

A longitudinal study of IP Anycast

Danilo Cicalese
Telecom ParisTech
danilo.cicalase@enst.fr

Dario Rossi
Telecom ParisTech, Université Paris Saclay
dario.rossi@enst.fr

ABSTRACT

IP anycast is a commonly used technique to share the load of a variety of global services. For more than one year, leveraging a lightweight technique for IP anycast detection, enumeration and geolocation, we perform regular IP monthly censuses. This paper provides a brief longitudinal study of the anycast ecosystem, and we additionally make all our datasets (raw measurements from PlanetLab and RIPE Atlas), results (monthly geolocated anycast replicas for all IP/24) and code available to the community.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Networks** → **Network measurement; Public Internet; Naming and addressing;**

KEYWORDS

IP anycast; IP Census; BGP; Geolocation; Network monitoring

1 INTRODUCTION

IP anycast is an important building block of the current Internet, primarily used to share the load of a variety of global services [34] – from DNS, to DDoS protection, to CDNs and content distribution, to even BitTorrent trackers and Internet radios [41]. At the same time, IP anycast remains largely unknown from an operational viewpoint: whereas DNS and large CDN operators publish maps of their catchments, these maps cover only a small fraction of the available anycast services [24], and are additionally seldom outdated [25, 37].

Internet service providers would thus benefit, for their operational needs, to have a comprehensive and updated view of anycast catchments. Knowledge of IP anycast is instrumental not only for characterization, troubleshooting [64] and infrastructure mapping [4] but also for security-related tasks such as censorship detection [59]. Yet, detailed knowledge and understanding of IP anycast in the scientific literature is generally limited to one or few deployments [19–22, 27, 30, 38, 49, 53, 54, 62, 65]. Fewer studies provide a broad spatial viewpoint [24, 55] and even fewer a temporal view [64]. This work focuses on a *broad and longitudinal view of anycast evolution*, that to the best of our knowledge has yet to appear.

This paper is built on our own previous work [24, 26]. Shortly, [26] introduces a methodology that is able to (i) assert whether an IP is anycast, (ii) enumerate the replicas and (iii) geolocate them. It uses a set of latency measurement from a distributed set of vantage points with known location towards the same IP target. Our previous work [24] applies this methodology at scale, geolocating all the replicas for all IPv4 anycast at IP/24 level, through four censuses that refer to the same snapshot in time (March 2015).

In this work, we extend findings in [24] along the temporal dimension, providing an analysis of monthly snapshots collected

over more than a year-long period. Particularly, we adopt a coarse time granularity, so that we assume visibility of anycast replicas to be tied to long-term changes in the anycast catchment, as opposite to as being related to short-term dynamics of anycast deployments (such as temporary unavailability as in [64]).

Summarizing our main contributions:

- we conduct monthly anycast censuses at IP/24 level from distributed PlanetLab nodes, and conduct additional measurements from RIPE Atlas;
- we run our anycast geolocation algorithm [26] to build monthly snapshots of anycast at IP/24, BGP announcement and AS levels, that we export as interactive tables and maps;
- based on these censuses, we provide the first bird-eye view of IPv4 anycast from both a spatial and a temporal viewpoint.

The rest of this paper puts this work in perspective with related effort (Sec.2), then describe our campaign (Sec.3) and comment our main findings (Sec.4). To empower the community with up-to-date knowledge about the current state of anycast, as well as to enable further studies, we make all our raw dataset, results and code available at [6].

2 BACKGROUND

Anycast servers enumeration and geolocation is part of a broader effort from the research community to geographically map the physical Internet infrastructure and identify its various components [31], possibly at scale, that we overview in the following.

Infrastructure mapping. Techniques designed for application-level anycast are not applicable with IP-level anycast. As such, there are only a handful of techniques that allow to detect [55], enumerate [37] or also geolocate [26] IP anycast replicas.

