will not know where to send the traffic
 - Creates routing loop or duplication
- Summarisation is not advisable to network that are discontiguous
 - Turn off summarisation
 - Alternative solution but understand the scaling limitation
 - Find ways to re-address the network
 - Can create disastrous situation

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Questions?

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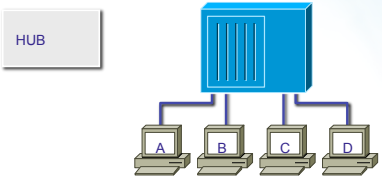
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Objectives

- To be able to gain knowledge about the foundation of the routing protocols
- Classify the difference between a classful and classless routing architecture
- Compare distance vector and link-state protocol operation
- Describe the information written inside the routing table

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Routing Fundamental Physical Layer

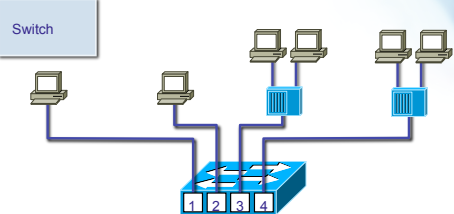


All workstation will be in the same collision domain
All workstation will be in the same broadcast domain
Workstations will share the total bandwidth

Source: www.cisco.com (ICND v1.0a—1-11)

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Routing fundamental Data Link Layer

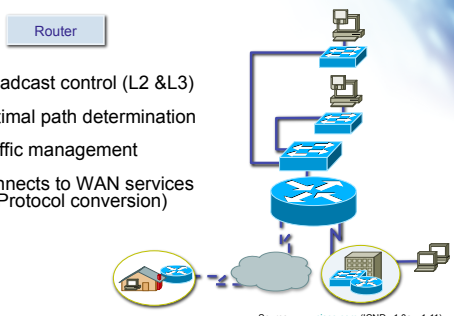


Each port will have its own collision domain
All ports will be in the same broadcast (LAN) domain

Source: www.cisco.com (ICND v1.0a—1-11)

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Routing fundamental Network Layer

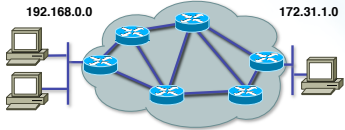


Broadcast control (L2 & L3)
Optimal path determination
Traffic management
Connects to WAN services (Protocol conversion)

Source: www.cisco.com (ICND v1.0a—1-11)

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What is Routing?

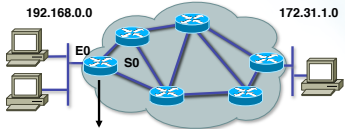


- To route, a router needs to know:
 - Destination addresses
 - Sources it can learn from
 - Possible routes
 - Best route
 - Maintain and verify routing information

Source: www.cisco.com (ICND v1.0a-1-11)

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What is Routing? (cont.)



Network Protocol	Destination Network	Exit Interface
Connected	192.168.0.0	E0
Learned	172.31.1.0	S0

Routed Protocol: IP

Routers must learn destinations that are not directly connected

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Static and Dynamic Routing

- **Static Route**
A route that a network administrator enters into the router manually

- **Dynamic Route**
A route that a network routing protocol adjusts automatically for topology or traffic changes

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Static Routing

Configure unidirectional static routes to and from a stub network to allow communications to occur.

Source: www.cisco.com (ICND v1.0a—1-11)

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Dynamic Routing

- Routing protocols are used between routers to determine paths and maintain routing tables.
- Once the path is determined a router can route a routed protocol.

Network Protocol	Destination Network	Exit Interface
Connected	10.120.2.0	E0
RIP	172.16.2.0	S0
IGRP	172.17.3.0	S1

Routed Protocol: IP
Routing protocol: RIP, IGRP

Source: www.cisco.com (ICND v1.0a—1-11)

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What is a dynamic routing protocol?

- A set of rules defined to facilitate the exchanges of routing information between routers (Layer 3 device) inside networks
- Build routing tables dynamically to let the route find its path in a network having more than one path to a remote network.
- Maintains the devices connectivity within the network about the available network connections.

