

# Tools and Techniques for Network Forensics

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**Abstract**—Network forensics deals with the capture, recording and analysis of network events in order to discover evidential information about the source of security attacks in a court of law. This paper discusses the different tools and techniques available to conduct network forensics. Some of the tools discussed include: *eMailTrackerPro*—to identify the physical location of an email sender; *Web Historian*—to find the duration of each visit and the files uploaded and downloaded from the visited website; packet sniffers like *Ethereal*—to capture and analyze the data exchanged among the different computers in the network.

**Keywords:** Network Forensics, IP Traceback, Packet Sniffers, Legal Aspects

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Internet usage has increased drastically in the past ten years. Recent studies reveal that today in the United States for every three people, one would be using the Internet for their personal activity, or for their business needs. As the number of people using the Internet increases, the number of illegal activities such as data theft, identity theft, etc also increases exponentially.

Computer Forensics deals with the collection and analysis of data from computer systems, networks, communication streams (wired and wireless) and storage media in a manner admissible in a court of law. Network forensics deals with the capture, recording or analysis of network events in order to discover evidential information about the source of security attacks in a court of law. With the rapid growth and use of Internet, network forensics has become an integral part of computer forensics. This paper surveys the tools and techniques (efficient, easy to use and cost effective) available to conduct network forensics. Section 2 explains how to conduct “Email Forensics” using certain freely available tools such as *EmailTrackerPro* and *SmartWhoIs*. Spam emails are a major source of concern within the Internet community. The tools described in this Section could be used to trace the sender of an email. Section 3 describes how to conduct “Web Forensics” using freely available tools like *Web Historian* and *Index.dat analyzer*. These tools help to reveal the browsing history of a person including the number of times a website has been visited in the past and the duration of each visit, the files that have been uploaded and downloaded from the visited

website, the cookies setup as part of the visits and other critical information. Section 4 describes the use of packet sniffers like *Ethereal* to explore the hidden information in the different headers of the TCP/IP protocol stack. These sniffers capture the packets exchanged in the Ethernet and allow the investigator to collect critical information from the packets.

## 2. EMAIL FORENSICS

Email is one of the most common ways people communicate, ranging from internal meeting requests, to distribution of documents and general conversation. Emails are now being used for all sorts of communication including providing confidentiality, authentication, non-repudiation and data integrity. As email usage increases, attackers and hackers began to use emails for malicious activities. Spam emails are a major source of concern within the Internet community. Emails are more vulnerable to be intercepted and might be used by hackers to learn of secret communication. Email forensics refers to studying the source and content of electronic mail as evidence, identifying the actual sender and recipient of a message, date/time it was sent and etc.

Emails frequently contain malicious viruses, threats and scams that can result in the loss of data, confidential information and even identity theft. The tools described in this section provide an easy-to-use browser format, automated reporting and easy tool bar access features. The tools help to identify the point of origin of the message, trace the path traversed by the message (used to identify the spammers) and also to identify the phishing emails that try to obtain confidential information from the receiver. *eMailTrackerPro*[4] analyzes the header of an email to detect the IP address of the machine that sent the message so that the sender can be tracked down. All email messages contain a header, located at the top of the email. The header contains the source of an email in the “From” line, while in the “Received” lines, the header lists every point the email passed through on its journey, along with the date and time. The message header provides an audit trail of every machine the email has passed through. The built-in location database in *eMailTrackerPro* helps to track emails to a country or region of the world, showing information on a global map. To trace an email message, one has to just copy and paste the

header of the email in *eMailTrackerPro* and start the tool. A basic trace will be shown on the main Graphical User Interface and a summary report can be obtained. The summary report provides an option to report the abuse of the particular email address to the administrators of the sender and/or victim networks and also contains some critical information that can be useful for forensic analysis and investigation. The report includes the geographic location of the IP address from which the email was sent, and if this cannot be found, the report at least includes the location of the target's ISP. The report also includes the domain contact information of the network owner or the ISP, depending on the sender email address.

### 3. WEB FORENSICS

The predominant web browsers in use today are Microsoft's Internet Explorer (IE) and the Firefox/ Mozilla/ Netscape family. Each of these browsers saves, in their own unique formats, the web browsing activity (also known as web browsing history) of the different users who have accounts on a machine. IE stores the browsing history of a user in the `index.dat` file and the Firefox/ Mozilla/ Netscape family browsers save the web activity in a file named `history.dat`.

These two files are hidden files. So, in order to view them, the browser should be setup to show both hidden files and system files. One cannot easily delete these two files in any regular way. There is also no proof that deleting these files has sped up the browsing experience of the users.

