

# Cyber Security Enhancement via Software-Defined Pseudo-Random Private IP Address Hopping

Andre Slonopas, Warren Thompson, Zona Kostic

**Abstract**—Obfuscation is one of the most useful tools to prevent network compromise. Previous research focused on the obfuscation of the network communications between external-facing edge devices. This work proposes the use of two edge devices, external and internal facing, which communicate via private IPv4 addresses in a software-defined pseudo-random IP hopping. This methodology does not require additional IP addresses and/or resources to implement. Statistical analyses demonstrate that the hopping surface must be at least  $1e3$  IP addresses in size with a broad standard deviation to minimize the possibility of coincidence of monitored and communication IPs. The probability of breaking the hopping algorithm requires a collection of at least  $1e6$  samples, which for large hopping surfaces will take years to collect. The probability of dropped packets is controlled via memory buffers and the frequency of hops and can be reduced to levels acceptable for video streaming. This methodology provides an impenetrable layer of security ideal for information and supervisory control and data acquisition systems.

**Keywords**—Moving Target Defense, cybersecurity, network security, hopping randomization, software-defined network, network security theory.

## I. INTRODUCTION

RECENT years introduced an exponential spur in the use and applications of computer networks [1], [2]. Information traffic forecasts predict even a more dramatic increase in the near future [1], [3]. The extensive interconnectivity simplified the information management for users, inevitably decentralization of information into the cyber domain introduced a plethora of vulnerabilities. Interconnected devices, by their core design, are conceived to collect, analyze, monitor and present information to the user.

Confidentiality, integrity, security and availability of the data, however, is often treated as an afterthought [4], [5].

IP hopping has been introduced as a potential additional layer of security to the information systems [6], [7]. More specifically, the IP hopping has enabled the moving target defense (MTD) concepts to be leveraged as a protection mechanism. The ever-changing IP addresses prevent the intruder from successfully finding the address of a device in interest [8], [9]. This methodology, however, requires numerous public IPs thus adding to the cost and coordination complexity among the key holders [7]-[9]. Furthermore, in order for the hopping mechanism to become an effective countermeasure a fairly large IP spectrum needs to be acquired [10], [11]. This IP space needs to be properly randomized with

a unidirectional algorithm [12], [13]. As an additional layer of protection, the IP randomization must be dynamic [14], [15]. Effective techniques for dynamic randomization have been demonstrated by leveraging Software Defined Networks (SDN) [16], [17]. If, however, the IP space is not adequately sized even most dynamic randomization algorithms can be elucidated via conventional heuristic techniques. The IP size requirement makes the MTD economically unfeasible for majority of the users. Considering the above discussion, IP hopping is a powerful protection mechanism if the associated costs and need for specialized equipment can be reduced or eliminated.

This paper presents a concept of an interconnected external and internal facing end nodes that communicate using private IPv4 addresses in a pseudo-random IP hopping algorithm. Conventional obfuscation methods, such as The Onion Routers (ToR), create external traffic concealment; whereas the methodology proposed in this paper provides an internal convolution. Randomization of hops is implemented via software on the end nodes. The approach described in this paper does not require specialized hardware and can be implemented on any size system. Furthermore, use of private IPv4 space allows for a very large hopping surface at essentially no additional cost and would be outside of a monitoring capability of nearly all malicious actors. Single Class A (i.e.  $10.0.0.0/24$ ) network IP space is leveraged to give a larger surface for the statistical analysis; the concept, however, can easily be applied to any IPv4 private class domain. Statistical analysis on malicious data and fuzzing injection based on hopping surface and bot-net size is analyzed. Bot-net requirements to survey 500,000 is unreasonable for majority of malicious users, yet the 500,000 private IP addresses make up slightly less than 0.02% of Class A private network. IP hopping could also span other private IP Classes, which would make network scanning and monitoring beyond reach of even nation states. Packet loss based on frequency of hops are found to be negligible and reduced to video streaming levels if the hopping frequency is reduced to above 0.2 Hz and a memory buffer is introduced. Probability to break the hopping algorithm is also evaluated. Hopping algorithm can remain unbroken with regular updates.