Interior or Exterior Routing Protocols

IGPs: RIP, IGRP EGPs: BGP

Autonomous System 100 Autonomous System 200

- An autonomous system is a collection of networks under a common administrative domain
- IGPs operate within an autonomous system
- EGPs connect different autonomous systems

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Classes of Routing Protocols

Distance Vector

Link State

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Routing protocol behavior

- Mechanism to update Layer 3 routing devices, to route the data across the best path
- Learns participating routers advertised routes to know their neighbors
- Learned routes are stored inside the routing table

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Distance Vector Routing Protocol

- Pass periodic copies of routing table to neighbor routers
- Accumulate metric on every router (I.e Hop count)

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Distance Vector—Best Route selection

Information used to select the best path for routing

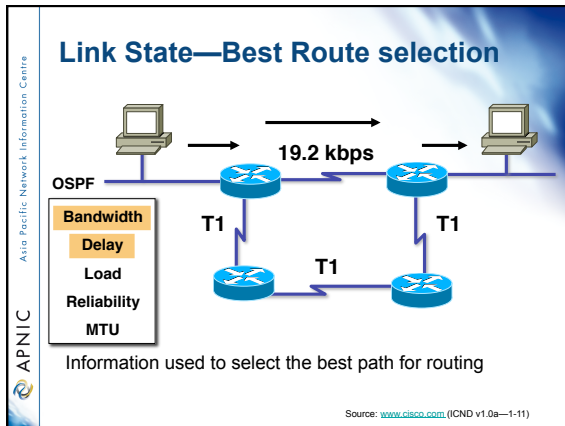
Source: www.cisco.com (ICND v1.0a—1-11)

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Link-State Routing Protocols

After initial flood, pass small event-triggered link-state updates to all other routers

Source: www.cisco.com (ICND v1.0a—1-11)



Distinction between *routed* and *routing* protocols

- Routed protocols
 - Layer3 datagram that carry the information required in transporting the data across the network
- Routing protocols
 - Handles the updating requirement of the routers within the network for determining the path of the datagram across the network

Routing and routed protocols

Routed protocol	Routing protocol
AppleTalk	RTMP, AURP, EIGRP
IPX	RIP, NLSP, EIGRP
Vines	RTP
DecNet IV	DecNet
IP	RIPv2, OSPF, IS-IS, BGP and (Cisco Systems proprietary) EIGRP,

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Metric field

- To determine which path to use if there are multiple paths to the remote network
- Provide the value to select the best path
- But take note of the administrative distance selection process ☺

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Routing protocol metrics

Routing protocol	Metric
RIPv2	Hop count
EIGRP	Bandwidth, delay, load, reliability, MTU
OSPF	Cost (the higher the bandwidth indicates a lowest cost)
IS-IS	Cost

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Administrative distance

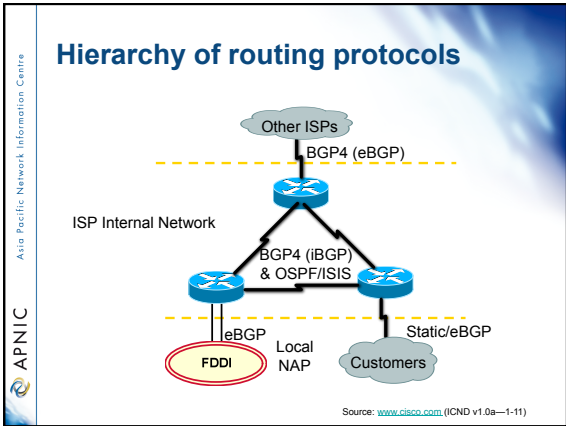
- Is the method used for selection of route priority of IP routing protocol, the lowest administrative distance is preferred
 - Manually entered routes are preferred from dynamically learned routes
 - Static routes
 - Default routes
 - Dynamically learned routes depend on the routing protocol metric calculation algorithm and default metrics values the smallest metric value are preferred

Administrative distance chart (Cisco)

Route sources	Default distance
Connected interface	0
Static route out an interface	0
Static route to a next hop	1
External BGP	20
IGRP	100
OSPF	110
IS-IS	115
RIP v1, v2	120
EGP	140
Internal BGP	200
Unknown	255

- Principles of addressing**
- Separate customer & infrastructure address pools
 - Manageability
 - Different personnel manage infrastructure and assignments to customers
 - Scalability
 - Easier renumbering - customers are difficult, infrastructure is relatively easy

- Principles of addressing**
- Further separate infrastructure
 - ‘Static’ infrastructure examples
 - RAS server address pools, CMTS
 - Virtual web and content hosting LANs
 - Anything where there is no dynamic route calculation
 - Customer networks
 - Carry in iBGP, do not put in IGP
 - No need to aggregate address space carried in iBGP
 - Can carry in excess of 100K prefixes



Questions?