### 4. IP TRACEBACK TECHNIQUES

Masquerade attacks [9] can be produced by spoofing at the link-layer (e.g., using a different MAC address than the original), at the Internet layer (e.g., using a different source IP address than the original), at the transport layer (e.g., using a different TCP/IP port than the original), at the application layer (e.g., using a different email address than the original). Let  $C = h_1 \rightarrow h_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow h_i \rightarrow h_{i+1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow h_n$  be the connection path between hosts  $h_1$  to  $h_n$ . Then, the IP traceback problem is defined as: Given the IP address  $h_n$ , identify the actual IP addresses of hosts  $h_{n-1}, \dots, h_1$ . If  $h_1$  is the source and  $h_n$  is the victim machine of a security attack, then  $C$  is called the attack path.

Reconstruction of the attack path back to the originating attacker  $h_1$  may not be a straightforward process because of possible spoofing at different layers of the TCP/IP protocol stack and also the intermediate hosts becoming compromised hosts, called stepping-stone, and acting as a conduit for the attacker's communication. The security functions practiced in existing networks may also preclude the capability to follow the reverse path. For example, if the attacker lies behind a firewall, then most of the traceback packets are filtered at the firewall and one may not be able to exactly reach the attacker.

### 5.1 Input Debugging

After recognizing that it is being attacked, the victim develops an attack signature that describes common features contained in all the attack packets. The victim communicates this attack signature to the upstream router that sends it the attack packets. Based on this signature, the upstream router employs filters that prevent the attack packets from being forwarded through an egress port and determines which ingress port they arrived on. The process is then repeated recursively on the upstream routers, until the originating site is reached or the trace leaves the boundary of the network provider or the Internet Service Provider (ISP). From now on, the upstream ISP has to be contacted to repeat the procedure.

### 5.2 Controlled Flooding

The victim uses a pre-generated map of the Internet topology to iteratively select hosts that could be coerced to flood each of the incoming links of the upstream router. Since the router buffer is shared by packets coming across all incoming links, it is possible that the attack packets have a higher probability of being dropped due to this flooding. By observing changes in the rate of packets received from the attacker, the victim infers the link through which the attack packet would have come to the upstream router. This basic testing procedure is then recursively applied on all the upstream routers until the source is reached. Though this method is both ingenious and pragmatic, using unsuspecting hosts to flood is itself a denial-of-service attack.

### 5.4 Packet Marking Techniques

The idea behind the packet marking techniques is to sample the path one node at a time rather than recording the entire path. A "node" field, large enough to hold a single router address, in the packet header is reserved. For IPv4, this would be a 32-bit field in the Options portion of the IP header. Upon receiving a packet, a router chooses to write its own address in the node field with a probability  $p$ . Given that enough packets could be sent and the route remains stable, the victim would receive at least one sample for every router in the attack path.

Assuming the probability of marking  $p$  is the same for every router, the probability of receiving a packet marked from a router  $d$  hops away and not marked by any other router since then is  $p(1-p)^{d-1}$ . Fig. 2 illustrates the probability of receiving a packet marked from a router 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 hops away and not marked by any other router on a 6-hop path for different values of the individual probability of marking  $p$ .

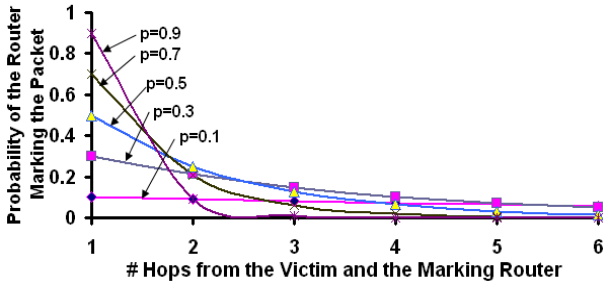


Fig. 2: Probability of Marking by a Router Vs Hop Count of Attack Path

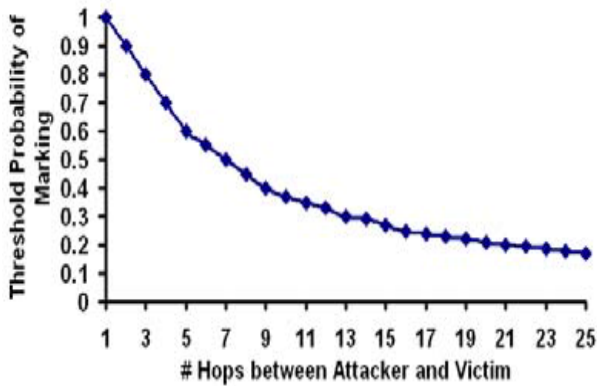


Fig. 3: Threshold Probability of Marking Router Vs Hop Count of Attack Path

The threshold probability of marking is defined as the minimum probability value to be assigned to every router on a path in order to guarantee with 99% probability that at least one router on the path will mark a packet. The threshold probability of marking decreases with the increase in the number of hops. The larger the number of intermediate routers, the greater is the chance of at least one router in the path deciding to mark the packet. Fig. 3 shows the threshold probability of marking as the number of hops is varied from 1 to 25.