Database-based techniques, that are unreliable with IP unicast [60], fail by definition with IP anycast, since they report a single geolocation per IP. Further, mapping techniques that exploit the EDNS-client-subnet (ECS) extension [23, 63] fail with anycast. Techniques relying on speed-of-light violation from ICMP measurements and Border Gateway Protocol (BGP) feeds [55] limitedly allow to detect anycast, but fail to provide replica geolocation. Techniques based on DNS queries of special class (CHAOS), type (TXT), and name (host-name.bind or id.server) provide reliable enumeration [37] but are DNS-specific and thus unsuitable to cover all services. While latency-based IP unicast geolocation [36, 43] is well understood, triangulation techniques do not apply in case of anycast, so that to the best of our knowledge, our previous technique [26] is the first one able to provide accurate geolocation of anycast replicas by only leveraging protocol-agnostic delay information. While it is outside the scope of this work to fully recall details of our technique [26],

we need to briefly cover it to both make this paper self-contained, as well as to recall its limitations.

Anycast geolocation overview. In a nutshell, the technique builds on inferring IP anycast by detecting speed-of-light violations via latency measurements: i.e., as packets travel slower than speed of light, an US and EU host probing the *same* target cannot *both* exhibit excessively low latency (e.g., few milliseconds), as this would violate physical laws. While this observation is not new [55], our iGreedy technique [26] phrases the problem in terms of finding the maximum number of vantage points that are in such violation: by definition, these vantage points all contact a different anycast replica of the same IP target t . By extension, the location of a vantage point i that is found violating the speed-of-light constraint assists in geolocating the replica of t contacted by i : by definition, this replica is contained into a circle centered in the vantage point i and that stretches by at most the distance that the probe packet can have traveled during $RTT_{i,t}/2$. Finding anycast replicas boils then down to finding the maximum number of non-overlapping disks, i.e., solving a a Maximum Independent Set (MIS) optimization problem. It turns out that, with the goal of attaining city-level precision, a very simple yet very good criterion is to choose the position of the most inhabited city as likely location of the anycast replica t . This follows from the fact that the decision to add an anycast replica, follows from the goal of ameliorate the performance for a large fraction of users, which live in large cities (interestingly, this was already used to bias geolocation of *unicast* addresses [35]).

Overall, the technique is protocol agnostic, reliable in IP anycast detection (since detection just requires to find any two disks that do not overlap among the hundreds of latency measurements) and exhibits high recall (i.e., over the 75% of all contacted replicas are correctly discriminated [26]): at the same time, we expect the enumeration to be a lower bound with respect to (i) the actual number of deployed replicas as well as (ii) the enumeration obtained by a protocol-specific technique. As for (i), it is intuitive that in case a deployment is confined in a region where there the measurement infrastructure has few vantage points (e.g., Africa, Asia), then these replicas cannot be measured. As for (ii), consider further that, due to additional processing, queuing and transmission delays, the propagation latency measurements are affected by noise¹, which can hinder the ability of the algorithm to find non-overlapping disks. For instance, two ICMP noisy latency measurements that hit separate DNS root replicas in neighboring cities will possibly yield to overlapping disks, whereas two DNS CHAOS queries destined to the same replicas would very likely bring different DNS CHAOS information. It follows that results will be conservative by design in the assessment of the anycast geographic footprint. At the same time, the technique offers high precision (i.e., allow city-level geolocation) and accurate geolocation (i.e., over 75% geolocations match at city-level, and the average error in the remaining erroneous case is 384 Km [26]). Finally, despite results depend on the coverage of the measurement infrastructure, and the selection of its vantage

points (which we discuss further in Sec.3), we expect the detected replicas to be accurately located.