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Purpose of naming

- Addresses are used to locate objects
- Names are easier to remember than numbers
- You would like to get to the address or other objects using a name
- DNS provides a mapping from names to resources of several types

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Naming History

- 1970's ARPANET
 - Host.txt maintained by the SRI-NIC
 - pulled from a single machine
 - Problems
 - traffic and load
 - Name collisions
 - Consistency
- DNS created in 1983 by Paul Mockapetris (RFCs 1034 and 1035), modified, updated, and enhanced by a myriad of subsequent RFCs

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DNS

- A lookup mechanism for translating objects into other objects
- A globally distributed, loosely coherent, scalable, reliable, dynamic database
- Comprised of three components
 - A "name space"
 - Servers making that name space available
 - Resolvers (clients) which query the servers about the name space

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DNS Features: Global Distribution

- Data is maintained locally, but retrievable globally
 - No single computer has all DNS data
- DNS lookups can be performed by any device
- Remote DNS data is locally cachable to improve performance

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DNS Features: Loose Coherency

- The database is always internally consistent
 - Each version of a subset of the database (a zone) has a serial number
 - The serial number is incremented on each database change
- Changes to the master copy of the database are replicated according to timing set by the zone administrator
- Cached data expires according to timeout set by zone administrator

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DNS Features: Scalability

- No limit to the size of the database
 - One server has over 20,000,000 names
 - Not a particularly good idea
- No limit to the number of queries
 - 24,000 queries per second handled easily
- Queries distributed among masters, slaves, and caches

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DNS Features: Reliability

- Data is replicated
 - Data from master is copied to multiple slaves
- Clients can query
 - Master server
 - Any of the copies at slave servers
- Clients will typically query local caches

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DNS Features: Dynamicity

- Database can be updated dynamically
 - Add/delete/modify of any record
- Modification of the master database triggers replication
 - Only master can be dynamically updated
 - Creates a single point of failure

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Concept: DNS Names

- How names appear in the DNS
 - Fully Qualified Domain Name (FQDN)
 - `WWW.APNIC.NET.`
 - labels separated by dots
- DNS provides a mapping from FQDNs to resources of several types
- Names are used as a key when fetching data in the DNS

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Concept: DNS Names contd.

- Domain names can be mapped to a tree
- New branches at the 'dots'

```
graph TD; Root[Root DNS] --> net; Root --> org; Root --> com; Root --> ccTLDs[ccTLDs]; net --> apnic; net --> iana; apnic --> www; apnic --> whois; apnic --> ftp;
```

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Concept: Resource Records

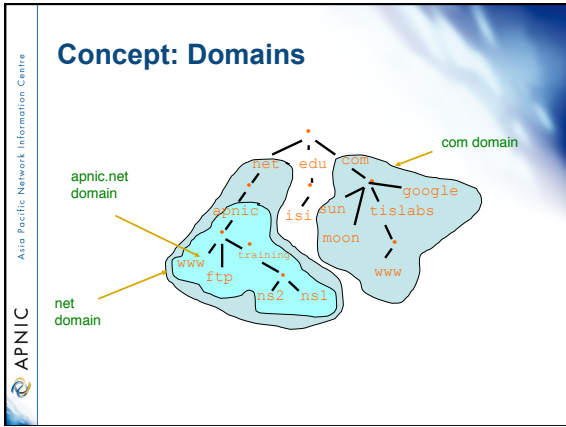
- The DNS maps names into data using Resource Records.

```
graph LR; Name[www.apnic.net.] --- Record[Resource Record]; Record --- IP[A 10.10.10.2]; IP --- Address[Address Resource];
```

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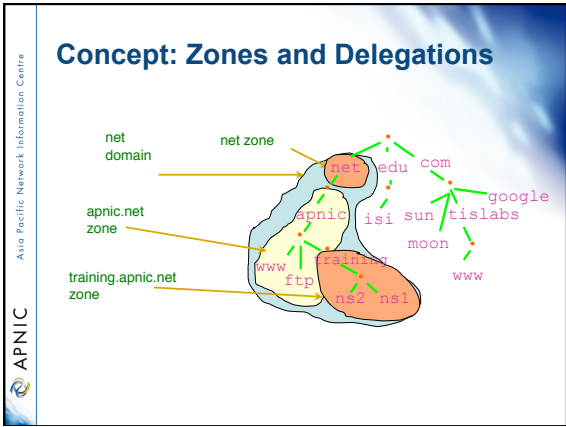
Concept: Domains

