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Riverstone Security and Operations Guide - Introduction

Starting with its humble beginnings as a DOD science project and now a vital part of many businesses and lives, the Internet has grown from a tinkerer's toy to an indispensable part of modern life. Private citizens and businesses have both come to depend upon the Internet and power that it brings to enhance productivity and lives.

The glue that holds the Internet together is the collection of IP routers that push packets around at nearly the speed of light and groom and route traffic as required. The security and stability of Internet routers is critical as the failure of any one device on the public Internet can lead to interruption or disruption of service or performance to large numbers of people and systems.

This document offers advice on best current practices, standard operating procedures and common sense tips for securing and managing Riverstone Networks routers on the public Internet. Since Riverstone products are widely used by service providers, the information in this document is directed towards helping to solve some of the unique challenges that service providers face.

This document is meant to be a supplement to the Riverstone Product Manuals and other documentation available on the Riverstone website. It is assumed that the reader has proficiency with IP Routing concepts in general and has at least basic familiarity with Riverstone products. Other documentation that is of particular use for those ramping up on the Riverstone family includes:

- The User's Guide: contains descriptions and examples of concepts and configurations
- The CLI Guide: Syntax and reference for specific commands
- The Message Guide: Descriptions and explanations of system messages

Many aspects of managing network infrastructure entail using software and tools external to the router itself. When possible, this document will demonstrate the use of open-source tools in the examples and will provide brief details of the configuration and use of the tools when doing so will add value and save you time. This document will focus and recommend IETF and IEEE standards for any protocols suggested. By using standards based protocols and technologies on your network you can position your network for continued growth and flexibility.

The Internet is a living entity that is constantly in a state of flux. Because of this, this document will be updated as needed to reflect the current nature of network technologies and practices. You may want to check with the Riverstone website, http://www.rstn.net, to ensure that you have the latest version of this or any other Riverstone documents.
Riverstone Security and Operations Guide - Riverstone Hardware

Product Overview

This chapter provides an overview of all the switch/routers in the RS product line. If you're new to the RS platform, then this section will provide a brief overview to the RS product line.

RS 1000

The RS 1000 is a 2U switch/router with a 12Gb backplane and supports 128Mb of RAM. The RS 1000 has redundant AC or DC power supplies. The RS 1000 is a 2-slot modular chassis. Most of the linecards between the RS 1000 and RS 3000 are interchangeable. The supported linecards for the RS 1000/RS 3000 are listed in the table below.

RS 1000/3000 Supported Linecards

- 2 Port Gig-E Card
- 2 Port Gig-E (MPLS Enabled) Card
- 2 Port HSSI Card
- 8 Port 10/100 FX Card
- 16 Port 10/100 TX Card
- 2 Port Multi-rate WAN Card (Supports 4 T1s/2 T3s or a mix of both)
- 2 Port Multi-rate ATM Module (Supports 2 T3/E3/OC3 or a mix of each)

RS 3000

The RS 3000 is a 2U switch/router with a 20Gb backplane and supports 128Mb or 256Mb of RAM. The RS 3000 has redundant AC or DC power supplies. The RS 3000 is a 4-slot partially modular chassis. Two of the slots filled with fixed 16-port 10/100 TX cards. The linecards between the RS 1000 and RS 3000 are interchangeable. The other two slots are free for any of the supported linecards listed above.

RS 8000

The RS 8000 is a 5U switch/router with a 32Gb backplane and supports 128Mb, 256Mb or 512Mb of RAM. The RS 8000 has redundant AC or DC power supplies, and redundant control modules (CM). The RS 8000 is an 8-slot modular chassis. Seven of the slots are available for linecards unless a redundant CM is used which leaves six usable slots. The linecards available for the RS 8000 are listed below.

RS 8000/8600 Supported Linecards

- 2 Port Gig-E Module
- 2 Port Gig-E MPLS Module
- 8 Port 10/100 FX Module
- 8 Port 10/100 TX Module
- 16 Port 10/100 FX Module
- 16 Port 10/100 TX Module
- 2 Port Multi-rate WAN Module (Supports 4 T1/E1/ 2 T3 or a mix of both)
- 2 Port Channelized T3 Module
- 2 Port POS OC3/STM1 MPLS Module
- 4 Port POS OC3/STM1 Module
- 2 Port POS OC12/STM4 Module
- 2 Port Multi-rate ATM Module (Supports 2 T3/E3/OC3 or mix of both)
- 1 + 1 OC-12c/STM-4 ATM Module
RS 8600

The RS 8600 is an 11U switch/router with a 64Gb backplane and supports 128Mb, 256Mb or 512Mb of RAM. The RS 8600 has redundant AC or DC power supplies, redundant control modules (CM) and redundant switch fabrics. The RS 8600 is a 16-slot modular chassis. Fifteen of the slots are available for linecards unless a redundant CM is used which leaves fourteen usable slots. The RS 8600 linecards are interchangeable with the RS 8000 and are listed in the table above.

RS 16000

The RS 16000 is a 5U switch/router with a 170Gb backplane and supports 256Mb or 512Mb of RAM. The RS 16000 has redundant AC or DC power supplies and redundant control modules (CM). The RS 16000 is an 8-slot modular chassis. Seven of the slots are available for linecards unless a redundant CM is used which leaves six usable slots. The linecards that are available for the RS 16000 are listed in the table below.

RS 16000 Supported Interfaces

- 8 Port Gig-E Card
- 4 GbE Lambda on uni-directional CWDM (long range)
- 64 Port 10/100 Module

RS 38000

The RS 38000 is a 20U switch/router with a 170Gb backplane and supports 256Mb or 512Mb of RAM. The RS 38000 has redundant AC or DC power supplies, redundant control modules (CM) and redundant switch fabrics. The RS 38000 is NEBS Level 3 compliant. The following linecards are currently available for the RS 38000:

RS 38000 Supported Linecards

- 4 Port Gig-E Module
- 4 Port Gig-E MPLS Module
- 8 Port Gig-E Module (Oversubscribed)
- 24 Port 10/100 TX Module
- 32 Port 10/100 Module
- 4 Port Multi-rate ATM Module (Supports 4 T3/E3/OC3 or mix of each)
- 4 Port Channelized T3 Module
- 4 Port POS OC3/STM-1 MPLS Module
- 4 Port POS OC12/STM-4 MPLS Module
- 1 Port POS OC48/STM12 Module
- 1 Port CWDM Module (4 Lambdas over one Fiber)

Speeds and Feeds Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>RS 38000</th>
<th>RS 16000</th>
<th>RS 8000/8600</th>
<th>RS 1000/3000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Height</td>
<td>35 in</td>
<td>8.75 in</td>
<td>8.75 / 19.25 in</td>
<td>2.8 in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88.9 cm</td>
<td>22 cm</td>
<td>22 / 49 cm</td>
<td>8.3 cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rack Units</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 / 11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line Card Slots</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7 / 15</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switch Fabric Capacity</td>
<td>170 Gbps</td>
<td>170 Gbps</td>
<td>32 / 64 Gbps</td>
<td>12 / 20 Gbps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Routing Performance</td>
<td>90 Mpps</td>
<td>90 Mpps</td>
<td>15 / 30 Mpps</td>
<td>4.6/9.5 Mpps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/100 Ethernet, Max Ports</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>112 / 240</td>
<td>32/64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This matrix summarizes each device in the Riverstone platform and the maximum number of interfaces each chassis can take.

### Brief Architecture Overview

The RS platform is a switch/router that uses a flow-based design. The products were designed to have routing capabilities as fast and robust as their switching capabilities and to have the two layers interoperate seamlessly. The RS platform is also heavily hardware-based with all forwarding and most features implemented in system ASICs that allow forwarding at wirespeed and features that can be turned on without a performance hit.

When a packet reaches the RS, the destination MAC address is compared to the pool of local MAC addresses. If the MAC address is equal to one of those in the pool, then the RS concludes the device that sent the packet was forwarding it to its default gateway and therefore, the packet will be routed. If the destination MAC address is not local to the RS, then the device is sending it to another device on the local subnet and the packet is switched.

Once it is determined that a packet is to be routed, the packet goes to the CPU to be processed and a flow entry is recorded on the ingress linecard. Only the first packet of each flow goes to the CPU, except in HRT mode in which no packets reach the CPU.

After the flow entry is recorded, all of the rest of the packets in that flow pass through the ASIC at wirespeed. After passing through the ASIC, the packet crosses the backplane in 32-byte cells. The cells have a 4-byte pseudo header that has the IP header information encoded very efficiently. All packets cross the backplane so latency and jitter is always consistent even when going between two ports on the same linecard.

The packet is reassembled on the output linecard including any media specific framing, and sent out onto the wire.

### Flow Modes

The RS employs several forwarding modes (also referred to as “flow modes”), depending on how much information in the packet header is consulted when creating a flow.

It is important to understand and use flow modes efficiently on the RS. Different flow modes are appropriate in different places of the network as devices serve different purposes. To scale a network, a hierarchy is used. As you move closer to the core of the network, at the top of the hierarchy, fewer services and more performance is required. Services and traffic grooming should be applied as close to the edge as possible.

As indicated earlier, the first packet of each flow is sent to the CPU to be processed. By shifting the RS into different flow modes, you are changing the way the RS defines a flow. Seven possible fields can be taken into consideration when defining flows. The table below lists each mode and the fields that are considered when defining the flow while in that mode. The flow modes discussed below apply to routed traffic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source IP Address</th>
<th>HRT</th>
<th>Destination-based</th>
<th>Host-flow based</th>
<th>Application Based</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### HRT Mode

HRT (Hardware Route Table) mode is the highest performance mode. A copy of the FIB (Forwarding Information Base) is stored on each linecard that is in HRT mode. The destination IP is compared to the routes in the local FIB as they pass through the linecard and if a route does not exist, the packet is dropped. Packets never reach the CPU in this mode. The linecard can hold up to 200k routes locally. HRT mode is intended for use in a core/core-edge position on the network that is designed to just pass large amounts of packets quickly across the backbone. HRT is appropriate when high-touch services requiring deep packet header checking are not required. If a feature is applied that is incompatible with HRT, the linecard will automatically move out of HRT mode. HRT can be enabled using the command:

```
rs(config)# hrt enable slot <slot number> | all
```

### Destination Mode

Destination Mode is another high performance mode. It defines a packet flow using the destination IP address of the packet. This mode is most applicable when destinations are limited to a core set of popular websites or data stores. The source IP address and layer-4 ports are ignored in this mode so service based and source based ACLs cannot be applied to ports in this mode. Ports in this mode can be positioned for a core-edge or distribution layer of the network. A port can be put into destination forwarding mode using the command:

```
rs(config)# ip set port [port] forwarding-mode destination-based
```

### Host Mode

Host Mode defines a flow with the source and destination IP addresses. A unique source address will cause a packet to reach the CPU in this mode. This is intended for the distribution and access layer of the network.

```
rs(config)# ip set port [port] forwarding-mode host-flow-based
```

### Application Mode

Application Mode defines a flow with the source and destination IP addresses as well as the source and destination layer-4 ports. This is the most specific definition of a flow and will cause the largest amount of packets to reach the CPU. Application mode also allows for the greatest level of granularity with ACLs and other application level features such as QoS and flow-based rate-limiting. This mode is intended to be used at the access layer of the network. Since this is the default mode, if the command below is in the configuration, it will need to be negated to enable application mode.

```
rs(config)# ip set port [port] forwarding-mode destination-based|host-flow-based
```

### Control Modules

There are several control modules (CM) available for the Riverstone platforms. In the RS 8000/8600 the two bottom-most slots can accept CM modules. The CM slot can only accept a CM, but the CM/1 slot can accept a redundant CM or a linecard. With the RS 16000, slots 1 and/or 2 at the bottom can accept a CM module. The table below lists the CM, processor and maximum amount of RAM each can handle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control Module</th>
<th>Processor</th>
<th>Mhz</th>
<th>Max Ram</th>
<th>Platform</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CM2</td>
<td>R5000</td>
<td>199Mhz</td>
<td>265Mb</td>
<td>RS 8x00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM3</td>
<td>R7000</td>
<td>299Mhz</td>
<td>512Mb</td>
<td>RS 1000/3000/8x00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM4</td>
<td>R7000</td>
<td>373Mhz</td>
<td>512Mb</td>
<td>RS 3x000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM5</td>
<td>SR71010A</td>
<td>606Mhz</td>
<td>768Mb</td>
<td>RS 8x00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The RS 1000 and RS 3000 do not have modular CMs.
System Flash

The RS platform has two different types of flash, internal and external. The internal flash is where the startup configuration and certain other files created during the operation of the router reside. It can be referenced from the CLI as the bootflash: file system.

The external flash is where the ROS images and a backup of the startup config are stored. In all platforms, except for the RS 1000 and RS 3000, the external flash is a PCMCIA card that is inserted into the CM. There are two PCMCIA slots on each CM. One external flash card is required for each CM in use. When using redundant CMs it is required the flash cards have the same version of code chosen on both CMs.

It is recommended that at an extra flash card be added to each router deployed. This extra space allows for flexibility when upgrading system code and can be used as a hot spare should a file system become corrupt.

Currently flash cards are found in three sizes, 8Mb, 16Mb and 32Mb. The 8Mb flash is no longer sold since the current versions of ROS code are larger then 8Mb. The 8.x train of code is also available in a "lite" version which excludes CMTS and ATM OC12 specific code, which puts its total size less then 8Mb. This is to provide migration to the 16Mb flash cards and will be the only version of code that will be available in a "lite" version. Recently a 32Mb flash card was approved and will be made standard later this year.

The file system can be manipulated using the 'file' and 'copy' commands. This allows you to do things such as backup configs onto the local flash. More information can be found on the 'file' command in the CLI Guide.
System Software (ROS)

ROS (Rapid OS) is the operating system that runs on the RS devices. The same version of code (literally the same file) can be loaded on all RS devices from the RS 1000 to the RS 38000 (see notes above regarding system image size and flash card size limitations). This makes version management much easier across a network of Riverstone devices. ROS has been out in the field for over five years and has been tested and hardened thoroughly in many different environments.

There are usually a couple of branches of each code version, but there are not different branches for different feature sets. New features and functionality are always being added. It would be irresponsible to imply that any code is perfect and without flaws, so of course bugs are always being fixed as well. When new features or bug fixes are significant, a new branch is formed. Then in the next major revision of code, all of the branches are merged and the process starts over again.

ROS 3.x

ROS 3.x is an early and stable release sometimes found running on devices. If the product is working with the existing functionality, it is recommended that it probably be left alone (If it isn’t broke, don’t fix it). Some of these products may be EOL (End of Life) and the hardware requirements of newer code will need to be considered carefully. This is an unsupported train of code.

ROS 5.x

This version of code included many important routing enhancements for several protocols. Some BGP updates include support for confederations, refinement of route-maps and regular expressions, and MEDS. On the OSPF front, support for NSSA (Not so stubby areas), passive interfaces, and opaque LSAs (RFC 2370) were added. Many IS-IS enhancements were added also such as 3-way adjacency support, improved show commands and redistribution with other protocols.