Anycast characterisation. Research on anycast has so far prevalently focused on either architectural modifications [19, 38, 39, 50] or on the characterization of existing anycast deployments. Overall, a large fraction of these studies quantify the performance of anycast in current IP anycast deployments in terms of metrics such as proximity [19, 20, 27, 54, 62], affinity [19–22, 53, 54, 62], availability [20, 49, 53, 62], and load-balancing [20]. Interestingly, while the body of historical work targets DNS, more recent works [38, 53] have tackled investigation of anycast CDN performance (e.g., client-server affinity and anycast prefix availability for the CacheFly CDN). More recently, [30] investigates DNS root servers, outlining a rule of thumb to determine the right number of anycast replicas, whereas [64] investigates affinity of DNS root servers over a period of two weeks in two different years. We are not aware of any other studies presenting a more systematic temporal analysis than [64], and clearly none targeting a larger spatial set than DNS root servers.

In [24] we leverage measurement infrastructures, namely Planet-Lab and RIPE Atlas, to perform Internet-scale census of IP anycast, by actively probing all /24 subnets and geolocating anycast replicas, finding that only a tiny fraction (0.03%) of IP/24 are anycast – i.e., it appears that finding anycast deployments is like finding a needle in the IP haystack. At the same time, by *actively* probing these anycast targets, we also unveil that several major Internet players do use anycast and that a wide variety of services are used. We instead use a complementary approach in [41], where we *passively* inspect the anycast traffic at one specific DSLAM in EU, to assess anycast actual usage in real networks: we find that users have a 50% chance to encounter anycast instances in their daily activities – including even radio streaming sessions that last for hours, as well as anycasted BitTorrent trackers.

However, while [24] and [41] present a very complete and detailed view of the *spatial* characteristics of anycast deployment, e.g. their geographical distribution, the services offered over anycast (active inspection) and their usage (passive monitoring), these studies represent a snapshot at a fixed point in time. As such, they are orthogonal with respect to the focus of this work, that instead presents a longitudinal study of anycast, based on monthly censuses we run since December 2015.

Internet Censuses. In the past, several studies focused their attention on scaling active scanning techniques to provide broad spatial surveys of the Internet infrastructure [3, 45–47]. Given the initial lack² of high-rate scanning tools, researchers have studied sample of the Internet-space [47] or have splitted the IPv4 space over multiple vantage points [3, 45, 46] or completed the scans in an extended period of time. Since 2006, authors of [45] measure periodically the population of visible Internet edge hosts (at IP/32 level) from eight different vantage points in two different locations, providing an IPv4 hitlist (one likely alive IP/32 target per IP/24), that we leverage in our work. In 2008, authors in [28] scanned the Internet to find DNS servers that provide incorrect resolutions. In 2010, the IRLscanner tool allowed to scan the IP/32 Internet in about

¹Over 90% of the measurements maps to disks that exceed 1000 Km in radius[26]

²Recently filled up by tools such as IRLscanner [52], Zmap[17, 33] or Masscan[7].

24 hours, and results from 21 Internet-wide scans using 6 different protocols have then been presented in [52]. In 2012, the (highly discussed[51]) Carna Botnet [3] has used 420k insecure embedded devices to build a distributed port scanner to scan all IPv4 addresses using nmap [8].

In the recent years, the situation has drastically changed with the advent of new network scanner tools as ZMap [17, 33] and Masscan [7], able to achieve scan rates in excess of 10 Mpps, which let a IP/32 census complete in less than five minutes. This has led to a huge increase of sporadic and regular scans, including malicious ones: as documented in [32], using a network telescope, authors detected over 10 million scans from about 1.5 million hosts during January 2014. These are mainly regular scans, with daily [9] or lower frequencies [57, 61]. Despite only a tiny fraction of these scans target more than 1% of the monitored IPv4 address space, they generate the majority of the unsolicited traffic hitting the darknet[32]. Anycast censuses, such as those we performed in [24], raise the spatial requirement to another level, since the same target needs to be actively probed from multiple (specifically, hundreds [26]) vantage points. As such, to the best of our knowledge, we are not aware of any IPv4 anycast census studies except [24].