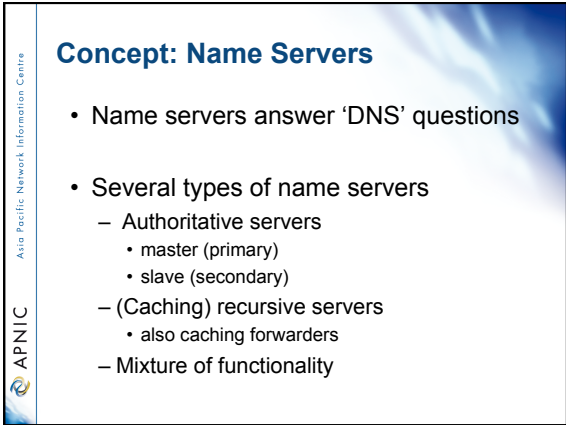
- Domains are “namespaces”
- Everything below **.com** is in the **com** domain
- Everything below **apnic.net** is in the **apnic.net** domain and in the **net** domain

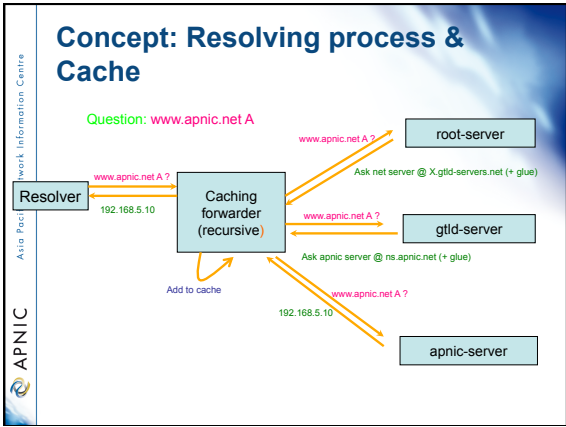


- Delegation**
- Administrators can create subdomains to group hosts
 - According to geography, organizational affiliation or any other criterion
 - An administrator of a domain can delegate responsibility for managing a subdomain to someone else
 - But this isn't required
 - The parent domain retains links to the delegated subdomain
 - The parent domain "remembers" who it delegated the subdomain to
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- Concept: Zones and Delegations**
- Zones are "administrative spaces"
 - Zone administrators are responsible for portion of a domain's name space
 - Authority is delegated from a parent and to a child
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Concept: Resource Records

- Resource records consist of it's name, it's TTL, it's class, it's type and it's RDATA
- TTL is a timing parameter
- IN class is widest used
- There are multiple types of RR records
- Everything behind the type identifier is called rdata

Example: RRs in a zone file

```

apnic.net. 7200 IN      SOA     ns.apnic.net. admin.apnic.net.
(
    2001061501      ; Serial
    43200           ; Refresh 12 hours
    14400           ; Retry 4 hours
    345600          ; Expire 4 days
    7200            ; Negative cache 2 hours )

apnic.net.          7200 IN      NS      ns.apnic.net.
apnic.net.          7200 IN      NS      ns.ripe.net.

whois.apnic.net.   3600 IN      A       193.0.1.162

host25.apnic.net.  2600 IN      A       193.0.3.25
    
```

Resource Record: SOA and NS

- The SOA and NS records are used to provide information about the zone itself
- The NS indicates where information about a given zone can be found


```

apnic.net. 7200 IN      NS      ns.apnic.net.
apnic.net. 7200 IN      NS      ns.ripe.net.
            
```
- The SOA record provides information about the start of authority, i.e. the top of the zone, also called the APEX

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Concept: TTL and other Timers

- TTL is a timer used in caches
 - An indication for how long the data may be reused
 - Data that is expected to be 'stable' can have high TTLs
- SOA timers are used for maintaining consistency between primary and secondary servers

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Places where DNS data lives

- Changes do not propagate instantly

Might take up to 'refresh' to get data from master

Upload of zone data is local policy

Not going to net if TTL>0

Cache server

Master

Slave

Registry DB

Slave server

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To remember...

- Multiple authoritative servers to distribute load and risk:
 - Put your name servers apart from each other
- Caches to reduce load to authoritative servers and reduce response times
- SOA timers and TTL need to be tuned to needs of zone. Stable data: higher numbers

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Performance of DNS

- Server hardware requirements
- OS and the DNS server running
- How many DNS servers?
- How many zones expected to load?
- How large the zones are?
- Zone transfers
- Where the DNS servers are located?
- Bandwidth

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Performance of DNS

- Are these servers Multihomed?
- How many interfaces are to be enabled for listening?
- How many queries are expected to receive?
- Recursion
- Dynamic updates?
- DNS notifications

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Writing a zone file

- Zone file is written by the zone administrator
- Zone file is read by the master server and it's content is replicated to slave servers
- What is in the zone file will end up in the database
- Because of timing issues it might take some time before the data is actually visible at the client side

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First attempt

- The 'header' of the zone file
 - Start with a SOA record
 - Include authoritative name servers and
 - Add other information
- Add other RRs
- Delegate to other zones