ROS 6.x

The ROS 6.x train included several branches adding key hardware support including WAN interfaces, HRT mode and the RS 1000/3000 platforms. The ROS 6.x train brought new ATM support to the code including the ATM OC12 blade, bridging over ATM, and 802.1q tags over ATM. Support for the multi-rate WAN card, that supports T1 and T3 interfaces, also was added. In addition, HRT mode was added to enable wire-speed performance at higher speed interfaces such as 10 Gig-E. Significant features added include rapid spanning tree, Cisco HDLC framing, and RFC1483 support.

ROS 7.x

The ROS 7.x train incorporates new hardware support and features 6.x train, with the routing enhancements of the 5.x train. On the security front, SSH, unicast reverse flow check (RPF), and DOS rate limiting functionality were added.

ROS 8.x

ROS 8.x code included MPLS support as well and further refinement of routing protocols. Some of the MPLS features include support for the hardware enabled MPLS cards, Martini layer-2 tunnels, OSPF-TE, IS-IS-TE, RSVP-TE and LDP. Also other features such as unnumbered interfaces and the first phase of the Hitless Protection System (HPS) were implemented.

ROS 9.1

ROS 9.1 code is currently GA and major features include hardware-based TLS support for point-multipoint layer-2 MPLS tunneling, MPLS fast reroute, and E-LSPs. This release also contains drivers for the 5th generation ASIC hardware that enables many features including rate-shaping on Ethernet. Other enhancements, directly related to operations, include RADIUS and TACACS+ authentication links to the privilege command set and...
large new set of options for troubleshooting with the ping command.

**ROS 9.3**

The ROS 9.3 release is available as of December 1, 2002. Major features for this code branch include full support rfc2547-bis (BGP VPNs) and multiple routing instances, VPLS enhancements, and hardware support for the CMS, and POS OC3 for the 1000/3000.
Initial Setup and Configuration

This chapter will discuss the basic tasks and operations that should be completed when installing an RS.

Putting Things Together

Installing the Cards

If you are installing a new RS system, and haven't opted for pre-configuration services, then all the pieces arrive in separate boxes. A couple of tips for installing the cards into the slots of each platform:

---

**RS 1000/3000**

- You will need to install the cards into the RS 1000/3000 **before** rack mounting the unit.
- The unit must be powered off when you are installing the cards. They are not hot-swappable.
- Make sure you have an ample-sized work surface and a good light source when you remove the cover and install the cards.
- Always make sure that if a card is not installed into a slot that there is faceplate covering the slot. This ensures proper airflow and protection for the internal components.
- Carefully read the Getting Started Guide for details. The latest revision can be found at [http://www.riverstonenet.com/support/support_docs.shtml](http://www.riverstonenet.com/support/support_docs.shtml).

**RS 8000/8600**

- You will want to **rack the unit before installing the cards or power supplies** to reduce the weight of the unit.
- The CM/1 slot may either a backup CM or any normal line card, but the CM slot must have a CM card installed into it.
- When installing the cards, do so one at a time. Do not remove all of the faceplates at once and then insert the cards. They provide some support for the chassis.
- Always make sure that if a card is not installed into a slot that there is faceplate covering the slot. This ensures proper airflow and protection for the internal components.
- Carefully read the Getting Started Guide for details. The latest revision can be found at [http://www.riverstonenet.com/support/support_docs.shtml](http://www.riverstonenet.com/support/support_docs.shtml).

**RS 16000**

- The RS 16000 has an integrated midplane that provides connectivity for front- and rear-insertion components. Control Modules, line cards, and the fan assembly are inserted from the front of the chassis; the power supplies are inserted from the rear of the chassis.
- You want to keep the dust plugs in the small form-factor pluggable (SFP) fiber optic transceivers until use to ensure clean optics.
- The RS 16000 can hold up to three power supplies, two are required for redundancy. Do not mix AC and DC power supplies.
- A CM must be installed in either Slot 1 or Slot 2. If there is a CM installed in Slot 1, then Slot 2 is available for a standard linecard. If Slot 1 is covered with a faceplate, then Slot 2 must have a CM installed.
- You will want to rack the unit before installing the cards or power supplies to reduce the weight of the unit.
- When installing the cards, do so one at a time. Do not remove all of the faceplates at once and then insert the cards. They provide some support for the chassis.
- Always make sure that if a card is not installed into a slot that there is faceplate covering the slot. This ensures proper airflow and protection for the internal components.
- Carefully read the Getting Started Guide for details. The latest revision can be found at [http://www.riverstonenet.com/support/support_docs.shtml](http://www.riverstonenet.com/support/support_docs.shtml).

**RS 38000**

- Slot 8 must be occupied by a CM card while Slot 9 is available for a redundant CM or a standard linecard.
Installing the Flash Cards

All of the RS platforms, except for the RS 1000/3000 use external PCMCIA flash for storage in each Control Module (CM). The ROS system software is stored along with a backup copy of the startup configuration on the PCMCIA flash card. The external flash is not hot swappable until ROS v9.0, so ensure that the power is off when you insert the flash card. It doesn't matter which slot you insert the flash card into, slot0 or slot1.

Next to the slots are black plastic ejectors. Before you insert the card into the slot, pull the ejector straight and push it in. Then insert the flash card. When it is inserted securely, the black ejector will come forward. Once the card is inserted, bend the ejector back so that it isn't in the way.

A Word on Physical Security

This document focuses on logical security across a network, but physical security cannot be emphasized enough. The old system operator's adage of "physical access is root access" is very true. You can use all of the firewalls, ACLs and secure-id cards as you can bear, but if an attacker had physical access to the equipment, none of it will be effective.

At the lowest level, control of the power to the devices is paramount. With a minimal amount of thought, boot disks and escape sequences are easy ways into routers and servers. Allowing for a bit more time, resetting a jumper, stealing a disk, or removing the system battery, could also lead to disastrous results. Ensure that your equipment is in locked, monitored rooms, in locked cabinets, and ensure that internal employee physical access is limited also. History is rich with stories of "inside jobs". Physical security is often overlooked, but easily implemented with a little awareness, and is the foundation upon which any reasonable security plan is built upon.

Powering Up For the First Time

This is a checklist of things applies to a new system out of the box or to moving or reinstalling an existing system.

Consoling In

Now that you have your RS physically installed and secured, its time to power it up and get it into service. The first step before booting up the RS is to plug into the console. The console port is a straight through DB-9 connector. The default parameters are 9600-8-N-1. It is possible to change the bit rate to any speed between 9600 and 38400, but it is probably best for everyone involved if you leave the serial bit rate set to the default 9600 unless you have good reason to do otherwise. If you boot up the RS and see garbage characters, try adjusting your bit rate up to 38400 on your terminal program as it is the second most often used setting next to the default.

Observing the Boot Process

Go ahead and power up the device once you are consoled in and observe the boot process. If there are any initial problems, your first messages will be displayed on boot up as the RS counts its memory, initializes the linecards and loads the system software into memory.

A normal boot sequence for an RS 3000 is shown below:

```
Boot Software Version prom-2.1.0.3, Built May 31 2000 16:51:30
Processor: R7000 rev 2.1 [0x2721], 292 MHz, (bus: 83 MHz), 128 MB DRAM
  I-Cache 16 KB, linesize 32. D-Cache 16 KB, linesize 32.
  L2-Cache 256 KB, linesize 32, cache enabled.
Mounting 16MB flash card ... Done
Autoboot in 2 seconds - press ESC to abort and enter prom
using link: bootsource
link pointed at file:/pc-flash/boot/ros9101/
source: file:/pc-flash/boot/ros9101/
Loaded version file
Loading kernel (base 0x80001000, size 50528)
```
The system software, or ROS, is stored on the external PCMCIA flash card inserted into the CM (or on the internal flash card if the device is a RS 1000/3000). If the flash is empty or corrupt for some reason and the ROS does not load, then the RS will drop into NVRAM mode. There is also an opportunity to enter NVRAM mode during the boot process. A message will be displayed that says "Autoboot in 2 seconds - press ESC to abort and enter prom" and if the escape key is pressed the RS will enter NVRAM mode. Once in NVRAM mode, you will want to setup the RS to boot off a TFTP server. Configuration in NVRAM mode is accomplished by setting variables and then rebooting for them to take effect. Entering 'set' will display the current values of all the variables that can be modified.

```
rs-boot> set
brkcmd = "/ @epc 1"
dataz = -b [-b -h -w -d]
dlecho = off [off on lfeed]
```
Booting Off a TFTP Server

The key variables that we are concerned with to get us operational are as follows:

```
netaddr = 0.0.0.0
netmask = 255.255.255.0
bootaddr = 0.0.0.0
bootsource = link:/pc-flash/boot/bootsource
```

The netaddr/netmask variables will configure the management, or en0 port, which is located on the CM. You need to connect that port to a network that has a TFTP server available, or directly into a machine that does, such as a laptop. In our example, we are plugging the en0 port into another switch to access a TFTP server sitting elsewhere on the network. If you are connecting, via Ethernet, directly into a machine running TFTP service, then setting the gateway variable is not required. It is required that the netaddr be set to an IP address in the same subnet as the machine your connected to though.

The example below shows the required variables being set and a successful boot-up from a TFTP server.

```
rs-boot> set netaddr 192.168.2.5
rs-boot> set netmask 255.255.255.0
rs-boot> set bootaddr 192.168.5.113
rs-boot> set bootsource ros80011
rs-boot> reboot
Rebooting. . .
```

Boot Software Version prom-2.1.0.3, Built May 31 2000 16:51:30
Processor: R7000 rev 2.1 [0x2721], 292 MHz, (bus: 83 MHz), 128 MB DRAM
I-Cache 16 KB, linesize 32. D-Cache 16 KB, linesize 32.
L2-Cache 256 KB, linesize 32, cache enabled.

Mounting 16MB flash card . . . Done
Autoboot in 2 seconds - press ESC to abort and enter prom

source: tftp://192.168.5.113/ros9101
File: version (872 bytes)
Build location: host 'cmbuild0' by 'mhaydt'
After the RS boots up, you will want to load the ROS software onto the flash. The procedure to do this is documented at the end of this chapter.

**Setting System Passwords**

Now that the RS is booted up, the first step is to set the system passwords. By default you can telnet, ssh and console into the RS without passwords. There are three different passwords that can be set on the RS: login, enable and diag. The login password is used for console, telnet and ssh access to the router. It is advisable that passwords be set for each level. Passwords need to be sufficiently long and obscure that they cannot be easily guessed and it is best for them to not be words or common slang that would appear in a dictionary. Avoiding common “hacker” phrases and mathematical constants is also advised. It is further recommended that passwords include capital letters, numbers and punctuation. All punctuation can be used in passwords except for the double quote ("), and the question mark (?), as these characters are interpreted by the CLI.

Each respective password can be set using the command:

```
rs(config)# system set password [login|enable|diag] <password>
```

**Configuring the Management Port (en0)**

The management port, or en0, is the 10/100 TX port on the CM next to the console DB-9 connector. It acts like an ethernet NIC, and does not have ASICs to route traffic. All traffic that is passed through the management port is handled by the CPU, so you will want to keep its use limited to network management functions. The en0 port also cannot be routed. This means that routing protocols running on the RS will ignore it. To configure this port you would use the command:

```
rs(config)# interface add ip en0 address-netmask <ip-address/netmask>
```

Since en0 is a management port, it is recommended that ACLs be applied to it to limit access to all except for monitoring stations. An example of this is displayed below using 172.16.1.10 as the monitoring station:

```
rs(config)# acl en0-filter permit ip 172.16.1.10
rs(config)# acl en0-filter deny any any
rs(config)# acl en0-filter apply interface en0 input
```

**Choosing System Code (ROS)**

Now that you have your management port configured, we can consider what ROS is running on the RS. The command:

```
RS# system show version
```

Will show the version as indicated in the output below:
Even though choosing a software version for the RS is much easier than many comparable devices in the field, it is still extremely important to test and certify a version for use within your network. Even though ROS software is thoroughly tested before it is released, it does contain thousands of features. It is impossible to test every feature in every scenario and every combination.

To properly test a version of code, a thorough test plan should be written up that details each of the features that will be utilized and a lab scenario should be setup as close to true operating conditions as possible. If a bug is found while working through the test plan, the impact of the bug should be measured against the requirements of the device and determined whether the specific version of code is suitable for deployment on your network. Then a ticket should be opened with the RTAC and the bug should be tracked until it can be fixed in a future release of code. Once a bug is found it should always remain a part of the test plan to ensure that it doesn't creep into a future version. The testing phase cannot be stressed enough as the result of an unstable router in a production environment can be very painful.

Code can be obtained, with a support contract, from the web address http://www.riverstonenet.com/support/support_sw_download.shtml

**Upgrading the ROS**

After selecting the version of code that is going to work best in your environment you will need to load it onto a TFTP server residing somewhere on the network. TFTP is a very insecure protocol and it is advised that access to it be heavily restricted or even when you're not using the service that it is shut down on the server in which it's running.

Before you load code onto the flash card, you need to determine if you have enough space to do so. The command:

```
rs# file dir slot0:
```

displays the amount of free space on the flash card in slot0: (use slot1: if that's where your flash card is inserted).

The output below shows that about 40% of the 16Mb flash card is utilized currently by the number of 512k blocks in use. This means there is just less than 10Mb free on the flash card.

```
Version: 2 Blocks total: 32004, used: 12959
 d--------- 0 0 1 2001-02-26 17:10:50 ../
 drwxrwxrwx 0 0 1 2001-02-26 17:12:45 boot/
```

If there is not room on the flash card for a second flash, and you aren't using a secondary flash card in your CM, then you will need to delete the image to make room for the new one. You can get a list of images with the command:

```
rs# system image list
```

Images currently available on Master CM
slot0: ros8003L (version 8.0.0.3 L) [selected for next boot]

The output shows us there is a single image on the flash called 'ros8003L'. It also tells us that the image is selected for next boot. To free up space you are going to need to delete this image. The system will not allow you to delete a chosen image so you must first choose 'none' for the next boot.

```
rs# system image choose none
```

Choosing image on Primary CM
%SYS-I-CHS_NONE_OK, no image chosen for reboot

Now you are able to delete the image:

```
rs# system image delete ros8003L
```

Deleting image from Primary CM
Image ros8003L (version 8.0.0.3 L) Are you sure you want to remove this image [no]? yes
Removing image (takes a while) . . .
kernel: 100%
Image removed.
Now you can see the flash card has plenty of free space for the new image:

```
rs# file dir slot0:
Version: 2 Blocks total: 32004, used: 12
d--------- 0 0 1 2001-02-26 17:10:50 ./
drwxrwxrwx 0 0 0 2001-02-26 17:12:45 boot/
```

Now to load the new image you will use the command:

```
rs# system image add 192.168.5.113 ros9101
Download image 'ros9101' from host '192.168.5.113'
download: done
Adding Image (Primary CM)
to local image ros9101 (takes a while) . . .
save:
kernel: 100%
images/ssr_atm: 100%
images/ssr_cmhe: 100%
images/ssr_wan: 100%
images/ssr_atm155_sar: 100%
images/ssr_atm155_fpga_400: 100%
images/ssr_atm155_fpga_800: 100%
images/ssr_mpls_dp_tmac: 100%
images/ssr_mpls_mc_tmac: 100%
images/ssr_atm622_amac: 100%
images/ssr_atm622_sar_rcv: 100%
images/ssr_atm622_sar_xmt: 100%
images/ssr_atm622_sar_diag: 100%
done
Image checksum validated.
%SYS-I-BOOTADDED, Image 'ros9101' added.
```

```
rs# system image choose ros9101
Choosing image on Primary CM
Making image ros9101 (version 9.1.0.1) the active image
for next reboot . . .
%SYS-I-CHS_OK, image successfully chosen
```

If you have two CMs installed, then the backup will automatically be upgraded when you update the primary. After you are done loading the code, you can reboot the RS to start operation with the new code.