## II. THEORETICAL CONCEPT AND COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

Conceptual high-level layout of the analyzed network is shown in Fig. 1. The operability of the network is contingent on the accurate data acquisition from the Remote Terminal Units

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(RTUs) and analysis by the control unit. The control unit (CU) is a simplified version of a Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) system. The methodology of this paper seeks to provide a general concept for a MTD via IP hopping in private space methodology with a broad range of applications. The key element of this novel approach are the two edge routers which communicate via pseudo-random software defined IP hopping in the IPv4 private space. In the schematic of Fig. 1, the authorized user is on the inside of the Local Area Network

(LAN) and within the LAN of the CU. In reality, however, authorized user may be connecting to Router 2 via a Wide Area Network (WAN). In the latter case the authorized user will need to know the IP hopping algorithm between the two routers. Since the IP hopping mechanism is software defined, it can easily be provided to the user. It is assumed that the malicious actor does not have physical access to the hardware and is conducting reconnaissance and data injection via WAN.

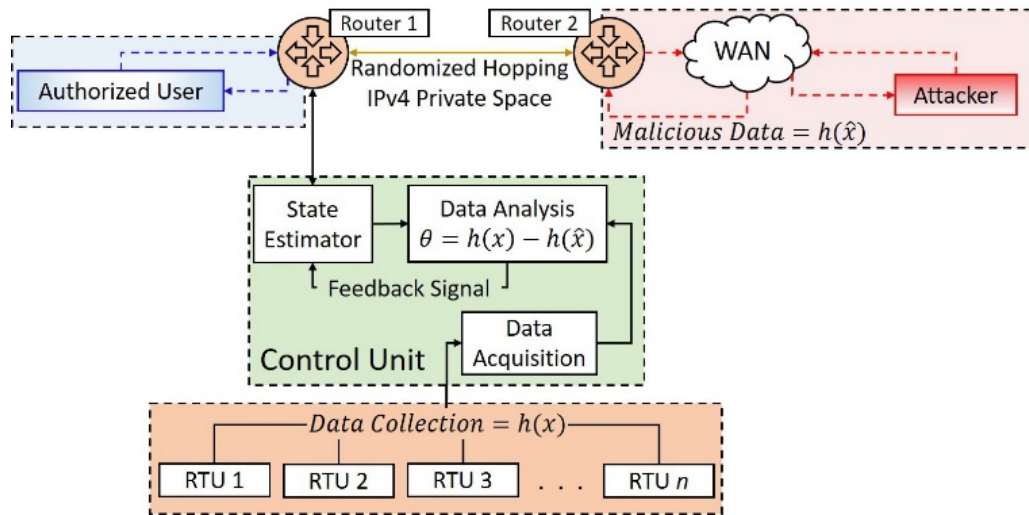


Fig. 1 Schematic of the cyber security enhancement via private IP address hopping between two edge routers

The statistical model is based on three assumptions and analogous to the Bayes cross-validation leveraged in machine learning [18], [19]. First assumption is that the a priori probabilities, denoted  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , are  $N$  dimensional and found on real Euclidean space. These probabilities encompass all of the possible external influences that can affect the outcome before any action is taken. Second assumption is a simple binary hypothesis,  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ . The two hypotheses correspond to malicious actor's IP address being different and identical respectively to the IP address during a hop. Hypotheses correspond to the  $N$  observations, such that they can be represented by  $\theta\theta$  vector in an  $N$ -dimensional space, i.e.  $\theta\theta \triangleq [\theta\theta_1, \theta\theta_2 \dots \theta\theta_N]$ . Third assumption presumes four possible courses of action:  $C_{00}$ ,  $C_{01}$ ,  $C_{10}$ ,  $C_{11}$ . The subscripts denote chosen and true hypotheses respectively. Given the above discussion, the greatest interest is in the course of action where the chosen and true hypotheses correspond to identical IP addresses of the malicious actor and the router, i.e.  $C_{11}$ . The expectation equation can thus be written by averaging over the a priori probabilities and the probability that a certain course of action will be taken [20]:

$$\mathcal{R} = E\{C\} = \sum_{i=0}^1 \sum_{j=0}^1 C_{ij} \Pr(I_i H_j) \quad (1)$$

where  $I_{ii}$  and  $H_{ii}$  represent successful injection and assumed hypothesis respectively. Given the two possible hypotheses,  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ , the observation space, i.e. private IP space, can be

broken into two parts,  $Z_0$  and  $Z_1$  respectively. The total observation space is  $Z = Z_1 + Z_0$ . The associated risk can thus be analyzed in the decision regions rewritten in terms of transition probabilities:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R} = & C_{00}P_0 \int_{Z_0} p_r|H_0(\mathcal{R}|H_0)d\mathcal{R} + C_{01}P_1 \int_{Z_0} p_r|H_1(\mathcal{R}|H_1)d\mathcal{R} \\ & + C_{10}P_0 \int_{Z-Z_0} p_r|H_0(\mathcal{R}|H_0)d\mathcal{R} \\ & + C_{11}P_1 \int_{Z-Z_0} p_r|H_1(\mathcal{R}|H_1)d\mathcal{R} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Observing that the probability of hypothesis  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  on an entire observation space is equal to 1, (2) can thus simplify to:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R} = & \int_{Z_0} \left[ \frac{(P_1(C_{01} - C_{11}))p_r|H_1(\mathcal{R}|H_1)}{\text{Term 1}} \right. \\ & \left. - \frac{(P_0(C_{10} - C_{00}))p_r|H_0(\mathcal{R}|H_0)}{\text{Term 2}} \right] d\mathcal{R} \\ & + C_{10}P_0 + C_{11}P_1 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

It is assumed that negative probabilities and course of actions are not realistic, thus only positive values inside of the integral are analyzed. Values where second term is larger than the first are included in  $Z_0$ , and values where the second term is smaller than the first contribute to  $Z_1$ . Thus, successful injection of malicious data packets occurs in the case where:

$$R = P_1(C_{01} - C_{11})p_r|H_1(R|H_1) \geq P_0(C_{10} - C_{00})p_r|H_0(R|H_0) \quad (4)$$

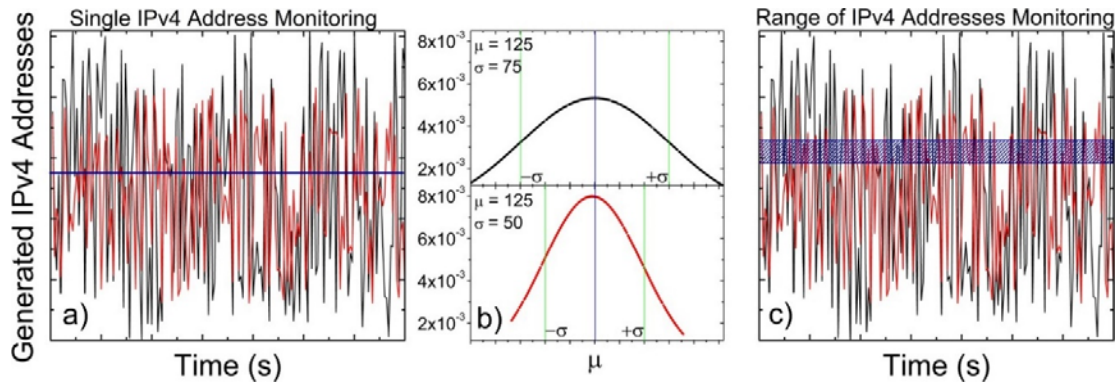


Fig. 2 (a) and (c) randomly generated IPv4 addresses with the standard deviations shown in (b). Single and range of IPv4 address monitoring is denoted by the blue line and box in (a) and (c) respectively

Rearranging (4) the likelihood of a malicious data injection is denoted as:

$$\Lambda(\mathcal{R}) \triangleq \frac{p_r|H_1(\mathcal{R}|H_1)}{p_r|H_1(\mathcal{R}|H_1)} \quad (5)$$

It is assumed that the routers communicate only via a single channel on a single IP address. Malicious actor, however, can monitor a single or a spectrum of IP addresses, Figs. 2 (a) and (b), respectively. IP addresses were randomly generated giving  $N$  samples. IP samples are Gaussian with an independent random data transfer of  $h(x)$  and variance of  $\sigma^2$ . For simplicity, mean,  $\mu$ , for the data was chosen to be 125, which is very close to the expected mean of 255 bits of 122.5. Standard deviation of the data was varied for the analysis. Randomly generated IPv4 addresses based on differing standard deviations are highlighted in Fig. 2.