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Authoritative NS records and related A records

```

apnic.net.      3600 IN NS  NS1.apnic.net.
apnic.net.      3600 IN NS  NS2.apnic.net.
NS1.apnic.net.  3600 IN A   203.0.0.4
NS2.apnic.net.  3600 IN A   193.0.0.202
    
```

- NS record for all the authoritative servers
 - They need to carry the zone at the moment you publish
- A records only for "in-zone" name servers
 - Delegating NS records might have glue associated

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Zone file format short cuts nice formatting

```

apnic.net.      3600 IN SOA NS1.apnic.net. admi
n\email.apnic.net. (
    2002021301 ; serial
    1h        ; refresh
    30M       ; retry
    1w        ; expiry
    3600 )     ; neg. answ. Ttl

apnic.net.      3600 IN NS  NS1.apnic.net.
apnic.net.      3600 IN NS  NS2.apnic.net.
apnic.net.      3600 IN MX  50  mail.apnic.net.
apnic.net.      3600 IN MX  150 mailhost2.apnic.net.

apnic.net.      3600 IN TXT  "Demonstration and test zone"
NS1.apnic.net.  4500 IN A   203.0.0.4
NS2.apnic.net.  3600 IN A   193.0.0.202
localhost.apnic.net. 3600 IN A   127.0.0.1
www.apnic.net.  3600 IN CNAME IN.apnic.net.
    
```

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Zone file short cuts: repeating last name

```

apnic.net. 3600 IN SOA NS1.apnic.net. admin\
n\email.apnic.net. (
    2002021301 ; serial
    1h ; refresh
    30M ; retry
    1W ; expiry
    3600 ) ; neg. ans. Ttl
3600 IN NS NS1.apnic.net.
3600 IN NS NS2.apnic.net.
3600 IN MX 50 mail.apnic.net.
3600 IN MX 150 mailhost2.apnic.net.

3600 IN TXT "Demonstration and test zone"
NS1.apnic.net. 3600 IN A 203.0.0.4
NS2.apnic.net. 3600 IN A 193.0.0.202

localhost.apnic.net. 4500 IN A 127.0.0.1

NS1.apnic.net. 3600 IN A 203.0.0.4
www.apnic.net. 3600 IN CNAME IN.apnic.net.
    
```

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Zone file short cuts: default TTL

```

$TTL 3600 ; Default TTL directive
apnic.net. IN SOA NS1.apnic.net. admin\
email.apnic.net. (
    2002021301 ; serial
    1h ; refresh
    30M ; retry
    1W ; expiry
    3600 ) ; neg. ans. Ttl
    IN NS NS1.apnic.net.
    IN NS NS2.apnic.net.
    IN MX 50 mail.apnic.net.
    IN MX 150 mailhost2.apnic.net.

    IN TXT "Demonstration and test zone"
NS1.apnic.net. IN A 203.0.0.4
NS2.apnic.net. IN A 193.0.0.202

localhost.apnic.net. 4500 IN A 127.0.0.1

NS1.apnic.net. IN A 203.0.0.4
www.apnic.net. IN CNAME NS1.apnic.net.
    
```

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Zone file short cuts: ORIGIN

```

$TTL 3600 ; Default TTL directive
$ORIGIN apnic.net.
@ IN SOA NS1 admin\email.apnic.net. (
    2002021301 ; serial
    1h ; refresh
    30M ; retry
    1W ; expiry
    3600 ) ; neg. ans. Ttl
    IN NS NS1
    IN NS NS2
    IN MX 50 mailhost
    IN MX 150 mailhost2

    IN TXT "Demonstration and test zone"
NS1 IN A 203.0.0.4
NS2 IN A 193.0.0.202

localhost 4500 IN A 127.0.0.1

NS1 IN A 203.0.0.4
www IN CNAME NS1
    
```

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Zone file short cuts: Eliminate IN

```

$TTL 3600 ; Default TTL directive
$ORIGIN apnic.net.
@ SOA NS1 admin@email.sanog.org. (
    2002021301 ; serial
    1h ; refresh
    30M ; retry
    1W ; expiry
    3600 ) ; neg. answ. Ttl
NS NS1
NS NS2
MX 50 mailhost
MX 150 mailhost2

TXT "Demonstration and test zone"
NS1 A 203.0.0.4
NS2 A 193.0.0.202
localhost 4500 A 127.0.0.1
NS1 A 203.0.0.4
www CNAME NS1
    
```

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Delegating a zone (becoming a parent)

- Delegate authority for a sub domain to another party (splitting of *training.apnic.net* from *apnic.net*)

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Concept: Glue

- Delegation is done by adding NS records:


```

training.apnic.net. NS ns1.training.apnic.net.
training.apnic.net. NS ns2.training.apnic.net.
training.apnic.net. NS ns1.apnic.net.
training.apnic.net. NS ns2.apnic.net.
            
```
- How to get to ns1 and ns2... We need the addresses
- Add glue records to so that resolvers can reach ns1 and ns2


```

ns1.training.apnic.net. A 10.0.0.1
ns2.training.apnic.net. A 10.0.0.2
            
```

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Concept: Glue contd.