**Configuring the Loopback Interface**

The loopback interface on a router is a logical interface that never goes down. It’s also a single IP address that essentially acts as the identity of the router and can be reached via all physical interfaces. As you setup more services you will see that the loopback interface plays many roles in many different services. By default, the RS already comes with the loopback interface of 127.0.0.1, however in order to use the loopback interface to access the router or for different services, you must add another, routable IP address to it. To add additional loopback addresses you would use the command:

```
rs(config)# interface add ip lo0 address-network <ip-address>
```
Setting Up Secure Services

Secure Access to the Router

Once a router is in operation, you need to ensure that you can access it securely. There are several different ways to access the router including telnet, SSH and the console. Also, there are a couple of protocols for external authentication. This chapter will discuss how to secure those services.

Telnet

Telnet (RFC 854) is a protocol that enables remote access to the CLI. Telnet is enabled by default on port 23. Use of telnet is being reduced where possible on the Internet because the content stream can be "sniffed" by an unauthorized party. The content of the telnet session includes the username and password that would compromise the sovereignty of the router if obtained by an unauthorized party. Access to the telnet port (23) can be restricted by IP source IP address, but since IP spoofing is possible, the best defense is to either use telnet only on a secure private network, or not use it at all. SSH is the alternative and is discussed below.

You can monitor your telnet server via the following commands:

```
rs# system show users
rs# system show telnet-access
```

To restrict access to the telnet server, you can create and apply a service ACL. In the example an ACL, called 'restrict-telnet', is created which allows the local network of 192.168.1.0/24 and then the ACL is applied to the telnet service. This ACL effectively blocks all traffic to port 23 that is not from the 192.168.1.0/24 network and logs the denied packets.

```
rs(config)# acl restrict-telnet permit ip 192.168.1.0/24
rs(config)# acl restrict-telnet apply service telnet logging deny-only
```

To turn off the telnet server all together in favor of the SSH server, you should use the command to turn the SSH server on first:

```
rs# ssh server generate-key rsa
```

Then turn off the telnet server with the command:

```
rs(config)# system disable telnet-server
```

While on the router you can telnet to another host or router by using the telnet command:

```
rs# telnet <hostname>
```

SSH

SSH stands for Secure Shell and provides telnet-like access to the RS CLI. SSH is a preferred alternative to telnet since the session is encrypted. SSH will first ensure that its connecting to the correct device by comparing its public host key to a list stored locally. This ensures that there is not a device in the middle of the conversation passing along traffic between the two speakers transparently. To continue the server connection, the client then encrypts a random number using both the public host and server keys and sends the encrypted number to the SSH server. Both the SSH server and client will use this random number as a key to encrypt communications in their session.
The important detail that SSH brings is that the session is encrypted before a username or password is transferred across the wire. Riverstone currently implements SSH v1.5. SCP, which stands for secure copy, is also slated for a future release. SCP allows you to securely copy files, such as the router configuration, by encrypting them.

You can monitor your SSH server via the following commands:

rs# system show users
rs# system show ssh-access

To restrict access to the SSH server, you can create and apply a service ACL. In the example an ACL, called 'restrict-ssh', is created which allows the local network of 192.168.1.0/24 and then the ACL is applied to the SSH service. This ACL effectively blocks all traffic to port 22 that is not from the 192.168.1.0/24 network and logs the denied packets.

rs(config)# acl restrict-ssh permit ip 192.168.1.0/24
rs(config)# acl restrict-ssh apply service ssh logging deny-only

There are several ways to access a router via SSH.
From a Unix machine you can use:
A product from SSH Communications Security - http://www.ssh.com
or a free variant such as OpenSSH - http://www.openssh.com/
And from Windows there are several products available including:
SecureCRT from Van Dyke Technologies, Inc - http://www.vandyke.com/
or a free variant such as Teraterm - http://www.zip.com.au/~roca/ttssh.html

While on the router you can SSH to another host or router by using the slogin command:

rs# slogin <user@hostname>

Securing the Console

The first step to securing the console is to physically restrict access to it. As mentioned earlier, if a persona non grata can access your console port, they can just as easily cycle the power on the RS and perform a password recovery procedure. The console password is set automatically when you enable the login password:

rs(config)# system set password login <password>

Authenticating with RADIUS

RADIUS (Remote Authentication Dial In User Service) is a client-server protocol used for managing access to your routers most recently specified in RFC 2865 and RFC 2866. RADIUS originally started out as a way to authenticate dialup modem users (thus the name), but since has grown into a full-blown, standards-based protocol for authentication and accounting for any sort of remote access. RADIUS was developed completely within the IETF and is fully open and standards based. The next major revision of authentication and accounting protocols, Diameter, is also based on RADIUS.

Setting the Server

The first step to using RADIUS on your network is to setup a RADIUS server. Several examples for different RADIUS servers are given later on. The next step is to specify the server IP address, and if possible, backup server IP address on the router. The command to set the servers is:

rs(config)# radius set server <server-ip>
rs(config)# radius set server <server2-ip>

Using centralized authentication servers is an important step in building a scalable infrastructure for controlling access to your routers. RADIUS is a UDP based protocol for a couple of different reasons. RADIUS is built for resiliency and speed. This means that a router isn't going to wait around for a failed RADIUS server and will quickly move to retransmit the authentication request to a backup server. Otherwise, you could be waiting several minutes for a RADIUS server to timeout using TCP's built in timers. RADIUS also doesn't require the overhead of TCP for handshakes and acknowledgements.

Setting the timeout

This also means that several timers have to be built into the RADIUS protocol itself. In ROS you can configure two different timers both at a global and server level. The first timer is the server timeout. This can be specified globally with the command:

rs(config)# radius set timeout <1-30>
The default is 10 seconds. Usually this is a comfortable number unless there is latency between the router and the RADIUS server in which the timeout value may need to be increased. The timeout can also be specified per server using the command:

```text
rs(config)# radius set server <server-ip> timeout <1-30>
```

The server level command has a higher priority then the global command for the particular server that it is specified for. This means that you can set the global level commands that will apply to your servers, but if you need to change a setting for a specific server down the road, you can do so without disrupting your configuration for the other servers. The maximum number of RADIUS servers that can be specified is four.

Setting the Deadtime

Another timer you can specify is the 'deadtime' period. This is the number of minutes a server should be ignored after it has failed. The default deadtime setting is zero. This means that if your primary server fails, the router fails over to the secondary server, and the secondary fails, it will immediately retry the primary again. This default setting is most appropriate for a dual server setup. If the primary server fails and it fails over the secondary, and then the secondary fails, it can only try the primary again, which may or may not be back in service. Either way you have nothing to gain by ignoring one of the servers. The deadtime period is set at a global level using the command:

```text
rs(config)# radius set deadtime <0-1440>
```

And set at a per server level using the command:

```text
rs(config)# radius set server <server-ip> deadtime <0-1440>
```

The deadtime option becomes more useful when you have more then two servers and perhaps one is less reliable then the others or perhaps is being used for other services which are more important then RADIUS. This way if the server times out because its busy rather then outright failure, then it can be ignored for a period of time. A server can be ignored for up to 24 hours.

Setting the Retries

Another option that comes into play when considering a scenario where a server is not responding is the number of times the router will retry the authentication. Since the protocol is UDP, there isn't an acknowledgement for packets and the router will have no way of knowing if the packet reached the RADIUS server. The default number of times the RS will retry a server is three times. This is fine for most cases. The retry number is set globally using the command:

```text
rs(config)# radius set retries <1-10>
```

And per server using:

```text
rs(config)# radius set server <server-ip> retries <1-10>
```

Locking it Down

The RADIUS key is a string that is shared between the router and the RADIUS server. It can be up to 128 characters long and is encrypted as it travels between the router and the RADIUS server. The RADIUS server uses a combination of the key and the source IP address the packet came from to verify the packet came from a legitimate network device. Since the source IP address is easily spoofed, it becomes even more important to ensure that the key is sufficiently complex and cannot be easily guessed. Like other commands the key can be defined globally or on a per server basis using the commands:

```text
rs(config)# radius set key <key>
```

and:

```text
rs(config)# radius set server <server-ip> key <key>
```

As mentioned earlier, the RADIUS server also takes the source IP address into account when it receives and authentication request. Because of this there is an option to specify the source IP address you would like all packets to originate from. This is also useful when considering the accounting aspect of RADIUS since the logs generated will all have the source IP address (or hostname the IP address is mapped to) listed in the log file. It is recommended that the source IP address option be set to the loopback address of the router also. The command that will originate all packets to all of the RADIUS servers from a specific source IP address is:

```text
rs(config)# radius set source <loopback-ip>
```

And if there is a specific RADIUS server that needs to view refer to the router using a different IP address, the specific source IP address sent to
that server can be set using:

```plaintext
radius set server <server-ip> source <source-ip>
```

There are commercial RADIUS servers, such as SecurID that support one time passwords that are generated at a regular interval, such as 60 seconds, and based on a random source. This can provide an extremely effective defense against password attacks. The question of whether you need to add this layer of security is an exercise left to the reader.

### Setting the Ports

The default RADIUS ports used by the router and defined in RFC 2865 and RFC 2866, are 1812 for RADIUS authentication and 1813 for RADIUS accounting. Originally they were defined as ports 1645 and 1646 respectively, but they conflicted with other ports which were defined earlier with the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority (IANA). Some RADIUS server implementations may use the older ports as a default, so you will want to ensure that the ports with your RADIUS server match the defaults of the device making the authentication requests, or change the ports on the device. This can only be done on a per server level not globally using the command:

```plaintext
radius set server <server ip> auth-port <port> acct-port <port>
```

### Activating RADIUS

RADIUS can be enabled for the initial logging into the router as well as for enable mode. To enable RADIUS for the initial login, use the command:

```plaintext
radius authentication login
```

And to enable RADIUS authentication for enable mode use the command:

```plaintext
radius authentication enable
```

The final, but very important option you want to set for RADIUS authentication is the last-resort. If the router cannot reach any RADIUS servers and the last-resort isn't set, you're not going to be logging into that router. Usually if the router cannot contact the RADIUS servers, there is something wrong with the network and it is going to be a really bad time to not be able to access your router. The last-resort option indicates what is supposed to happen when none of the RADIUS servers can be reached. It can be used to deny all requests, which is probably going to be the case anyway, allow all requests, which isn't a very secure option, or to fall back on the respective system passwords set on the router. The latter is a good choice. This way you can always ensure that you will be able to access the router in a secure method even if the RADIUS servers cannot be reached. Set the last-resort option with the command:

```plaintext
radius set last-resort password
```

Make sure that your passwords are properly set also using the commands:

```plaintext
system set password login <password>
system set password enable <password>
```

Finally, RADIUS authentication is activated using the command:

```plaintext
radius enable
```

You will want to make sure that you have all of your options set (especially your last-resort) and your RADIUS server(s) reachable before you enable RADIUS. Its also advisable that if you are enabling RADIUS remotely that you leave an enabled session open to the router and use another session to verify that it is functioning properly before logging out.

### Using RADIUS Accounting

The accounting part of the RADIUS protocol is defined in RFC 2866. In the context of routers, (as opposed to modems) accounting is used to keep track of the commands entered. The commands are usually logged to a separate detail file for each router into separate records. Each record includes the command typed, the date and time, the user that typed it, and the router it came from. In total this generates nine lines of log file for each command. There are many variations of the type of information which can be recorded via RADIUS accounting. The table below shows the command and describes the information that will be logged by each one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Logged Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>radius accounting command level 5</td>
<td>Config mode commands are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radius accounting command level 10</td>
<td>Enable mode commands are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radius accounting command level 15</td>
<td>Exec Level commands are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radius accounting snmp active</td>
<td>SNMP set to the active config are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radius accounting snmp startup</td>
<td>SNMP set to the startup config are logged</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
radius accounting system info All messages are logged
radius accounting system warning Warning level messages are logged
radius accounting system error Error level messages are logged
radius accounting system fatal Fatal level messages are logged
radius accounting shell all Start and end of any event that starts a shell

After you determine the level of detail that you need to log for your routers you can pick commands a la Carte from the table above to suit your needs. For example, if you are very active on your routers you may just want to log the commands entered into config mode to make for manageable logs and you use SNMP to configure interfaces, so you log that activity also. A suggested command set that provides a middle ground of logging so you don't miss anything important, but shouldn't be overwhelming is below.

```
rs(config)# radius accounting command level 15
rs(config)# radius accounting snmp active
rs(config)# radius accounting snmp startup
rs(config)# radius accounting system warning
rs(config)# radius accounting shell all
```

It is also suggested that the logs are parsed at a regular interval for key commands that could affect the network.

**Setting up Cistron RADIUS**

This config details the installation and setup of Cistron RADIUS, which is freely available at http://www.radius.cistron.nl/. This is the most accessible RADIUS server available today. The original Livingston server is now only available to Lucent customers, but is still widely used, so its installation is detailed below. A newer version of Cistron called FreeRADIUS is still in beta, and other servers such as Steel-belted RADIUS are commercial products. There are also alternatives such as the Cistron derivative ICRADIUS which uses MYSQL as a back-end, but these are outside the scope of this document. This installation and setup is performed on a Linux box, so some of the commands may use Linux specific flags, but the radius daemon should be platform independent.

**Installing Cistron RADIUS**

After downloading the archive from the website, installation should be painless. Unzip the archive and cd into the directory first:

```bash
# gunzip -c radiusd-cistron-1.6-stable.tar.gz | tar xvf -
# cd radiusd-cistron-1.6.4
```

Then copy the 'Makefile' for your particular OS from the src directory.

```bash
# cd src
# ls
# cp Makefile.OS Makefile
```

Then run make

When you run 'make install', the binaries are placed into /usr/local/bin and /etc/raddb is created for the configuration files. The noteworthy configuration files consist of:

- Users Security and authentication information for each user
- Naslist Lists the routers, associates them to a nickname and defines the type of device they are
- Clients Lists all of the routers and associates them to their respective encryption key

First lets setup our clients file. For our setup above, we will place the following into the clients file:

```
# Client Name Key
#--------------------------
10.0.0.1 secretkey
```

To setup the naslist file for the above setup we will place the following entry:

```
# NAS Name Short Name Type
#---------------- ----------- --------
10.0.0.1 secure-rs1 other
```

The user file is the most complex file of them all. There are numerous options available for authenticating users, with most of the options only being relevant to dial-up access. We will demonstrate three of the available options relevant to our setup, local passwords, local encrypted passwords and using the /etc/passwd. Unless using the users file for authentication elsewhere, you should ensure the existing configuration in the users file is commented out or deleted.