Under  $H_0$  no malicious data injection is possible. Under  $H_1$  data transfer is equal to the summation of legitimate and malicious data, i.e.  $h(x) + h(\#)$ . For Gaussian sampling, the probability density of  $\theta_i$  for  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  becomes:

$$p_{\theta_i|H_0}(\mathcal{R}_i|H_0) = p_{h(x)_i}(\mathcal{R}_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{\mathcal{R}_i^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (6)$$

$$p_{\theta_i|H_1}(\mathcal{R}_i|H_1) = p_{h(x)_i+h(\hat{x})_i}(\mathcal{R}_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(\mathcal{R}_i-h(\hat{x}))^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

respectively. In the case where a malicious actor monitors a range of IPs, due to the statistical independence of  $h(x)$ , the joint probability density is simply the multiplication of individual probability densities. Substituting probability densities into the likelihood of data injection equation and simplifying gives the basis for the statistical analysis as:

$$\ln \Lambda(\mathcal{R}) = \frac{h(\hat{x})}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{R}_i - \frac{Nh(\hat{x})^2}{2\sigma^2} \quad (7)$$

Packet loss for a hopping system was calculated assuming an uncorrelated system, i.e. Hurst exponent of 0.5, and a constant

effective bandwidth, i.e.  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} B_{eff}(\theta, t) = Constant$ . Thus, the probability of  $t \rightarrow \infty$  packet loss can be estimated by [21], [22]:

$$\log(P_{loss}) = -\frac{2(c - \mu(k))}{\sigma^2(k)} \log(e) - \log \left[ \frac{2\mu(k)(c - \mu(k))}{\sigma^2(k)} \right] \quad (8)$$

where  $\mu(k)$  and  $\sigma^2(k)$  are the traffic mean and variance computed from the packet input rate  $\alpha(k)$ :

$$\mu(k) = \frac{1}{N(t)} \sum_{i=0}^{N(t)-1} \alpha(k-i) \quad (9)$$

$$\sigma^2(k) = \frac{1}{N(t)-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N(t)-1} [\alpha(k-i) - \mu(k)]^2$$

$k$  denotes the time interval between hops, and  $(t)$  is the number of time intervals used for the calculation of the mean and the variance.

For the analysis, 10,000 random IP addresses were generated. Data transfer speeds were assumed to be the typical 100 Mbps, or 12.5 MBps. Malware size was assumed to be the average reported from 2008 of 338 kB, which equates to ~3% of the bandwidth [23]. Thus, it is assumed that a single concurrence of IP addresses will result in a successful injection of the malicious code. Functionality of such malware, however, will be limited. Furthermore, communication and data exfiltration will not be possible until the next IP address concurrence between malicious actor and the internal router.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Probability of IP matching versus the number of possible IPs and the standard deviation of the IP hopping surface is shown in Fig. 3 (a). Standard deviation was computed from the possible values in the 4<sup>th</sup> quartet of an IP address and manually manipulated for the purpose of the analysis. Probability of matching IPs is significant, i.e., ~10%, for hopping surfaces below 1,000 IPs. Furthermore, in these cases, the standard deviation does not play a significant role in reducing the probability of  $H_1$ . Standard deviation, however, plays a