- Glue is 'non-authoritative' data
- Don't include glue for servers that are not in sub zones

```
training.apnic.net. NS ns1.training.apnic.net.  
Training.apnic.net. NS ns2.training.apnic.net.  
  
training.apnic.net. NS ns2.apnic.net.  
training.apnic.net. NS ns1.apnic.net.  
ns1.training.apnic.net. A 10.0.0.1  
Ns2.training.apnic.net. A 10.0.0.2
```

Only this record needs glue

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Delegating training.apnic.net. from apnic.net.

training.apnic.net Setup minimum two servers Create zone file with NS records Add all training.apnic.net data	apnic.net Add NS records and glue Make sure there is no other data from the training.apnic.net. zone in the zone file
---	--

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Questions?

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Reverse DNS

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Overview

- Principles
- Creating reverse zones
- Setting up nameservers
- Reverse delegation procedures

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What is 'Reverse DNS'?

- 'Forward DNS' maps names to numbers
 - svc00.apnic.net -> 202.12.28.131
- 'Reverse DNS' maps numbers to names
 - 202.12.28.131 -> svc00.apnic.net

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Reverse DNS - why bother?

- Service denial
 - That only allow access when fully reverse delegated eg. anonymous ftp
- Diagnostics
 - Assisting in trace routes etc
- SPAM identifications
- Registration responsibilities

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Principles – DNS tree

- Mapping numbers to names - 'reverse DNS'

```
graph TD; Root[Root DNS] --- net; Root --- edu; Root --- com; Root --- arpa; Root --- au; net --- apnic; net --- whois; arpa --- in-addr; in-addr --- RIRs["RIR: 202, 203, ..., 210, 211"]; RIRs --- ISPs["ISP: 64"]; ISPs --- Customers["Customer: 22"]; Customers --> Example["22 .64 .202 .in-addr .arpa"]
```

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Creating reverse zones

- Same as creating a forward zone file
 - SOA and initial NS records are the same as normal zone
 - Main difference
 - need to create additional PTR records
- Can use BIND or other DNS software to create and manage reverse zones
 - Details can be different

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Creating reverse zones - contd

- Files involved
 - Zone files
 - Forward zone file
 - e.g. db.domain.net
 - Reverse zone file
 - e.g. db.192.168.254
 - Config files
 - <named.conf>
 - Other
 - Hints files etc.
 - Root.hints

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Start of Authority (SOA) record

```

<domain.name.> CLASS SOA <hostname.domain.name.>
<mailbox.domain.name.> (
  <serial-number>
    <refresh>
    <retry>
    <expire>
    <negative-caching> )
  
```

253.253.192.in-addr.arpa.

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Pointer (PTR) records

- Create pointer (PTR) records for each IP address

```

131.28.12.202.in-addr.arpa. IN PTR svc00.apnic.net.
  
```

or

```

131 IN PTR svc00.apnic.net.
  
```

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A reverse zone example

```

$ORIGIN 1.168.192.in-addr.arpa.
@ 3600 IN SOA test.company.org. (
    sys\.admin.company.org.
    2002021301 ; serial
    1h ; refresh
    30M ; retry
    1W ; expiry
    3600 ) ; neg. answ. ttl

NS ns.company.org.
NS ns2.company.org.

1 PTR gw.company.org.
   router.company.org.

2 PTR ns.company.org.
;auto generate: 65 PTR host65.company.org
$GENERATE 65-127 $ PTR host$.company.org.