Local Password entries for users noc and admin, which uses clear-text passwords, an insecure option, this file should have very restrictive permissions:
Authenticating off the `/etc/passwd` file where users are already stored, which doesn't leave any way to differentiate what users can log into the server which the passwd file is stored and what users can log into both the server and all of the routers that are authenticating from the server.

```
local Auth-Type = Local, Password = "secret1"
admin Auth-Type = Local, Password = "secret2"
```

Even though the passwords are encrypted, the can be cracked, so restrictive permissions are recommended:

```
noc Auth-Type = System
admin Auth-Type = System
```

Local Encrypted Password entries for users noc and admin, which use encrypted passwords, which is the most secure option with the best control.

```
noc Auth-Type = Crypt-Local, Password = "Mw5$6kt7pYWtx3s/4yw0.T6yG1"
admin Auth-Type = Crypt-Local, Password = "Mtf$zbZpsriVnd5dKBNBA7ndlU/"
```

After you make any change to the users file you must `HUP radiusd` to reread the file:

```
kill -1 `cat /var/run/radiusd.pid`
```

### Running RADIUS

To start RADIUS, type `/usr/local/bin/radiusd`. Some of the available handy switches for RADIUS are:

- `-a` - Accounting directory: Within the accounting directory, radiusd will create a directory for each one of the routers and store its detail file for that router in that directory. Default is `/var/log/radacct`
- `-l` - Log directory: This is where the radius.log file is stored. Default is `/var/log`
- `-C` - Checks the syntax of the config files
- `-y` - Details each user's incorrect password attempt. Can be handy for troubleshooting fat fingers.
- `-z` - Details each user's password, correct and incorrect. This is obviously a very insecure option.

### Authenticating with TACACS+

TACACS (Terminal Access Controller Access Control System) is a legacy authentication protocol used to manage access to network devices. It started out its life in ARPANET and BBN and since then commercial development has taken over and TACACS is largely a proprietary protocol, but is included in this document since many networks have existing TACACS implementations. An informational RFC (RFC 1492) was released in 1993 to compensate for the lack of documentation and copyright constraints.

There have been several revisions of TACACS over the years starting with the original protocol specification known just as TACACS. It is an insecure and obsolete protocol that does not support encrypted communications or accounting. TACACS is supported in ROS, but not recommended for production use.

The next revision of the TACACS protocol was known as Extended TACACS, which was as the name implies, an extension to the original TACACS protocol. Extended TACACS supported encrypted communications using a key, and accounting. This revision is not supported in ROS. Extended TACACS is also not compatible with TACACS+.

The latest revision of TACACS is known as TACACS+. TACACS+ is a complete rewrite of the original protocol and is very similar to RADIUS. This revision supports authentication, encryption via a key, and accounting.

The setup, operation and commands of TACACS+ are very similar to RADIUS. You may want to skim or skip this chapter if you just read the RADIUS section and want to avoid the déjà vu of it all.

### Setting the Server

To get the RS to start authenticating off an existing TACACS+ server, first the server must be specified. Setting a backup server is always a good idea of course. The maximum number of servers that can be set is five.

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set server <server-ip>
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set server <server2-ip>
```

### Setting the Timeout
The timeout setting specifies how long the RS should wait for the server to respond to the request. The default is 10 seconds. Usually this is a comfortable number unless there is latency between the router and the TACACS server in which the timeout value may need to be increased.

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set timeout <1-30>
```

The server level command has a higher priority then the global command for the particular server that it is specified for. This means that you can set the global level commands that will apply to your servers, but if you need to change a setting for a specific server down the road, you can do so without disrupting your configuration for the other servers.

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set server <server-ip> timeout <1-30>
```

### Setting the Deadtime

Another timer you can specify is the 'deadtime' period. This is the number of minutes a server should be ignored after it has failed. The default deadtime setting is zero. This means that if your primary server fails, the router fails over to the secondary server, and the secondary fails, it will immediately retry the primary again. This default setting is most appropriate for a dual server setup. If the primary server fails and it fails over the secondary, and then the secondary fails, it can only try the primary again, which may or may not be back in service. Either way you have nothing to gain by ignoring one of the servers. The deadtime period is set at a global level using the command:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set deadtime <0-1440>
```

And set at a per server level using the command:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set server <server-ip> deadtime <0-1440>
```

You can ignore a server for up to 24 hours.

### Setting the Retries

The retries value is the number of times the router will retry the authentication. Even though the protocol is TCP based, unless the 'single-connect' option is set, the RS will still make a connection for every request. The default number of times a server will be tried is three times.

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set retries <1-10>
```

And per server using:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set server <server-ip> retries <1-10>
```

### Locking it Down

The TACACS+ key is a string that is shared between the router and the TACACS+ server. It can be up to 128 characters long and is encrypted as it travels between the router and the TACACS+ server. The TACACS+ server uses a combination of the key and the source IP address the packet came from to verify the packet came from a legitimate network device. Since the source IP address is easily spoofed, it becomes even more important to ensure that the key is sufficiently complex and cannot be easily guessed. Like other commands the key can be defined globally or on a per server basis using the commands:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set key <key>
```

and:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set server <server-ip> key <key>
```

As mentioned earlier, the TACACS+ server also takes the source IP address into account when it receives and authentication request. Because of this, there is an option to specify the source IP address you would like all packets to originate from. This is also useful when considering the accounting aspect of TACACS+ since the logs generated will all have the source IP address (or hostname the IP address is mapped to) listed in the log file. It is recommended that the source IP address option be set to the loopback address of the router also. The command that will originate all packets to all of the TACACS+ servers from a specific source IP address is:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set source <loopback-ip>
```

And if there is a specific TACACS+ server that needs to view refer to the router using a different IP address, the specific source IP address sent to that server can be set using:
Setting the Ports

The default TACACS ports used by the router is 49. This can be changed on a per server level using the command:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set server <server-ip> source <source-ip>
```

Activating TACACS+

TACACS+ can be enabled for the initial logging into the router as well as for enable mode. To enable TACACS+ for the initial login, use the command:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus authentication login
```

And to enable TACACS+ authentication for enable mode use the command:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus authentication enable
```

The final, but very important option you want to set for TACACS+ authentication is the last-resort. If the router cannot reach any TACACS+ servers and the last-resort isn't set, you're not going to be logging into that router. Usually if the router cannot contact the TACACS+ servers, there is something wrong with the network and it is going to be really bad time to not be able to access your router. The last-resort option indicates what is support to happen when none of the TACACS+ servers can be reached. It can be used to deny all requests, which is probably going to be the case anyway, allow all requests, which isn't a very secure option, or to fall back on the respective system passwords set on the router. The latter is a good choice. This way you can always ensure that you will be able to access the router in a secure method even if the TACACS+ servers cannot be reached. Set the last-resort option with the command:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus set last-resort password
```

Make sure that your passwords are properly set also using the commands:

```
rs(config)# system set password login <password>
rs(config)# system set password enable <password>
```

Finally, TACACS+ authentication is activated using the command:

```
rs(config)# tacacs-plus enable
```

You will want to make sure that you have all of your options set (especially your last-resort) and your TACACS+ server(s) reachable before you enable TACACS+. Its also advisable that if you are enabling TACACS+ remotely that you leave an enabled session open to the router and use another session to verify that it is functioning properly before logging out.

Using TACACS+ Accounting

The table below shows the command and describes the information that will be logged by each one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting command level 5</td>
<td>Config mode commands are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting command level 10</td>
<td>Enable mode commands are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting command level 15</td>
<td>Exec Level commands are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting snmp active</td>
<td>SNMP set to the active config are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting snmp startup</td>
<td>SNMP set to the startup config are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting system info</td>
<td>All messages are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting system warning</td>
<td>Warning level messages are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting system error</td>
<td>Error level messages are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting system fatal</td>
<td>Fatal level messages are logged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacacs-plus accounting shell all</td>
<td>Start or end of any event that starts a shell</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After you determine the level of detail that you need to log for your routers you can pick commands a la carte from the table above to suit your needs. For example, if you are very active on your routers you may just want to log the commands entered into config mode to make for manageable logs and you use SNMP to configure interfaces, so you log that activity also. A suggested command set that provides a middle ground of logging so you don't miss anything important, but shouldn't be overwhelming is below.
It is also suggested that the logs are parsed at a regular interval for key commands that could affect the network.

**NTP - Network Time Protocol**

A question that has been asked since the early days of the Internet always has been "what time is it anyway?" Keeping time on a network has always been an objective and has produced a long history of time algorithms and protocols.

To find out more about the history and research side of NTP, check out the website of Dr. David Mills. Dr. Mills has been involved with the Internet since participating in DARPA contracts in the seventies and eighties and protocols he developed have evolved to NTP. http://www.eecis.udel.edu/~mills/

The importance of keeping accurate time on a network is often underestimated. It would not be possible to correlate events with accounting logs and perform any sort of meaningful security or incident analysis without correct and consistent time across all of your network devices.

For instance, let's say that you receive a subpoena from the State's Attorney’s office, seeking information in a stalking investigation. All that is available is an IP address local to your network and a timestamp. After looking up the IP address, you realize that it belongs to an analog modem pool. Your next step is to correlate the IP address with the RADIUS logs from your modem pool. You search through the logs and find that no one was logged onto that IP address at that time. Perplexed you look into the situation a bit closer and realize that the time on the RADIUS server is off by years. All of your logs are now useless since you cannot differentiate between the 3542 users that have used that IP address during the month.

Having an accurate NTP infrastructure across your network can make all the difference.

There are currently four versions of NTP available. V1 and V2 are depreciated and not used any longer, V3 is the de facto standard on the Internet and V4 is the newest version still being developed. The RS platforms support versions V1, V2 and V3. V4 will be implemented in a future release.

Since V1 and V2 are largely not used any longer, the remainder of this chapter will focus on NTP V3.

**Building a NTP Infrastructure**

The goal of NTP is not to synchronize all of the servers that are running the service to each other, but to set time as close to universal coordinated (UTC) as possible, or "true time" as it is sometimes called. The algorithms work best when the server has multiple time sources to compare time against and derive what it feels is closest to UTC. NTP works this way because inevitably a time source is going to have the wrong time. When this happens, the client is able to determine, through comparisons, that the time source has a bogus time and is able to compensate for that. Within the NTP protocol, there are many significant and complex algorithms to cope with many different situations including bogus time propagation and server failure.

However, when in a controlled environment, such as your own local network, there are times when you just want to know what time it is. To simplify this process, Simple Network Time Protocol (SNTP) was developed and is specified in RFC 1361. The NTP implementation found in ROS is based upon SNTP. This means that you will need to build a NTP infrastructure to provide time services down to your network clients.

NTP, like most things, scales best using a hierarchical design. Each level of the hierarchy is known as a stratum. At the top of the hierarchy are the stratum 1 time servers. These servers set their clock via some external means such as an atomic, radio or GPS clock. A stratum 1’s clock is usually set within a few microseconds of "true time". The use of these servers is intended to act as a time source for stratum 2 servers that are servicing hundreds or thousands of clients. Clients should not contact stratum 1 servers directly as doing so does not scale and would have a negative impact on the stratum 1 servers.

Depending upon the size of your network, you will want at least two, if not three stratum 2 or 3 servers for your clients to synchronize to. If each of those servers have two external time sources each, and are setup in a peer configuration, then your network will have six external time sources to ensure an accurate time source for your clients. If you are running a very large network, you may want to invest in a GPS or radio clock (or two) and run your own stratum 1 servers. This will ensure the most accurate time available for your network.

**Configuring the Time**

Before you enable the NTP client on the RS, you should set the time and time zone that is appropriate. Even if your network extends across multiple time zones, it is recommended that you set all of the devices under your control to the same time zone to keep problem tracking and analysis simplified. Extending that recommendation it is recommended that you set all of your devices to the UTC time zone, also for reasons of simplicity. To set your time zone to UTC time use the command:

```
rsl(config)# system set timezone utc
```
To set it to Eastern time use:

```
rs(config)# system set timezone est
```

Or if in Japan:

```
rs(config)# system set timezone utc+9
```

Dealing with daylight savings time may be an issue if your time zone supports it. The RS provides a wide variety of options to setup daylight savings time including by date or by a specific day of the month. The following command sets daylight savings time for EST and changes it to EDT in 2002.

```
rs(config)# system set dst-changing system set dst-changing s-mo 4 s-wk 2 s-dow 1 s-hr 2 s-min 0 e-mo 10 e-wk 5 e-dow 1 e-hr 2 e-min 0
```

Once you have determined your time zone and requirements as far as daylight savings time, go ahead and set the time and date on the RS using the command:

```
rs(config)# system set date year <year> month <month> day <day> hour <hour> min <min> second <sec>
```

Once your infrastructure is in place, you can enable NTP on your RS using the command:

```
rs(config)# ntp set server 192.168.2.2 version 3 source 10.0.0.1 interval 1
```

### Configuring Secure Routing Services

Routing is the lifeblood of the Internet. Exchanging prefixes that reveal where networks are located and the best paths to those networks is what brings everything together. If the routing process is compromised, then the basic functionality of the entire network is at risk. This section will discuss some of the ways to preserve the integrity of network routing.

#### IGP Authentication

**OSPF**

As you scale your network, inevitably an IGP such as OSPF or IS-IS will be implemented to lessen the manual labor that go along with static routes or to scale past the limitations of RIP.

One of the ways to enforce security within your IGP is to implement passwords between the neighbors or peers. There are a couple of steps in this process.

First, you need to create a key chain:

```
rs(config)# ip-router authentication create key-chain <name> key <key-value> type <primary>|<secondary> id <MD5-integer>
```

The number or string is simply a way to identify the chain. The key is the shared value (much like a password) and can be up to 16 characters in length. The default type is primary, which is fine. The id is used when your using MD5 (as you should be).

Once the key chain is created you can associate it with your IGP, in this case OSPF:

```
rs(config)# ospf set area <area> authentication-method <auth-type> key-chain <chain-name>
```

This command ties the area to the key chain and indicates what type of authentication to use, your choices are simple and MD5. MD5 should always be used since simple is clear text and inherently insecure. This also specifies the authentication for the entire area. All OSPF neighbors need to have this same key configured to operate with each other.

You can also do this on a per interface basis with the command:

```
rs(config)# ospf set interface <int-name> key-chain <chain-name> authentication-method <auth-type>
```

**IS-IS**
To turn on authentication when using IS-IS, the procedure is essentially the same except for the protocol specific command. For IS-IS the command to tie the key chain to the protocol is:

```
rs(config)# isis set area-key-chain <chain-name> authentication-method <auth-type>
```

You can also set the authentication up at the domain level with the command:

```
rs(config)# isis set domain-key-chain <chain-name> authentication-method <auth-type>
```

As with OSPF, any device that you wish to trade routes with also needs the same key configured.