The convergence time is defined as the minimum threshold number of packets required to determine the sequence of routers that form the attack path. To determine the order of the routers in the attack path, each router on the path should have marked a different number of times on the packets. The router that is closest to the victim will have the highest number of marks and the router that is closest to the attacker will have the minimum number of marks.

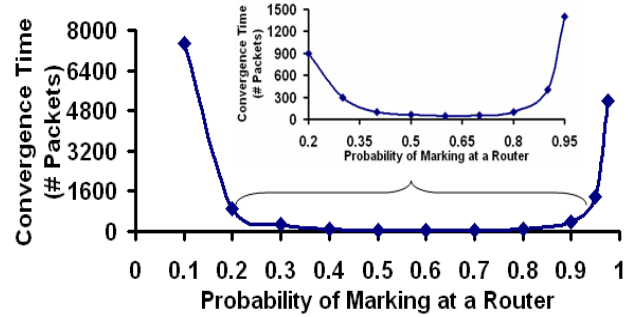


Fig. 4: Convergence Time for a 3-hop Attack Path

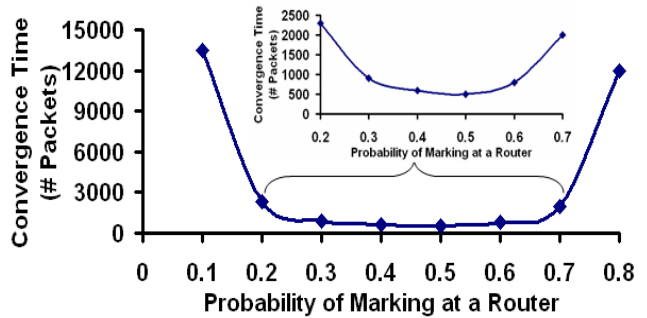


Fig. 5: Convergence Time for a 6-hop Attack Path

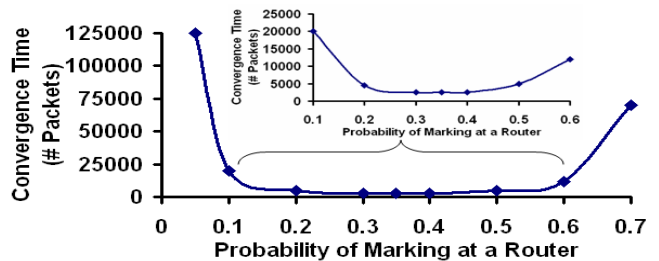


Fig. 6: Convergence Time for a 9-hop Attack Path

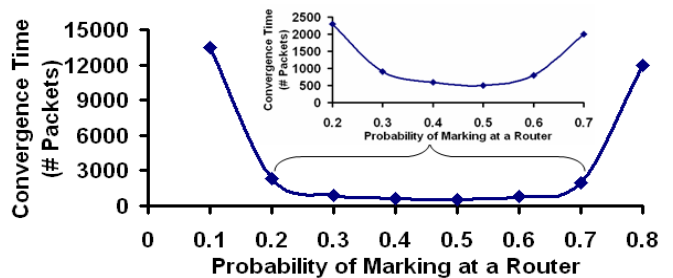


Fig. 7: Convergence Time for a 12-hop Attack Path

The value of the convergence time depends on the probability of marking by a router and the hop count of the attack path. Figures 4 through 9 show the convergence time measured for different probability of marking values on attacks paths with different hop counts, measured with 95% to 97% confidence intervals. For a given hop count of the attack path, the convergence time is minimum for a certain range of values for the probability of marking. The value of the threshold marking probability decreases as the hop count of the attack path is increased because the probability of any router on the attack path marking the packet increases as the hop count increases. Thus, it is possible to reduce the threshold probability of marking a packet as the hop count increases. The minimum convergence time also increases as the hop count of the attack path increases. This is because as the hop count increases, it takes more time for a router closer to the attacker to have a packet marked such that the packet is not marked by any downstream router on the attack path. In order to lower the convergence time in larger hop count attack paths, it is essential to assign a lower probability of marking for the routers.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

The overall contribution of this paper is an exhaustive survey of the several tools and techniques available to conduct network forensics. All the tools surveyed in this paper are free to use, at least available for trials. The paper explored in detail the different IP traceback mechanisms.

Simulations were run to find out the convergence time for attack paths with different lengths and attack routers with different probabilities of marking.

In general, the security and forensic personnel need to keep up pace with the latest attack tools and techniques adopted by the attackers. With freely available tools, one can enforce

these security mechanisms and analyze attack traffic only to a certain extent. To detect all kinds of attacks and conduct a comprehensive forensic analysis, one would have to deploy and analyze the effectiveness of commercial tools. This is the plan for future research. Future work would also involve exploring the tools and techniques available for wireless network forensics.

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