```

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Setting up the primary nameserver

- Add an entry specifying the primary server to the **named.conf** file

```

zone "<domain-name>" in {
    type master;
    file "<path-name>"; };

```

- **<domain-name>**
 - Ex: 28.12.202.in-addr.arpa.
- **<type master>**
 - Define the name server as the primary
- **<path-name>**
 - location of the file that contains the zone records

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Setting up the secondary nameserver

- Add an entry specifying the primary server to the **named.conf** file

```


zone "<domain-name>" in {
    type slave;
    file "<path-name>";
    Masters { <IP address> ; }; };

```

- **<type slave>** defines the name server as the secondary
- **<ip address>** is the IP address of the primary name server
- **<domain-name>** is same as before
- **<path-name>** is where the back-up file is

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Reverse delegation requirements

- /24 Delegations
 - Address blocks should be assigned/allocated
 - At least two name servers
- /16 Delegations
 - Same as /24 delegations
 - APNIC delegates entire zone to member
 - Recommend APNIC secondary zone
- < /24 Delegations
 - Read "classless in-addr.arpa delegation" 

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APNIC & ISPs responsibilities

- APNIC
 - Manage reverse delegations of address block distributed by APNIC
 - Process organisations requests for reverse delegations of network allocations
- Organisations
 - Be familiar with APNIC procedures
 - Ensure that addresses are reverse-mapped
 - Maintain nameservers for allocations
 - Minimise pollution of DNS

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Subdomains of in-addr.arpa domain

- Example: an organisation given a /16
 - 192.168.0.0/16 (one zone file and further delegations to downstreams)
 - 168.192.in-addr.arpa zone file should have:

0.168.192.in-addr.arpa.	NS ns1.organisation0.com.
0.168.192.in-addr.arpa.	NS ns2.organisation0.com.
1.168.192.in-addr.arpa.	NS ns1.organisation1.com.
1.168.192.in-addr.arpa.	NS ns2.organisation1.com.
2.168.192.in-addr.arpa.	NS ns1.organisation2.com.
2.168.192.in-addr.arpa.	NS ns2.organisation2.com.
...	
...	

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Subdomains of in-addr.arpa domain

- Example: an organisation given a /20
 - 192.168.0.0/20 (a lot of zone files!) – have to do it per /24)
 - Zone files

0.168.192.in-addr.arpa.
1.168.192.in-addr.arpa.
2.168.192.in-addr.arpa.
:
:
15.168.192.in-addr.arpa.

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Reverse delegation procedures

- Standard APNIC database object,
 - can be updated through MyAPNIC, Online form or via email.
- Nameserver/domain set up verified before being submitted to the database.
- Protection by maintainer object
- Zone file updated instantly

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Creation of domain objects

- If you opt to create the domain objects yourself
 - Either you can use MyAPNIC
 - Or use web/email templates
- Using web/email templates will result in initial errors
 - As the /8 is hierarchically maintained by MAINT-AP-DNS
 - Contact <helpdesk@apnic.net>

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Whois domain object

```

domain:      28.12.202.in-addr.arpa
descr:      in-addr.arpa zone for 28.12.202.in-addr.arpa
admin-c:    DNS3-AP
tech-c:     DNS3-AP
zone-c:     DNS3-AP
nserver:    ns.telstra.net
nserver:    rs.arin.net
nserver:    ns.myapnic.net
nserver:    svc00.apnic.net
nserver:    ns.apnic.net
mnt-by:     MAINT-APNIC-AP
mnt-lower:  MAINT-DNS-AP
changed:    inaddr@apnic.net 19990810
source:     APNIC
  
```

Reverse Zone

Contacts

Name Servers

Maintainers (protection)

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Questions?

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Overview

- Introduction to Internet Operation
 - Internet Protocols – some revision
 - IP addressing basic
 - IP Routing basic
 - Introduction to DNS & RevDNS
 - **Infrastructure Security Fundamental**

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Security for an ISP

- An enterprise network security is relatively simpler comparing to an ISP's
 - Main objective: protecting the enterprise's network from outside intrusions
- An ISP's security concerns are much broader
 - Security measures will affect ISP's network operation
 - But security threats are real and need to be protected against
 - ISPs are very visible targets for malicious and criminal attacks
 - Must protect themselves
 - Must help to protect their customers
 - Must minimise the risk of their customers from becoming problems to others on the Internet

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Security for an ISP

- No network is ever fully secure or protected
- There is always a RISK factor
- ISPs need to know how to use tools to **build resistance**
 - Resist attacks and intrusion attempts to their network
 - Resist long enough for internal security procedures to be activated to track the incident and apply counters

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First of all...