**BGP Authentication**

Keeping along the theme that is important to authenticate your routing peers and neighbors, BGP also supports authentication. You can set the password on a per group or per peer basis. The password is MD5 based and can have a length up to 80 characters. BGP authentication is documented in RFC 2385.

To set the password on a group basis use the command:

```
rs(config)# bgp set peer-group <group-name> password <password>
```

And to set the password on a per-peer basis use:

```
rs(config)# bgp set peer-host <peer-ip> password <password>
```

**BGP Damping**

BGP is a highly scalable inter-domain routing protocol that has done a nice job keeping the Internet running for some number of years. It works by keeping track of and exchanging route prefixes for all Internet connected networks. Whenever a route is added or removed, that change is propagated to the thousands of BGP routers on the Internet. Since there are many thousands of routes (105k-110k at last check), if there wasn't a measure of route status stability, the BGP routers would be overwhelmed with adding and removing routes. Many times, this is caused by a physical circuit bouncing up and down. This causes the route to be withdrawn and added back into the table every time until the router is thrashing to keep up. To prevent this from happening and allow BGP to scale, route damping was implemented so that troublesome routes could be ignored.

There are two aspects to route damping of concern. The first is making sure that your routers are not adversely affected by flapping routes. The second is to ensure that other routes are not adversely affected by your flapping routes and dampen those routes.

**Damping Routes**

By configuring a route damping policy, the provider will protect against upstream route flapping. By configuring a hold-timer, all upstream announcements can be delayed for a defined period to allow the route to be truly validated as stable prior to advertisement to the upstream peer. Route damping itself is described in RFC 2439 and implementation is described in RIPE-229.

The route flap damping mechanism within the RS platform is based on an instability metric based upon the number of times a route has flapped over a given period. To begin with, a route starts out with a value of zero. Every time a route flaps, its instability metric increases by one. By default when the metric value goes above three, the route is no longer advertised (thus dampened). The instability metric is however decaying over time. Every 15 minutes (900 seconds) the current instability metric is halved. Once the metric falls below two the route is advertised again.

By default, the instability metric can go no higher than a value of 16, which is equivalent to 60 minutes. The diagram shown below illustrates the damping implementation on the RS platform. The spikes represent route-flaps, which are then decaying over time. Each time a flap is incurred a penalty metric is enforced.
The graph shows the damping process being applied to three prefixes of different sizes:

192.168.60.0/24
172.16.0.0/22
10.0.40.0/19

The first prefix, 192.168.60.0/24, is shown in red. As you can see from the graph, it flapped four times, after 3 minutes, 6 minutes, 11 minutes and 17 minutes. Each time a flap occurred, the penalty increased by one. After it was greater then 3, the route was suppressed. After 30 minutes, the penalty reached the re-use limit and it was not ignored any further. The commands to enable this level of damping for /24 and longer prefixes are:

```bash
rs(config)# ip-router policy create filter dampenlongprefixes network all between 24-32
rs(config)# route-map dampen-long permit 5 match-prefix filter dampenlongprefixes
rs(config)# route-map dampen-long set dampenflap reach-decay 1800 unreach-decay 1800 suppress-above 3 reuse-below 2 max-flap 4 keep-history 7200 state enable
```

The second prefix, 172.16.0.0/22, is shown in green. The graph shows a slightly more tumultuous time for this prefix. At 19 minutes, it flapped once, and at 28 minutes, it flapped a second time. Then the half-life timer expired after 15 minutes so it made it out of the danger zone. Then it flapped again at 45 and nearly made it two-thirds of the way through its half-life timer. Then it flapped two more times at 55 and 57 minutes, which put its penalty over 3. Then the prefix was suppressed for 15 minutes until the 70-minute mark when the penalty was halved and it fell under the reuse of 2 so it was not ignored any further. To implement this level of damping for /22s and /23s use these commands:

```bash
rs(config)# ip-router policy create filter dampenmediumprefixes network all between 22-23
rs(config)# route-map dampen-med permit 5 match-prefix filter dampenmediumprefixes
rs(config)# route-map dampen-med set dampenflap reach-decay 900 unreach-decay 900 suppress-above 3 reuse-below 2 max-flap 4 keep-history 7200 state enable
```

The third prefix, 10.0.40.0/19, is show in blue. This prefix took three hits right in a row at minutes 10, 13 and 15. It was suppressed for 10 minutes until the penalty was halved which put it under the suppress limit and could be heard again. To enable this level of damping for /21 and shorter prefixes:

```bash

```
Once your damping is in place you can check the status of it with the command:

```
rs(config)# bgp show flap-statistics all
```

An example of the output is below. Routes that are not dampened, but have flapped will be proceeded with an 'h' for history and those that are currently being dampened are proceeded with a 'd'.

```
BGP table : Local router ID is 10.0.0.2
Status codes: s suppressed, d damped, h history, * valid, > best
Origin codes: i - IGP, e - EGP, ? - incomplete

Network            Next Hop         Metric Last-Flap  Reuse     Path
-------            --------        ------ ---------   -----     ----
  *d 15/22           192.168.2.254   3.47   00:00:44    00:13:00  (2) 1 i
  *> 20/19           192.168.2.254   0.76   00:04:03              (2) 1 i
```

**Holding Routes**

Also to encourage stability of the BGP infrastructure it is a good idea to delay announcing your own routes until you can have some idea that they are stable. Suppressing the announcements for 60 seconds should be enough to ensure the announced prefixed aren't originating from a network on the other side of a violently flapping circuit. To delay the announcement by 60 seconds use:

```
rs(config)# bgp set peer-group out-delay 60
```

Or on at a host level (for external hosts only):

```
rs(config)# bgp set peer-host <ip-address> out-delay 60
```

If you are using the 'out-delay' option with IBGP/internal announcements, only apply it at the group level, not the host level.

**Prefix Aggregation**

Another way to contribute to the goal of BGP stability and help fight route table bloat is to aggregate your routes. There are few valid reasons for someone assigned a /19 of address space to announce it as 32 /24s. By announcing the aggregate, you are shielding the rest of the Internet from the ups and downs of your own network.

**Nailing Up Announcements**

You may also want to consider nailing up your announcements depending upon your topology. For instance, if you are multi-homed, and simply announcing a /19 down both circuits, then you could bind the announcement to the loopback so it was never withdrawn. Since the loopback won't ever be in a down state, the announcement will never be withdrawn. If one of the circuits goes down, then the announcement physically cannot be advertised via that provider any longer and will be withdrawn from the global routing table.

If the situation arises, where a subnet, of which you are announcing the aggregate, becomes unreachable within your network, this should be fine. Even though the subnet is unreachable or flapping, telling the rest of the Internet is not going to improve the situation since there isn't an alternate path for the traffic anyway. At worst, the case could be that you repair the circuit causing the network to flap and find that your downtime needs to persist for another few hours until the other routers stop damping your announcement. To nail up an announcement you can use the following commands:

```
rs(config)# ip add route 1.88.0.0/19 gateway 127.0.0.1 blackhole
rs(config)# bgp advertise network 1.88.0.0/19
```

**4.2.4 Access Control Lists (ACLs)**

Next to physical access control, ACLs are fundamental building blocks in most well thought out security policies. The ability to control and monitor what enters and leaves your network is the definition of network security.

It is important to keep in mind that you use a router to move traffic, not to stop it. ACLs bring some firewall-like features to routers, but consider each situation carefully and make sure your using the right tool for the job.

Some of the well-known and accepted filtering practices found on the Internet today include:
Ingress Filtering

Ingress filtering as specified in RFC 2827/BCP 38 is highly recommended to not just secure your own network, but to ensure that other networks cannot be attacked from your network using spoofed source IP addresses. Many network attacks make use of spoofed source IP addresses to hide the identity of the attacked. If every network performed ingress filtering then attacks would be much easier to trace since the attacker would have to use a true source address. There won't ever be a time where all networks filter as they should, but you should do your part and encourage others to do the same.

If our address space that is assigned the network were 192.168.0.0/19, the commands to implement ingress filtering on our Internet connected interface would be:

```bash
rs(config)# acl ingress-filter permit ip 192.168.0.0/19 any
rs(config)# acl ingress-filter deny ip any any log
rs(config)# acl ingress-filter apply interface <ip-int> output
```

Filtering Unallocated IP Space

IP space is allocated by the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority to the regional internet registries (RIRs). The top level RIRs are:

- ARIN - American Registry for Internet Numbers (http://www.arin.net)
- RIPE - Re‘seaux IP Europe´ens (http://www.ripe.net)
- APNIC - Asia Pacific Network Information Centre (http://www.apnic.net)

There are also incubating RIRs such as AfriNIC and LACNIC.

Once a prefix, usually a /8, is assigned to a RIR, then that RIR will begin making allocations from that subnet to regional networks. If the prefix has not been allocated to the RIR though, then no traffic that originates from that prefix is going to be valid and is probably spoofed. For this reason, it is standard procedure to filter packets with unallocated IPs as their source address. The IP filter and route-maps to accomplish this are listed below. This list can be found at http://www.iana.org/assignments/ipv4-address-space.

```bash
rs(config)# ip-router policy create filter bogons network 0.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 1.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 2.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 5.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 7.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 23.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 27.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 31.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 36.0.0.0/7
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 39.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 41.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 42.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 46.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 49.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 50.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 58.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 59.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 60.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 67.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 68.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 69.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 70.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 71.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 72.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 73.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 74.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 75.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 76.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 77.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 78.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 79.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 82.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 83.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 84.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 85.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 86.0.0.0/8
rs(config)# ip-router policy add filter bogons network 87.0.0.0/8
```
Filtering Reserved IP Space

Another set of IP space that you want to filter is reserved IP space for the same reasons as unallocated space. For one reason or another, the following IP blocks have been reserved and should not ever be found on the public Internet. This type of filtering is documented in Bill Manning's document:

http://search.ietf.org/internet-drafts/draft-manning-dsua-08.txt

Miscellaneous Security and Performance Features

Fragments
IP allows a packet to be broken into smaller parts to compensate for different physical infrastructures along its path. While Ethernet allows for 1500 byte packets, a Gig-E port could support jumbo frames of up to 9000 bytes. When IP fragments a packet, the packet is split into smaller packets, but keeps the same IP header. The only difference is that the fragment offset field is changed. Control traffic on the RS is processed by the CPU (as with all routers). When the RS is bombarded with bogus IP fragments, the CPU can reach 100% utilization for as long as CPU tries to put them back together. To avoid this DOS attack there is a knob that allows the RS to drop IP fragments that are directed at the router:

```
rs(config)# ip dos enable fragments-attack-protection
```

**Rate Limiting Broadcast Traffic**

Since rampant control traffic can cause the RS problems, it is important to manage it effectively. The command:

```
rs(config)# ip dos rate-limit <protocol> <bps>
```

allows you to rate-limit the following control protocols:

- BGP (No default limit set)
- ICMP (25000 bits per second)
- LDP-Hello (No default limit set)
- LDP-Session (No default limit set)
- OSPF (No default limit set)
- RIP (No default limit set)
- RSVP (No default limit set)
- VRRP (25000 bits per second)
- Telnet (25000 bits per second)
- SSH (25000 bits per second)
- SNMP (25000 bits per second)

**IP Reverse Flows**

When in a flow mode other then HRT, each new packet of a flow is directed to the CPU for processing. Usually when a flow is initiated through the router, a response, initiating a reverse flow, will also be established. To cut down the number of flow setups you can use the command:

```
rs(config)# ip enable reverse-flow normal
```

This command will automatically create the reverse flow when the forward one is being set up, which is significantly more efficient than creating two separate flows on-demand.

Please note that this command is only appropriate for environments when traffic is symmetrical, i.e. the reverse flows will be established through the same RS as the forward flows.

**IP Reverse Path Forwarding**

IP reverse path forwarding is a feature that is used to prevent forged packets from going across the router. Forged packets are used in many network attacks and turning this feature on will verify the source address on all ingress packets and ensure that there is a corresponding route which is directed from the same interface.

```
rs(config)# ip enable reverse-path-forwarding interface <int-name>
```

<=Previous        RSO Home        Next =>
Monitoring Services

SNMP

Simple Network Management Protocol (SNMP) provides a standard framework for network management software to extract data and statistics from network elements. ROS fully supports SNMP versions 1, 2 and 3. This chapter will discuss basic setup and usage of SNMP and SNMP traps. For more information on SNMP on the RS platform, see “RS Platform Management” which can be found on http://www.nmops.org.

SNMP v1

SNMP v1, currently specified in RFC 1157, is the first version of SNMP and includes the MIB I and later the MIB II (RFC 1213) specifications which have become standard. SNMP v1 uses clear-text community strings and IP access lists for security so it is inherently insecure. Because of this, it is important to restrict access to SNMP via service level ACLs to only the appropriate systems on your network.

SNMP v2c

SNMP v2 came out in several different versions, none of which could agree on the security enhancements which were to be included in the protocol update. SNMP v2c included the new enhancements of SNMP v2, but kept the SNMP v1 insecure security model. Because of this, it is important to restrict access to SNMP via service level ACLs to only the appropriate systems on your network. SNMP v2 enhancements include a new SMI/MIB structure, new packet types and mechanisms for remote configuration. See RFC 1901-1908 for further details.

SNMP v3

SNMPv3, as specified in RFC 2271-2275, is supported starting in ROS v9.0. The major addition to SNMPv3 is the sometimes complex security model. Many options have been added to fully support the SNMPv3 standard.

SNMPv1/SNMPv2 Configuration

The first step for enabling SNMPv1/SNMPv2c on the RS is to set the community string. The community is very much a password and should be treated as such. This includes being sufficiently obscure from anything that could be found in a dictionary of any language, should include special characters, and be changed regularly. When setting the community string, you will also specify the privilege level of either 'read' or 'read-write'. If someone has 'read-write' access to your router, it is the same as having full enable access. To set the community:

```
r sak(config)# snmp set community <community-string> privilege <read|read-write> [v1 | v2c | both ] view [view-name]
```

In addition to setting the community, some of the basic SNMP Object IDs (OIDS) can be set via the CLI.

```
r sak(config)# system set name "System Name"
r sak(config)# system set contact "System Contact"
r sak(config)# system set location "System Location"
r sak(config)# snmp set chassis-id "System Serial Number"
```

5.1.5 Defining MIB Views

SNMP views can be configured for any version of SNMP on the RS. An SNMP view is a restricted subset of MIBs that can be defined and access controlled by being tied to a specific community (v1/v2c) or a specific user (v3). The syntax to create a view is:
rs(config)# snmp set view <view-name> oid <oid or name> type [included|excluded] store [non-volatile | permanent | readonly | volatile]

The view-name should probably be descriptive of the MIBs the view provides access to. The OID option can be a specific OID such as 1.3.6.1.2.1.15 for the BGP MIB, or it can be any one of the keywords for the MIBs. Some of the more useful keywords that can be used are listed in the table below. Warning: these keywords are case sensitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>iso</th>
<th>ospf</th>
<th>PingMIB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>org</td>
<td>bgp</td>
<td>TraceRouteMIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dod</td>
<td>rmon</td>
<td>IgmpStdMIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>internet</td>
<td>dot1dbridge</td>
<td>NotificationLogMIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>directory</td>
<td>rip2</td>
<td>Isis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mgmt</td>
<td>ianaiftype</td>
<td>MplsLsrMIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mib_2</td>
<td>IfMIB</td>
<td>MplsLSRNotifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>system</td>
<td>etherMIB</td>
<td>CapacityMIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interfaces</td>
<td>udpMIB</td>
<td>RsCmtsMIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ip</td>
<td>perfHistTCMIB</td>
<td>RsConfigMIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>icmp</td>
<td>radiusMIB</td>
<td>VrrpMIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tcp</td>
<td>udp</td>
<td>inetaddressMIB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The view syntax also allows you to specify whether the MIB should be included or excluded by defining the "type". The default is to include the MIB.