significant role when the IP hopping surface increases beyond 1,000 IPs which decreases  $H_1$  by orders of magnitude. Thus, the pseudo-random IP generator should be designed with large  $\sigma$  at its core. Cases where a range of IPs is monitored by the malicious user, the probability of  $H_1$  is simply scaled to the probabilities of a single channel monitoring, Fig. 3 (b). As an example, for a case of 1,000 IPs with a large  $\sigma$ , malicious user would have to monitor 10 IP addresses to achieve  $\sim 2\%$  probability of  $H_1$ . In this case approximately every 50<sup>th</sup> hop will result in a matching IP set. Increasing hopping surface to 2,500 IPs, decreases the possibility of  $H_1$  to  $\sim 8.5 \times 10^{-4}$ , where every 117,000<sup>th</sup> hop will produce a match. Assuming that the hops occur every 5 seconds a matching IP set will occur approximately every 7 days. A malicious user is required to maintain a constant communication with the device for an effective attack. In the case of 2,500 IP hopping surface, malicious user would be forced to monitor over 2,000 IP addresses. The effort required to maintain such an extensive monitoring capability would be beyond the reach of majority of malicious users. Furthermore, hopping surface of 2,500 IPs makes up less than 0.02% of the Class A private IPv4 space and can easily be scaled by orders of magnitude.

Probability of packet loss versus hopping times is shown in Fig. 4 (a). Probability of a packet loss in the initial 25 seconds is commensurate and independent of the hopping frequency.

Furthermore, the statistical probability of packet loss in the initial 20-25 seconds is excessively high and is attributed to insufficient data for an accurate analysis. Thus, only the data after the initial 30 seconds is considered for the discussion. Hopping frequency plays a significant role in the probability of dropped packets. The more frequent hops result in a greater probability of the dropped packets. This behavior would be expected in the cases where no memory buffer is present, since the packets that were not sent out prior to the hop will be dropped. The mitigation strategy to minimize the probability of a drop would be to implement a memory buffer for the unsent packets. Statistical analysis of the probability of a drop for a 3 second hopping interval with various buffer sizes is shown in Fig. 4 (b). Significant reduction in the probability of drops is observed even with small memory buffers of 1,500 bytes, which would equate to approximately one packet. The probability of drops decreases even further with larger memory buffers, however, with diminishing improvements. Memory buffers of 1,500 bytes are sufficient to reduce probability of drops to acceptable levels for most applications. Packet loss drops of 1% are acceptable for video streaming and are achievable in the hopping scheme with a 3,000 byte buffers. The oscillatory behavior in the probability of packet drops at 30 and 45 seconds is attributed to the  $\mu(k)$  and  $\sigma^2(k)$  from the random number generator.

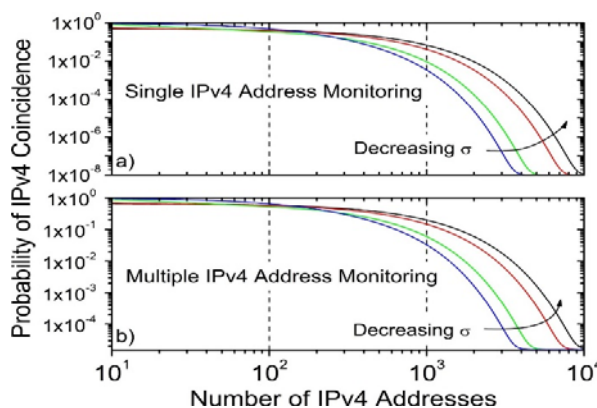


Fig. 3 (a) Probability of IPv4 coincidence versus the size of the hopping surface for a single monitored IP address, (b) Probability of IPv4 coincidence versus the size of the hopping surface for 10 monitored IP addresses

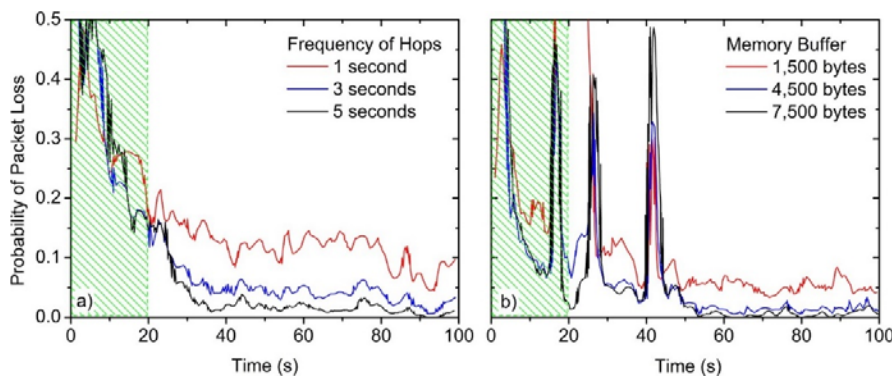


Fig. 4 (a) Probability of packet loss as a function of hopping frequency with no memory buffer in place, (b) Probability of packet loss for a 3 second hopping frequency for various size memory buffers. Areas highlighted in green are based on insufficient amount of data generated from random number generator and are thus omitted from the discussion