- Introduction to security issues
 - Attack type
 - Terms and definitions
 - Security goals and services
- Risk analysis and quantification

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Type of Attacks

- Eavesdropping
- Masquerading
- Man-in the middle

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Eavesdropping Attack

- Clear text data exchange between source and destination
- Hackers/attacker will be in the middle (On the network)
- Sniff all clear text packet
- Used tools i.e protocol analyzer, promiscuous LAN card and PC

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Eavesdropping Attack (Cont)

Possible solutions are:

- One time password (OTP) to protect password information (Not other data).
- Data encryption i.e SSL

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Eavesdropping Attack (Cont)

- Two type of encryption
 - Link encryption (L2)
 - On point to point link entire frame (PPP /HDLC) in encrypted
 - Packet payload encryption (L3)
 - Only Packet payload is encrypted so it could be routed across L3 network or Internet
 - Example encryption RC4, DES, 3DES, AES
- Packet payload/L3 encryption is most common in Internet because only source and destination will do encryption/decryption

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Masquerading Attack

- Hacker/attacker spoof someone's identity
- Change source address (L2 or L3)
- Typically combine with DoS attack
- Use specialized software to generate packet/frame changing IP/MAC address of the originating PC
- Masquerade identity with authorized external source IP/MAC to get access

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Masquerading Attack (Cont)

- To control returning traffic attack might be combined with routing attack
- To initiate DoS attack hacker/attacker use internal address as source of packet
- In L2 network ARP spoofing is used to redirect L2 traffic

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Masquerading Attack (Cont)

- Need packet integrity check to handle masquerading attack
- Common solution is to use hash function
- Hash function use a one way hash with a shared key
- Only the device have the key will be able to create/verify hash value
- Most common hashing functions are MD5, SHA

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Man-in-the Middle Attack

- Attacker can sit in the middle of source and destination and initiate following two types of Man-in-the Middle attacks:
 - Session reply attack
 - Session hijack attack
- For both type of attack hacker need access to the network (i.e LAN/Internet)

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Man-in-the Middle Attack (Cont)

- Session hijack attack
Attacker insert him in to an established connection between sender and receiver and hijack the connection. Require a specialized TCP sequence number generating software.
- This is much easier in UDP, ICMP protocol (No ACK)

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Man-in-the Middle Attack (Cont)

- To handle these type of attack generate randomize TCP sequence number
- TCP sequence number is 32bit so around 2 billion possible combination. Practically impossible to guess next sequence number.
- VPN is best option to protect this attack.

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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Man-in-the Middle Attack (Cont)

- Session reply attacks
Attacker intercepts traffic from the source to the real destination by combination of spoofing and routing attack. Then pretend to be the real destination, capture all information from source and redirect it to real destination including TCP session reply.
- Attacker use Java or ActiveX script to initiate this attack

Reference: Complete Cisco VPN Configuration Guide

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What is Key

- A key is used to protect information.
- A data key can performs a similar function as a password used to protect a user account or a PIN (personal identification number) used with your ATM card.
- Normally, the longer the key, the more secure the protection it can provide.

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Key Types

- There are two basic types of keying solutions:
 - Symmetric
 - Asymmetric

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Symmetric Keys

- Symmetric keys use the same single key to provide a security function to protect information
- An encryption algorithm that uses symmetric keys uses the same key to encrypt and decrypt information
- The algorithm used is fairly simple, very efficient and very quick

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Symmetric Keys

- Encryption algorithms and standards that use symmetric keying are: DES, 3DES, CAST, IDEA, RC-4, RC-6, Skipjack, and AES.
- MD5 and SHA are examples of hashing functions that use symmetric keying.

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Symmetric Keys distribution

- Pre-sharing keys— We can pre-share the keys, out-of-band between the two devices.
- Using a secure connection— We can use either an existing secure, protected connection to send keys across, or create a new protected connection to send keys across.

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Asymmetric Keys

- Asymmetric keying uses two keys:
 - Private keys
 - Public keys
- The private key is kept secret by the source to decrypt data sent to it
- The public key is given out to other by the source devices to encrypt the data to be sent to the source

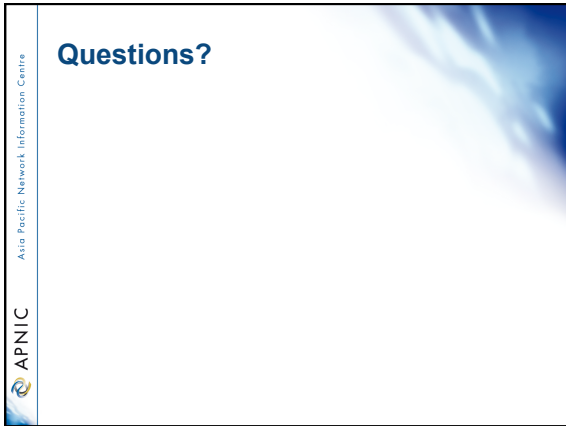
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Asymmetric Keys example

- RSA public keying—to produce digital signatures and to perform encryption
- Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
- Diffie-Hellman (DH)— This is used by the Internet Key Exchange (IKE) protocol in IPsec to exchange keying information.

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Questions?



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Thank you!