The "store" option is available under several different commands including the view command. There are four storage types:

Volatile -- The entry will be stored in the active configuration only (i.e., it remains in effect until the system is rebooted or you power down.). You will not be able to save the entry in the startup configuration even if you use the save startup command.

Non-volatile -- The entry will be stored in the startup configuration file.

Permanent -- The entry will be stored in the startup configuration file. It can be modified but not deleted through SNMP; but it can be modified and deleted through the CLI.

Readonly The entry will be stored in the startup configuration file. It cannot be modified or deleted by SNMP; but it can be modified and deleted through the CLI. This is the default.

The most secure of these options is the default option, readonly. This allows the SNMP privilege subsystem to be created and ensures that it is secure to possible unauthorized SNMP accesses.

Creating Access Groups

ROS 9.0 also brings the creation of SNMP groups. SNMP groups are defined so that SNMP users might belong to them. SNMP users will be discussed in a later section. Groups can be defined for any version of SNMP. The snmp set group command syntax is as follows:

rs(config)# snmp set group <group-name> <v1 | v2c | v3> level <auth | noAuth | priv> read [read-view] write [write-view] notify [notify-view] store [non-volatile | permanent | readonly | volatile]

SNMP access groups are most useful in the context of SNMPv3. The "level" option has three choices:

Auth - Auth specifies the AuthNoPriv security level where SNMP messages are authenticated, but not encrypted. This is not the most secure option.

NoAuth - Specifies the noAuthNoPriv security level. At this level, messages aren't authenticated or encrypted. This is a highly insecure option.

Priv - This specifies the authPriv security level where messages are authenticated and encrypted.

The whole reason to use SNMPv3 is to take advantage of the security features. The Priv option provides the highest security and should always be used if possible. The three view options, read, write and notify, allow you to specify defined views (as discussed in the prior section). The access to each view is set by each specific option. Therefore, if you defined the view for the capacity MIB you can assign read-only access to it for the group by specifying it after the read option. Or if you defined a view that included the capacity MIB, you could assign notify access to the MIB for the
group. The same applies for the write option.

The store option can also be specified for the groups command. This is discussed in more depth under the SNMP views section above. As stated above, the default option, readonly, is the most secure.

SNMPv3 Configuration

Creating Users

The first step in configuring SNMPv3 is to create a user to access the MIB data. The syntax is as follows:

```
rs(config)# snmp set user <username> group [group-name] auth-protocol <md5 | sha> password <auth-password> encryption-key [des-key] store [non-volatile | permanent | readonly | volatile]
```

Each user must belong to a group as defined in the last section and uses the group switch to do so.

The user options primarily include specifying which protocol the messages will be authenticated by (SHA-1 or MD5), the authentication password, and the encryption key for DES. DES is the only option for encrypting the message contents.

The store option can also be specified for the groups command. This is discussed in more depth under the SNMP views section above. As stated above, the default option, readonly, is the most secure.

A complete SNMPv3 configuration is listed below. This configuration first creates a view limited to interfaces and capacity. Then two groups are created, one called provisioning and one called noc-l1. Finally, users for each group are created and assigned their respective access to the MIBs.

```
rs(config)# snmp set view int-cap oid interfaces
rs(config)# snmp set view int-cap oid capacityMIB
rs(config)# snmp set group provisioning v3 level priv read int-cap write int-cap
rs(config)# snmp set group noc-l1 v3 level priv read int-cap notify int-cap
rs(config)# snmp set user provuser group provisioning auth-protocol MD5 password SecreTPasS encryption-key SecreTKeY
rs(config)# snmp set user nocuser group noc-l1 auth-protocol MD5 password SecreTPasS2 encryption-key SecreTKeY2
```

Enabling and Disabling MIBS

The RS allows you to enable and disable MIBs that are available for polling. This feature can streamline the time a management station takes to discover or walk the MIBs. A list of the MIBs that can be enabled and disabled are listed below:

- ATM-MIB Transmission statistics for ATM
- BGPv4-MIB Border Gateway Protocol V4 mib
- BRIDGE-MIB Transparent l2 bridging protocol mib
- CAPACITY-MIB Device capacity usage statistics
- CISCO-BGP-ACCOUNTIN BGP Accounting MIB
- CONFIG-MIB Configuration file management
- DOCS-BPI-MIB Cable Modem Baseline Privacy MIB
- DOCS-IF-MIB Cable Modem Interfaces MIB
- DS0-MIB Transmission statistics for DS0 serial line protocol
- DS1-MIB Transmission statistics for DS0BUNDLE serial line protocol
- DS0BUNDLE-MIB Transmission statistics for DS1 serial line protocol
- DS3-MIB Transmission statistics for DS3 serial line protocol
- DVMRP-MIB Distance Vector Multicast Routing Protocol
- EtherLike-MIB IEEE 802.3 detailed ethernet statistics
- FRAME-RELAY-DTE-MIB Frame Relay mib
- HARDWARE-MIB Chassis, environmental and inventory statistics
- IF-MIB Interfaces group: ifTable, ifXTable, ifStackTable
- IGMP-MIB Internet Group Membership Protocol MIB
- IP-FORWARD-MIB IP CIDR Route Table
- IP-MIB IP group containing global IP statistics
- LFAP-MIB Lightweight Flow Accounting Protocol statistics
- MAU-MIB IEEE 802.3 ethernet hardware control
- NOVELL-IPX-MIB Novell IPX MIB
- NOVELL-RIPSAP-MIB Novell RIPSAP MIB
- OSPF-MIB OSPF Version 2 mib
- POLICY-MIB Policy Configuration of filters/Access Control Lists
- PPP-BRIDGE-NCP-MIB Point to Point Bridge Control Protocol
- PPP-IP-NCP-MIB Point to Point IP Network Control Protocol
- PPP-LCP-MIB Point to Point Link Control Protocol mib
- PPP-SEC-MIB Point to Point Security mib
- RADIUS-AUTH-CLIENT Radius client protocol statistics
- RIPv2-MIB RIP Version 2 mib
The command to actually enable or disable a MIB is:

```
rs(config)# snmp set mib name <mib-name> status <enable|disable>
```

**SNMP Traps/Notifications**

Sometimes an event is important enough that you don’t want to wait for a network management station to poll a device to find out that it’s occurred. SNMP traps exist to provide that functionality. When a specific event occurs, the RS will send notification to a preset station letting it know about the event. The RS supports several different SNMP traps including:

- **Authentication:** Generic authentication traps
- **BGP:** bgpEstablished and bgpBackwardTransition traps
- **Environmentals:** temperature, fan, power supply traps
- **Frame-relay:** DLCI up/down traps
- **Link-up-down:** Link up/down traps
- **OSPF:** Sixteen different OSPF state traps
- **Spanning-tree:** newRoot and topologyChange traps
- **VRRP:** NewMaster and authFailure traps

All traps are enabled by default. To disable traps that you aren’t using or aren’t interested in, use the command:

```
rs(config)# snmp disable trap <trap-category>
```

To start using traps with your RS, make sure that a common community string is entered on your management station and that it is prepared to receive traps from the RS. To setup traps on your RS enter the command:

```
rs(config)# snmp set target <target-ip> community <community-string> status enable
```

If you are using ROS 9.0 or newer, then there are more options for the trap command:

```
rs(config)# snmp set target <target-ip> community <community-string> type [informs | traps] v3 [auth | noAuth | priv] status enable
```

**SNMP Managers**

There a lot of software available that can manage SNMP data effectively. Some of the large commercial SNMP managers are Aprisma Spectrum and HP Openview. Others are less complex and open source such as Big Brother, SNIPS (formerly NOCOL), Netsaint, OpenNMS, MRTG, and Cricket. Links for all of these packages can be found in the References section at the end of this document. One of the most versatile of these tools is MRTG. It can be used to graphically represent any number of SNMP values over time. The next section will show how to configure and use MRTG for your RS routers.

**MRTG**

The Multi Router Traffic Grapher (MRTG) is a tool used to monitor the traffic load on network-links. It is written in PERL and in use in thousands of production networks around the world. MRTG monitors OIDs, keeps logs and produces pretty graphs depicting the current activity. This can be used to monitor any number of values including CPU and memory utilization, current temperature and modem utilization. The most common usage is monitoring bandwidth utilization though. MRTG can be downloaded from Tobias Oetiker’s page at [http://people.ee.ethz.ch/~oetiker/webtools/mrtg](http://people.ee.ethz.ch/~oetiker/webtools/mrtg)

**Setup**

After downloading and installing MRTG, the setup should be relatively simple with the included ‘cfqmaker’ script. The script will poll the RS and
determine all of the operating ports and output a MRTG config file for you. The command syntax is:

```
# cfgmaker <community>@<rs-hostname> > mrtg.cfg
```

So to construct a config file for the RS at IP address 10.0.0.2 with the community of 'secret' the usage would be:

```
# cfgmaker secret@10.0.0.2 > mrtg.cfg
```

If `cfgmaker` fails to retrieve an interface that you want to graph bandwidth for properly, then you can find out the OID and edit the config file manually. The easiest way to determine the OID for the interface is to use `snmpwalk` from the net-snmp packet found at http://net-snmp.sourceforge.net (formerly known as ucd-snmp). Using `snmpwalk` you can use the command:

```
# snmpwalk 10.0.0.2 secret .1.3.6.1.2.1.2.2.1.2
```

to get a list of all of the available interfaces for monitoring. The output from an RS 3000 with a 2-port Gig-E card and a couple of vlans looks like this:

```
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.1 = Physical port: et.1.1
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.2 = Physical port: et.1.2
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.3 = Physical port: et.1.3
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.4 = Physical port: et.1.4
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.5 = Physical port: et.1.5
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.6 = Physical port: et.1.6
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.7 = Physical port: et.1.7
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.8 = Physical port: et.1.8
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.9 = Physical port: et.1.9
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.10 = Physical port: et.1.10
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.11 = Physical port: et.1.11
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.12 = Physical port: et.1.12
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.13 = Physical port: et.1.13
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.14 = Physical port: et.1.14
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.15 = Physical port: et.1.15
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.16 = Physical port: et.1.16
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.17 = Physical port: et.2.1
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.18 = Physical port: et.2.2
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.19 = Physical port: et.2.3
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.20 = Physical port: et.2.4
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.21 = Physical port: et.2.5
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.22 = Physical port: et.2.6
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.23 = Physical port: et.2.7
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.24 = Physical port: et.2.8
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.25 = Physical port: et.2.9
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.26 = Physical port: et.2.10
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.27 = Physical port: et.2.11
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.28 = Physical port: en0
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.29 = Physical port: en0
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.30 = Physical port: to-rs3k
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.31 = VLAN: DEFAULT
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.32 = VLAN: DEFUALT
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.33 = VLAN: DEFAULT
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.34 = VLAN: DEFAULT
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.35 = VLAN: DEFAULT
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.36 = IP interface: lo0
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.37 = IP interface: lo0
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.38 = VLAN: to-rs3k
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.39 = VLAN: research-subnet
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.40 = IP interface: to-3k1
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.41 = VLAN: SYS_L3_bsdsubnet
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.42 = IP interface: bsdsubnet
interfaces.ifTable.ifEntry.ifDescr.43 = IP interface: researchsub-int
```

If you wanted to monitor the OID for the Gig-E port, gi.3.1, looking at the output above you would use .33 since MRTG doesn't require the complete OID. An entry in the config file could look like this then:

```
Target[10.0.0.2_33]: 33:test@10.0.0.2:
MaxBytes[10.0.0.2_33]: 125000000
Title[10.0.0.2_33]: Traffic Analysis for Port gi.3.1
PageTop[10.0.0.2_33]: <H1>Traffic Analysis for Port gi.3.1</H1>
<TABLE>
<tr><td>System:</td> <td> in </td></tr>
<tr><td>Maintainer:</td> <td> </td></tr>
<tr><td>Description:</td><td>Physical port: gi.3.1 </td></tr>
```

There are many other options that you can set within the config file such as colors and the direction the graph is plotted. You will want to consult the MRTG documentation for additional details. The other minimal change you will need to make to your config file to get things operational is to define your Workdir. At the top of the config file you should have a line that states a directory where you want the data files to be output. This line could look like this for instance:

```
Workdir: /usr/local/apache/htdocs/mrtg
```

It's recommended that the directory be web accessible for maximum usefulness. Once you have all of the interfaces that you want to monitor in your config file you need to setup a system to run MRTG automatically and regularly to pull your data. This is usually done via a crontab file at 5-minute intervals. A generic crontab entry could look like this for instance:

```
5,10,15,20,25,30,35,40,45,50,55 * * * * /usr/local/mrtg/bin/mrtg /usr/local/mrtg/etc/mrtg/mrtg.cfg
```

If you find that you need to monitor many devices and that the polling process is slowing down, you may want to try splitting your device targets into different config files and shifting your polling for half of your devices 2 or 3 minutes over. An accompanied crontab entry could look like this then:

```
8,13,18,23,28,33,38,43,48,53,58 * * * * /usr/local/mrtg/bin/mrtg /usr/local/mrtg/etc/mrtg/mrtg.cfg
```

You also may want to look at RRDTool which is designed with speed and scalability in mind.

### Syslog

Syslog is a commonly found Unix logging daemon that supports remote log reception from network devices as well as the host that it is running on. Syslog can be used to aggregate log messages from many devices and allows the messages to be categorized into separate files by groups called facilities. There are several preset and reserved facilities including mail, debug, news, uucp and others. ROS supports eleven preset facilities, listed below.

- Kern Kernel Messages
- User User Messages
- Daemon Daemon Messages
- Local0 Reserved for local use
- Local1 Reserved for local use
- Local2 Reserved for local use
- Local3 Reserved for local use
- Local4 Reserved for local use
- Local5 Reserved for local use
- Local6 Reserved for local use
- Local7 Reserved for local use

Messages can also be grouped by severity. The RS supports four levels of messages:

- Fatal: Log only fatal messages
- Error: Log fatal and error messages
- Warning (default): Log fatal, error, and warning messages
- Info: Log all messages, including info.

When implementing aggregation of syslog messages it is recommended that they be divided up in some fashion. Logging all of the messages to the same file could become overwhelming and something could be missed during log analysis. How you split them up depends largely on your infrastructure and finding a common way to divide devices up logically. For instance, you could direct all the messages from all the devices in a city into a file. You could also direct all the messages from particular layers of the network, such as core routers, or customer access routers, into a file also.