Probability of breaking the hopping algorithm was analyzed statistically using the Sigmoid Analysis. Analysis was conducted as a function of  $(k)$  and  $\sigma^2(k)$  versus the number of samples, Figs. 5 (a) and (b). respectively. Heat maps demonstrate a nonlinear relationship between the mean, standard deviation and the number of samples required to elucidate the hopping algorithm. Nearly  $1e6$  samples would have to be collected for a reasonable chance of elucidating the hopping scheme. Furthermore, malicious actor would need to monitor more than one IPv4 address, be aware of the embedded hopping scheme, and monitored IPv4 addresses would need to coincide with the addresses used during the hop. Using large hopping surface and  $\sigma^2(k)$  in a private IP software defined hopping scheme which can be altered regularly makes the compromise of such system nearly impossible.

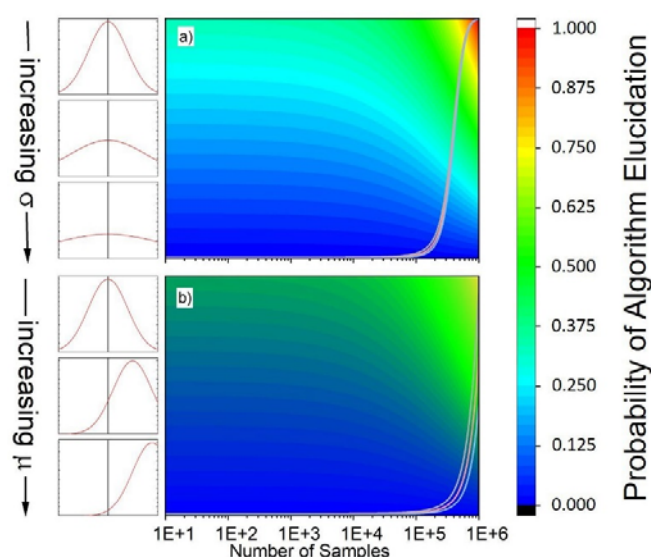


Fig. 5 (a) Probability of hopping algorithm elucidation versus the number of samples, static  $\mu(k)$  and dynamic  $\sigma^2(k)$ , (b) Probability of algorithm elucidation as a function of  $\mu(k)$ . Black line in the subgraphs denotes monitored IPv4 address.  $\mu(k)$  and  $\sigma^2(k)$  are found to play a cardinal role in the probability of breaking the hopping algorithm and need to be considered in algorithm development

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This paper presented a software based cyber security concept by leveraging two edge routers for software defined private IP address hopping mechanism. Conceptual diagram and the hopping algorithm are discussed briefly, however, left to be defined for the developers. Probability of IP coincidence is analyzed for a single and multiple monitored IP addresses. It is found that the coincidence of IP addresses is less likely in a broader hopping surface. It is also found that the hopping surfaces should be at least  $1e3$  IPs in size. This number, however, constitutes only a fraction of a percent of the Class A private IP space. Probability of packet loss versus frequency of hops and memory buffer demonstrates that hopping frequencies should be below 0.2 Hz. Memory buffers of at least 1 packet size will reduce packet drops to thresholds acceptable for video streaming. Probability of breaking the hopping algorithm is also

analyzed. Probability of breaking the hopping algorithm is virtually zero below  $1e6$  samples. Methodology discussed in this paper provides a moving target defense that is virtually impenetrable yet operates in a private IP space requiring no additional resources. Furthermore, this methodology is a proactive approach against data injection, protection from DOS attacks, and provides an extra layer of security ideal for information control systems.

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