### Configuring Syslog on the RS

Configuring syslog on the RS is very straightforward and completed in a single command with all of the arguments.

```
rs(config)# system set syslog level <level> facility <facility> source <source-ip> server <server-ip> buffer 50
```

The source IP address should be that of the loopback interface. This allows you to identify the RS using a single IP address.
The buffer command allows 50 syslog messages to be stored in memory for viewing. The default is 10. The messages can be displayed with the command:

```
rs# system show syslog buffer
```

**Setting up the Syslog Server**

Syslog comes with most every Unix variant by default and has a nearly standard configuration file. Our example uses a Linux server as the syslog server. First setup the `/etc/syslog.conf` file to indicate which messages should be routed to what files.

```
local0.* /var/log/core-routers
local1.* /var/log/sfo-access
local2.* /var/log/mia-access
*.error,*.fatal /var/log/rstn-fatal
```

Once syslog is configured, ensure that it is started with the `-r` flag, which indicates that it should listen for remote syslog messages on port 514.

**Monitoring Attacks**

So, what are we defending against anyway? Over the years, many attacks have evolved to exploit deficiencies in the various implementations of protocols and operating systems used on the Internet. Since there is no such thing as perfect software, inevitably security holes will be found. Many attacks work only against specific services running on specific operating systems. The best defense against attacks like these is to make sure you are running the latest stable version of the software and obtain patches from vendors when necessary.

The simplest type of attack is the denial of service (DOS) attack. Denial of Service attacks are defined as attacks that consume bandwidth or system resources on a target system or network to the point that functionality or performance is hindered, in some cases rendering systems unusable and unmanageable. Most attacks have tell-tale features that once identified, will allow you to take the correct defensive measures to prevent or stop the attack. The more you know about the attacker's tool kit, the better prepared and comfortable you are going to be to deal with it when that inevitable time comes.

Most known attacks involve the following techniques:

**Malformed Packets** - Forging packet headers in order to cause unexpected behavior, which is not handled properly. Examples include:

- Land Attack: source IP and destination IP set to be the same address in a forged packet
- TCP SYN Attack: source address of forged packet is an unreachable address

**Fragmented Packets** - Forging incorrect packets, which cause problems for devices that don't gracefully handle improper packets.

**Basic DOS** - Simply a flood of any type of traffic, from spoofed or real addresses. Usually the traffic is ICMP or UDP in nature.

**Directed Broadcast** - Forging packet headers in order to trick network devices into sending traffic to the device under attack (such as Smurf attacks).

**Distributed DOS** - Installing controllable clients onto compromised systems (known as "zombies") across the Internet and then instructing them to send large amounts of traffic towards a victim from a master host (such as Trinoo).

When discussing protection from attacks, two levels should to be considered:

- Protection for the RS itself
- Protection for devices on networks behind the RS

It is reasonable to expect the RS to be immune to attacks that exploit problems within the OS or to be patched quickly after they are found. You can also use the RS in a variety of ways using mixtures of ACLs and special features to defend the networks that it is connected to. Ultimately, the job of a router is to pass traffic. If your security requirements call for highly granular tools to restrict or interrogate network traffic, then you may want to consider a firewall. When all is said and done, using the right tool for the job will go a long way towards helping you sleep at night.

The rest of this section will discuss common exploits and attacks found on the Internet.

**Malformed Packets**

A malformed packet usually forges the source IP address in the header to create instability in the target system. Some operating systems and certain routers can be affected by a TCP exploit known as a land attack. A land attack sends SYN packets that have the source set to be the same
This attack relies upon a spoofed source address in the packet to work successfully. If you filter bogus source addresses at your ingress routers (as demonstrated in Chapter 4), then devices on your network will not be susceptible to this attack. This exploit is known as land, dope and latierra.


The TCP SYN attack exploits the basic way that TCP works. TCP is a connection-oriented protocol. To make the connection, a three-way handshake is performed. First, a SYN packet is sent to an open port or socket on the server to initiate the connection. In response, the server will send back a SYN-ACK packet back to the client to confirm the connection. The client will respond with a ACK packet to confirm the connection and the TCP session will become established. A TCP SYN attack works by sending a SYN packet with a spoofed source IP address. This causes the server to send a SYN-ACK response packet to a non-responsive IP address. The server will await a response for a period of time, anywhere from 30 seconds to 3 minutes. The server can only maintain a finite number of connections though. Once the connection queue is filled then no more connections can be made thus denying the service to any legitimate users.

The first step in avoiding this problem is to filter bogus address space. This will prevent many spoofed packets from reaching the network to initiate the connections. However, this will not prevent attacks with spoofed packets seeming to come from valid address spaces. To avoid SYN attacks against the RS from valid address spaces, you can use ACLs to limit access to the open ports such as telnet, SSH, and BGP. Instructions for this are in Chapter 4.

The RS is immune to the TCP SYN attack. It randomly drops half-opened connections to make space for new incoming connection requests. This prevents the half-opened connections from tying up the queue resource.

**Fragmented Packets**

When fragmented packets are sent, the IP stack copies them into a buffer. Under certain OS's, the system does not check the size of the packets before copying them to the buffer. In these cases, it is possible to overflow the buffer and either crash or reboot the system, or in some situations even execute arbitrary code on the target machine in a type of attack known as a Buffer Overflow Exploit.

The first line of defense is to obtain a patch from your vendor since it is reasonable to pass any fragments that are sent. The RS is not susceptible to this attack. The IP fragments attacks are also sometimes known as Teardrop, Syndrop, Overdrop, Nestea, Bonk, Boink, and Newtear.

Another older variation of the fragment attack is the notorious "Ping of Death". This attack sent an a ping packet with a data payload over 65507 bytes in size and it was quickly found that dozens of network devices would lockup or reboot in response. The RS, and most other OS’s are no longer vulnerable to this attack.

**Basic DOS**

The basic DOS doesn't bring anything special to the table really. It simply floods your bandwidth with ICMP or UDP traffic usually. The IP source address may be spoofed or it may not. This attack is also consuming the attacker's bandwidth also unless it is coming from a cracked machine. Aggressive filtering by your upstream and a report to the source's network should take care of this attack easily enough.

**Directed Broadcast**

The next step up in complexity for a DOS attack is the directed broadcast attack. This attack doesn't originate from the attacker’s network, but from an intermediary source, which also feels the burden of the attack within their egress traffic. The intermediary source is usually called the amplifier. To be an amplifier your network must have devices that respond to directed broadcast. The attacker will send an ICMP or UDP echo packet to the broadcast address and each device on the subnet will send an echo reply in response. The trick is that the source IP address of the original ping packet is forged to that of the victim. This then causes all of the response traffic to flood the victim's network. Depending upon the number of intermediaries used, the amplification possibilities are quite stunning.

The only real way to fix this problem is to make sure that you don't have open amplifiers on your network and champion the cause so that others don't either. The RS has directed broadcast turned off by default and there are very few reasons to ever need to turn it on. As with all DOS attacks, cooperation with your upstreams is critical to stop the traffic before it saturates your bandwidth. Contacting the source of the attack should be very effective also since they are also being attacked and should be eager to close up their open amplifiers.

Directed broadcast tools go by the names Smurf and fraggle.

See these websites for more information:
[http://www.pentics.net/denial-of-service/white-papers/smurf.cgi](http://www.pentics.net/denial-of-service/white-papers/smurf.cgi)
Distributed DOS Attacks

The DDOS attack is the latest and most devastating attack thus far. The attack starts with building a network of compromised machines (clients) across the Internet. When the network is large enough, a master machine (which may or may not be compromised) can send encrypted commands to the clients and trigger large scale DOS attacks. This type of attack is extremely hard to manage due to the fact that the traffic can come from a large number of legitimate hosts on the Internet that are often scattered around the world. The programs that control these networks become more complex at each revision adding more functionality and better obscuring their existence with each generation.

Unfortunately, there are very few ways to battle this issue head on. There are a few tools to detect and disengage the clients as well as some ideas using routing protocols to shift the attack away from the victim. An excellent resource and repository for all things related to DDOS attacks can be found at http://staff.washington.edu/dittrich/misc/ddos/ by David Dittrich at the University of Washington.

Common names for DDOS attacks include TFN, Trinoo, TFN2K, Stacheldraht, shaft and mstream.
Managing Infrastructure

Managing Infrastructure Changes

Many routers with many details about many customers with many people provisioning and changing configs everyday can make for quite a mess without a system in place. This chapter will discuss different tools used to manage different elements of your infrastructure including the ones that can produce the greatest challenge, users. Processes, documentation and policy are vital to scaling an organization.

Using RCS

As the number of the devices on the network increases, it quickly becomes important to implement and automate a change control system. There are several available with two of the popular open source packages being Revision Control System (RCS) and Concurrent Versions System (CVS). Both were designed just for purpose of keeping track of changes in files. Originally designed as a tool to manage changes and updates as code was being written by teams of programmers, RCS and CVS have proven to be excellent tools to keep track of any text file requiring version control.

Saving router configurations into RCS at least nightly is a good idea. If your environment is highly dynamic, you may want to do archive more often. To make configuration archiving even more effective, you can script and automate the procedure. The rest of this section is going to describe how to use RCS and demonstrate a foundation that you can use to automate your RS configuration backups.

Setting up RCS

RCS can be found at http://www.gnu.org/software/rcs/rcs.html. After downloading the archive and installing it onto your Unix-type system you can become more familiar with its inner workings by reading the man pages, especially rcsintro(1).

The minimal commands used for RCS are 'ci' and 'co', for check in and check out. When you have a file that you want to start tracking changes for, you simply create your archive directory, RCS, and check the file in like so:

```
# ci -t'This is the first version of secure-rs1's config file' secure-rs1.cfg
```

The command created an archive of the file secure-rs1 config in the RCS directory, added the comment 'This is the first version of secure-rs1's config file' to the archive and deleted the original file from the directory. Only the initial check in requires the -t description. When checking in each config file for the first time you will want to do it manually and put the description in. The command for checking in a file after the initial check in will be discussed later.

To pull our file back out of RCS we use the command:

```
# co secure-rs1.cfg
```

and the file reappears in the current directory. As the files are checked in, they will automatically increment their version starting with version 1.1. If you would like to examine a prior version then the current version, in our case version 1.1 of the secure-rs1.cfg file, use the command:

```
# co -r1.1 secure-rs1.cfg
```

The command will put a copy of the 1.1 version of the file. The most used command when tracking changes in configs is rcsdiff though. The syntax to compare version 1.1 and version 1.2 of the secure-rs1.cfg file is:

```
# rcsdiff -r1.1 -r1.2 secure-rs1
```
This will output very similar to the `diff` command show you all of the changes between the two versions.

Now that we have a better feel for RCS, below is a barebones script that can automate the remote TFTP upload of a router's config file. This script is a proof of concept to show one way that this could be done. You are free to use this script in any way that helps you with your own archival system design.

It requires a TFTP server, `snmpset` from the Net-SNMP package (http://net-snmp.sourceforge.net/) and properly configured SNMP services as discussed in Section 5.1.

There are a few variables that need to be entered on the command line for this script to work. They are as follows:

**TFTPserver** - This is the hostname or IP address of the TFTP server.

**HOST** - This is the hostname or IP address of the router that is being backed up.

**COMMUNITY** - This is the SNMP community string used to access the router.

**CFGNAME** - This is the full filename of the config

The syntax is:

```bash
#!/bin/sh
SNMPPATH=/usr/local/bin
if [ -n $1 ]; then
if [ $# != 4 ]; then
    echo "Usage: tftpback router_ip community config_name tftp_server"
    exit
fi
HOST=$1
COMMUNITY=$2
CFGNAME=$3
TFTPSERVER=$4
fi
/bin/touch $CFGNAME
$SNMPPATH/snmpset  $HOST $COMMUNITY enterprises.52.2501.1.231.1.0 i 3 > /dev/null
$SNMPPATH/snmpset  $HOST $COMMUNITY enterprises.52.2501.1.231.2.0 a $TFTPSERVER > /dev/null
$SNMPPATH/snmpset  $HOST $COMMUNITY enterprises.52.2501.1.231.3.0 s $CFGNAME > /dev/null
$SNMPPATH/snmpset  $HOST $COMMUNITY enterprises.52.2501.1.231.4.0 i 1 >/dev/null
STATUS=`$SNMPPATH/snmpget  $HOST $COMMUNITY enterprises.52.2501.1.231.7.0 2>&1| awk -F= '{print $2}'`
if [ $STATUS = "6" ]; then
    echo "The configuration was successfully backed up"
    exit
else
    echo "Something seems to have gone wrong"
fi
```

There are other ways to achieve the same goal for gathering your router configuration files into a place for archival including using the interactive scripting language Expect (http://expect.nist.gov) and through various network management systems (NMS).

### Managing IP Space

IP addresses are required for any TCP/IP network. Today there are two versions of IP addressing, IPv4 and IPv6. IPv4 is currently used on the Internet today. IPv6, or IPNG, is the next version of the IP protocol that will be implemented to overcome limitations in the IPv4 protocol including the number of addresses available for use and built in security provisions.

Preparations are still being made for the implementation of IPv6 including rewriting protocols, setting up registries and determining policies.
If your network requires less address space then a /20 then your IP space should come from an upstream provider. A provider will use the same space to number their infrastructure and provide IP space to their customers.

When assigning IP space to customers, it is important that justification is provided through documentation. Many end customers have firewalls and don't require more then a /29 for their firewall and servers in their extranet. Information on reassigning IP space is documented in RFC 2050.

When a network becomes large enough to use 16 Class C blocks (/20) and growth planning shows that 32 Class C blocks (/19) will be required in the near future, then it is time to start thinking about getting your own address space from your local RIR.

To facilitate obtaining your own IP space, you will need to show documentation that your current space is adequately used. One of the requirements for this is to SWIP allocations with a RWHOIS server. ARIN provides a RWHOIS server to keep track of IP address assignments or you can setup and use your own. This is discussed later in this Chapter. ARIN provides a good tutorial for the SWIP process at http://www.arin.net/minutes/tutorials/swiplit.htm. Automating the SWIP process and tying it to an internal provisioning process is a good way to ensure that all of your IP space is accounted for.

**Inventory and Other Info Silos (OSS)**

An operations support system (OSS) is the heart of any well-run network. A common problem most network providers (and businesses in general) run into is disseminated autonomous data stores around the company. Inevitably, different groups within the organization will compile data to meet their specific needs and goals. Ultimately all of the groups are focused on the same goal, running a solid network, acquiring and keeping happy customers, and staying in business. Sharing a common system for customer data, network information, inventory and billing puts your organization at a competitive advantage and ensures that all the parts are in accord. There are uncountable commercial products as well as home grown ways to meet this need and the specifics of integration and implementation will be different for every organization. This topic has filled volumes of books over the years so it is outside of the scope of this document. However, it would be highly negligent to write a document about network operations without mentioning this important detail. For more information, see the OSS links in the reference appendix.

**You need a Security Policy**

There isn't any more simple way to state the fact that you need a security policy. This means documented, distributed, read, understood and followed. A security policy needs to dictate predetermined procedures that are to be followed when events occur. How detailed your security policy needs to be depends upon your requirements and specific situation, but most security policies should include processes that touch upon most of the following concerns listed below.

- Who is accountable when?
- Who is on the Security Response Team?
- Escalation chart

The first and most important question that needs an answer is "Who do I call when it hits the fan?" The rest of these suggestions don't mean anything if there isn't anyone to perform the actions. Actual people need to be assigned responsibility to take action when security events occur. These people are your security response team and should know your security policy inside and out. The security response team is often known as CSIRT or Computer Security Incident Response Team. An escalation chart should be published with timed triggers to ensure that the correct levels of the organization are alerted to security issues should the resolution begin to stall.

- Securing a Server
- Compromised server
- Compromised customer server

The security policy should include descriptions for what needs to happen when security is compromised, but you may also want to include a level of expectation for securing devices on your network also. A compromised server is arguably the most common security breach. Servers provide services, and exploitable security holes are found in these services. It's usually not very productive to attack a server without any open ports. The most effective method of attack would be to attempt to crash the system. An analogy would be that its much more productive for a hacker to break into a house with many windows than to try to break into a fortified bunker without any visible way of entry. Of course, this means that all you need to do to secure your network is not run any services, right? Unfortunately, it's not quite that easy. The services that you provide your users can make up for a large part of your business offering.

Mail, news, web hosting, and DNS are some of the services that your users come to rely on, and if the servers that provide these services are compromised, downtime or impaired performance may occur.

By distributing services over multiple servers, you will limit your exposure so that a DNS exploit won't take down your mail server for instance. Defending against a security breach of a server can be treated much like any other event that could cause downtime on the server. Resiliency and backup need to be planned out in advance. Often this planning is made up of several different layers of security so that backup and alternative methods of defense are maintained so that the process can sustain multiple unforeseen failures.

For example, let's look at some quick ideas that we could use to secure a DNS server. This exercise is intended to give you some ideas about the security of your infrastructure and is not a model that is recommended specifically. Let's start out by actually splitting DNS over two physical servers and then using the built in layer-4 features of the RS to intelligently load balance requests.
The servers could store DNS data on a shared RAID device that is backed up regularly. The backup strategy should also have multiple layers, allowing fallback in the event of failure including remote copies saved to a backup server, as well as copies saved to an external media device (tape drive) where the media is regularly taken offsite and stored in a secure place. The data partition on the RAID can also be mounted read-only. Changes to the data will ideally originate from a central management platform or database that resides behind a firewall. Another step that could be added would be to run different versions or different implementations of DNS daemons on each server. If a vulnerability was found one server, the other may remain intact.

The above example will be resilient against many types of failures including hardware and security, but nothing is infallible.

When dealing with a compromise of one of your servers, the path back to secure operation should include analysis of the file system and logs and a reinstallation of the OS of the compromised system. You may also want to consider keeping a spare drive around with the OS preinstalled that can be dropped into place during the recovery process, saving valuable minutes or hours in what is likely a stressful situation. It is important to understand what was compromised on the server so that you can prevent it from occurring again. Since most of the services on that server were not installed when the server was built (you are running DNS, mail, web hosting etc on different servers, right?) it should be fairly easy to figure out what happened.

The first step to dealing with compromised customer servers is prevention. Unfortunately it is simply not reasonable to expect a provider to keep track of customer servers, let lone the current version of OS it is running, patches applied, and services available. Providing a website or distribution list for the latest and greatest security threats and how to defend or patch against them could be a valuable service for your customers and end up saving you considerable support time later. This hopefully would be a trivial thing to do since your own organization is keeping track of current exploits via sources such as BUGTRAQ and CERT (More information in Reference section).

If a customer server is compromised though, a procedure needs to be in place to limit the damage that could be caused by having a compromised system on your network. This usually includes disconnecting the machine from the network until it secured again. This could be done with a blackhole route if need be. How involved you want to get in the details of this will vary, but running a quick security audit upon the machine's return could go a long way towards ensuring the incident doesn't occur again.

- Compromised router
- Compromised customer router

A compromised router is obviously bad news. The effects of a core router being under someone else's control is something no one wants to face. This is why it's doubly important to lock down your routers with ACLs, central authentication, and regularly changed passwords as well as maintain a stringent policy for access. Since routers often run the same version of code, upon discovery of a compromise, you will want to make sure that the damage is contained and that other routers on your network are not vulnerable to the same exploit. You will also want to contact your router vendor immediately to either receive a patch or make sure work has started on one.

If a customer router is compromised, you will probably want to treat it like a compromised server beginning with disconnecting it from the network until it can be fixed and taking a few minutes to understand how the router was compromised and take some proactive steps to prevent it from happening again in the future. Sadly one of the easiest ways to get into many systems is to use default passwords or SNMP community strings that were never changed during the initial installation of the equipment. Again, a little education can go a long way.

- DOS attack from your network
- DOS attack against your network

There should be a procedure in place for dealing with a DOS attack from your network that is both quick and surgical. Tracing a DOS attack on your own network should be trivial since the attack cannot be spoofed. (You applied your source-based ACLs, right?). A policy of doing whatever it takes to stop the attack immediately and asking questions later would be appreciated greatly by the victim of a DOS attack.

A DOS attack against your network can be a very tricky thing to deal with. You will want to discuss your upstream's security policies on DOS attacks in advance.

Their help can be vital in a DOS attack situation. As we learned earlier, DOS attacks are generally composed of flooding of either UDP or ICMP. Even if you can drop the traffic at your border router, this doesn't prevent your circuits from being saturated. In the event of an ICMP attack, it may be appropriate to ask your upstreams to filter ICMP at their access router. There are certain applications that could break due to the lack of ICMP traffic, but you will need to weigh the value of usable bandwidth against those applications. In the event of UDP, defense isn't quite so straightforward since there are considerably more applications that require the protocol.

If the attack happens to only be coming from one place, it's also easy enough for your upstreams to filter out the address space attacking you. If the attack is reaching you, and you and your upstream are filtering bogus source addresses, then you know the attack is coming from the actual IP addresses of the hosts. This means the attack is probably a DDOS using compromised systems. The good news is that the source addresses of the IPs are real and your upstream can filter them for you. The bad news is that there are probably a large number of them and you may not be able to manually filter them all. This doesn't leave many options unfortunately.
People are currently studying this problem and proposing solutions from an Internet-wide IDS (intrusion detection system) that sits at major exchange points and modifies traffic flows based on behavior patterns to marking the packets to make them easier to trace. Either way the best defense currently is to use LFAP to capture the packet data, parse it and find patterns to find the source. Logging is very essential for post mortem analysis, tracking down the source and aiding law enforcement.

- Harassment from a user
- Harassment to a user

Sometimes running a network that facilitates interpersonal interaction drags you into the middle when these interpersonal interactions go sour. The official agency for dealing with social problems between people is your local law enforcement. When complaints are lodged against users on your network or off you should encourage the involvement of the appropriate law enforcement agency. Since disputes that occur online can easily migrate over to the real world, putting someone into potential danger, a service provider has a moral obligation to get out of the middle and make sure that the right people (Law Enforcement) are involved. A policy should be in place for dealing with online harassment from your users that includes removing the user from your network and reporting the incident to law enforcement.

- Internal Privacy Policy
- Rogue employees
- Social engineering defenses
- Security audits, testing and practice

All of the above points go deeper then just being a policy. These issues actually affect and apply to your own employees. Operators of a service provider network can have almost unlimited access to personal email and corporate secrets. They can sniff traffic, read email, and track usage. There should be policies dictating when these practices are acceptable and when they are not. Since users expect a certain level of integrity from their ISP, it is important that the ethics of dealing with sensitive information are upheld. Punitive actions should be taken when they are not.

There is a level of responsibility that is assumed when operating a network on the Internet, especially when network services are provided to other networks. A rogue employee can discredit your organization and even cause other networks to reject traffic to or from your network. Your security policy should clearly dictate the actions that will be taken in the event an employee is caught using your network for unethical purposes. This can include many acts including spamming, cracking or denial of service attacks.

Another internal policy that should be maintained is to ensure that employees cannot be socially engineered into providing unauthorized access to the network. It should be clearly documented as to who has access to what including a line of succession in case one of the parties is unavailable for some reason. Training for employees is key. This includes everyone, engineering to janitorial. Automation of access controls will go a long way towards disabling the night shift security guard being talked into letting someone into your data center for some reason. Access cards, biometric controls, documentation and constant monitoring are necessary in avoiding social engineering incidents.

Ultimately you can never be completely sure what you are going to face when an attack comes. It is important to prepare for when it does though. Stage mock security breaches, DOS attacks, and unauthorized physical access attempts to put people in the correct mindset and provide them valuable practice that can be applied when the real thing comes. The more practice and experience, the better your people will perform when the real thing happens.

- Interfacing with law enforcement

Someone within your organization should be trained to deal with law enforcement appropriately. Working closely with law enforcement is at times a requirement of running an ISP. Someone should be knowledgeable of the laws that pertain to the release of information and subpoenas. That person should also have access to corporate lawyer for consultation and interpretation.

- Physical disasters
- NOC damage
- Circuit damage
- Phone system outage

Many things can go terribly wrong in the physical world that can affect the virtual world. Plans need to be in place to deal with each of them reasonably. Recovery plans have been a part of life long before the Internet and sometimes overlooked. Volumes have been written on traditional disaster management and they should be practiced by a service provider just as any other business in which people rely on for their lives and businesses. Physical redundancy with disaster recovery sites being far enough away from their primaries that they will not be taken out by the same event that would damage or destroy or hinder access to the primary cannot be understated.

- Mass communications to users

Communicating outages or security problems to your users will add to your reputation and let people feel supported. The best way to get the word out is probably to post it on an easily located website. Email is an option, but generally not as scalable. Making the website update part of the process is a good way to make sure its checked regularly and doesn't end up neglected.

- Post Mortem Analysis

"Those who do not remember the past are condemned to repeat it."

-George Santayana
After the incident has been resolved, take some time to reflect upon it and put thoughts on paper for review at the post mortem meeting. Go over the root cause of the incident and document the steps taken to make sure it doesn't happen again. You may want to report the incident to CERT also. Reporting is completely confidential and encrypted. It's your reports that help generate the helpful advisories CERT puts out. Also, if the process for handling security incidents needs enhancement, this meeting is a good opportunity to do so.

Acceptable Use Policy

Your network's Acceptable Use Policy publicly documents what the rules are for your network. These rules apply to your customers and set expectations for when action is going to be taken in regard to their actions. Usual things included in an AUP are:

- Spamming
- Abusing the network
- Abusing or hacking remote networks
- Abusing or harassing others
- Servers on residential accounts
- Copyrighted Intellectual Property (warez, DVD rips, mp3s etc)
- Illegal activities
- Disclaimer
- Copyright

This document should be drafted very carefully with careful thought to cover as many different situations as possible. This way there can be no question when that situation does occur. Then it should be looked over and approved by a lawyer. You want to make sure that your policies will hold up in court should someone decide to take issue with them.

Abuse Contacts

Abuse contacts are live people that are appointed in advance of a security or abuse situation and know the Security Policy and AUP intimately. These people are responsible for enforcing the rules and ensuring that your network is playing nice with everyone else's. This person may also be responsible for working with law enforcement to respond and comply with subpoenas and track the actions.
Tying It All Together

This is a sample configuration file that utilizes many of the protocols and suggestions above to give you an idea of one way the parts can be used together.

radius enable
radius authentication login
radius authentication enable
radius accounting command level 15
radius set last-resort password
radius accounting shell all
radius accounting snmp startup
radius set key SECRET
radius set source 10.0.0.1
radius set server 192.168.2.254
radius accounting system info

system set password login SECRET
system set password enable SECRET
system set password diag SECRET

system set timezone uct

ntp set server 192.168.2.254 source 10.0.0.1

interface add ip lo0 address-netmask 10.0.0.1/32
interface create INTERNET ip address-netmask 192.168.0.2/30 port et.1.1
interface create INTERNAL ip address-netmask 192.168.2.1/24 port et.1.2

ip add route default gateway 192.168.0.1

ip disable source-routing
ip disable icmp-redirect interface all
ip disable proxy-arp interface all

ip enable reverse-path-forwarding interface INTERNET
ip enable reverse-flow normal
ip dos enable fragments-attack-protection

acl lfap permit ip any any any any accounting hourly
acl lfap apply interface INTERNET input output
lfap set server 192.168.2.254
lfap start

system set syslog level info facility local5 source 10.0.0.1 server 10.0.0.254 buffer-size 50

acl 20 permit ip 192.168.2.254/32
acl 20 deny any log
acl 20 apply service snmp logging deny-only

acl 100 permit tcp 192.168.2.254/32
acl 100 deny ip any any log
acl 100 apply service ssh

acl 115 permit ip 192.168.2.0/24 any
acl 115 deny ip any any log
acl 115 apply interface INTERNAL input

acl 2010 deny ip 6.6.6.0/24 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 7.7.7.0/24 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 1.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 2.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 5.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 7.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 10.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 23.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 27.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 31.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 36.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 37.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 39.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 49.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 50.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 58.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 59.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 60.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 69.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 70.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 71.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 72.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 73.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 74.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 75.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 76.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 77.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 78.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 79.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 82.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 83.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 84.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 85.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 86.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 87.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 88.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 89.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 90.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 91.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 92.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 93.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 94.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 95.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 96.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 97.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 98.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 99.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 100.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 101.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 102.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 103.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 104.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 105.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 106.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 107.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 108.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 109.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 110.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 111.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 112.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 113.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 114.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 115.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 116.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 117.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 118.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 119.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 120.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 121.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 122.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 123.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 124.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 125.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 126.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 127.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 169.254.0.0/16 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 172.16.0.0/12 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 192.0.2.0/24 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 192.168.0.0/16 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 192.168.0.0/16 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 197.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 201.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 219.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 220.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 221.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 222.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 223.0.0.0/8 any log
acl 2010 deny ip 224.0.0.0/5 any log
acl 2010 permit ip any 7.7.7.0/24
acl 2010 permit ip any 224.0.0.0/5
acl 2010 deny ip any any log
acl 2010 apply interface INTERNET

snmp set community SECRET privilege read
snmp set target 7.7.7.5 community SECRET owner SECURE-RS status enable

snmp set chassis-id "444098-56"
system set contact "Joe Fish 555-555-5555"
system set location "Rack 23, East Colo, Syberia"
system set name secure-rs01

system disable telnet-server

system set idle-timeout serial 15 ssh 15 telnet 15

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Riverstone Security and Operations Guide - References


draft-manning-dsua-08.txt


Riverstone Security and Operations Guide - Acknowledgements

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Austin Hawthorne, Riverstone Networks: Entheâtus
Greg Hankins, Riverstone Networks: IS-IS/BGP
Peter Herman, Riverstone Networks: DoS Info
Mike MacFaden, Riverstone Networks: SNMP
Jeff McIaird, Riverstone Networks: Route Damping
Nick Slabakov, Riverstone Networks: OSPF
Rob Thomas: Secure RSO Template

NANOG and Inet-Access Communities
http://www.nanog.org
list@inet-access.net

CERT http://www.cert.org
BUGTRAQ http://www.securityfocus.com