3 MEASUREMENT CAMPAIGN

Targets. For the selection of the targets, we rely on the USC/LANDER hitlist [1], providing a list of (likely alive) target IP/32 host per each /24 prefix. Every two months the list is updated, and so our target selection. We only consider hitlist IPs that have been successfully contacted (i.e., denoted by a positive score [1]), which leaves us about 6.3 millions potential targets (out of 14.7 millions).

We argue that /24 is a reasonable granularity since (in principle) IP-anycast is subject to BGP prefix announcement that should not (but seldom are) more specific than /24. Additionally, while in principle we could use one IP/32 per each announced BGP prefix, [5] observes that prefixes longer than /24 have low visibility: as such, we limit the granularity to IP/24 level (i.e., one IP/32 per /24) targeting less than 0.4% of the whole address space in our scans.

Platforms. Several measurement platforms [10–12, 42] exist, they have different characteristics in terms of vantage points cardinality, Autonomous System (AS) diversity, geographic coverage and limits, in terms of probing traffic or rate [18]. We want to stress that differences in the results of the anycast geolocation process may be tied to the platform characteristics itself. For instance, notice that PlanetLab servers are generally hosted in Universities, whereas RIPE Atlas deployment is more widespread offering a better coverage at AS-level: some anycast replicas have an AS-local visibility and therefore happens to be observable only provided that the measurement infrastructure has a vantage point in that AS. Remind that anycast *detection* is a problem with a binary outcome, which is easier to solve than the full *enumeration* and *geolocation* problems: in particular, a hundred vantage points allow to detect over 90% of anycast deployments comprising just two replicas [40].

As such, in this paper we make use of two platforms, namely PlanetLab [12] and RIPE Atlas [10], that we select due to their complementarity. Specifically, PlanetLab does not enforce a specific probing limit, nor implement a credit system: we use it to perform ACM SIGCOMM Computer Communication Review

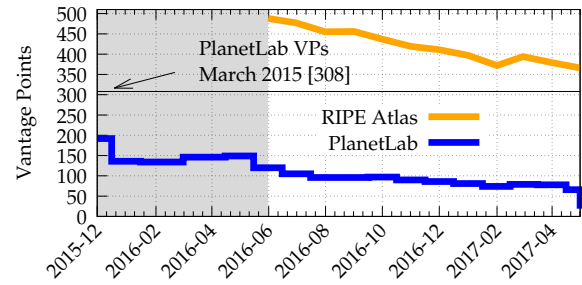


Figure 1: Measurement campaign: evolution of number of PlanetLab and RIPE Atlas VPs

exhaustive censuses to a large set of targets, that we expect to be mostly unicast. Conversely, RIPE Atlas has better coverage: we use it to refine the geolocation information concerning a specific subset of targets, i.e., those that were found to be anycast with PlanetLab.

Vantage points (VP). We perform VP selection following the guidelines in [26]: in PlanetLab, where the total number of VPs is small (and decreasing), we simply select all the available ones; in RIPE Atlas, where the number of VPs is large and due to credits limit, we carefully select 500 VPs, making sure that each VP is far from the others by at least 200 km (roughly 2ms). Similar results can be obtained by clustering VP together geographically and performing a stratified selection in each cluster [40].

Notice also that the selection of a limited number of VPs is necessary to limit the measurement stress on the infrastructure, so that an anycast IP/24 census generate roughly the same amount of probes than a full IP/32 census. Clearly, increasing the cardinality and diversity of the VP set, as well as performing multiple measurements to reduce the latency noise (i.e., using the minimum over multiple samples) would otherwise yield more complete and accurate results [26]. We point out that these supplementary measurements could be performed *after* the anycast detection step, significantly limiting the subset of IP/24 requiring additional probing.

Fig. 1 shows the evolution of the number of available vantage points during our campaign. In the PlanetLab case, the number of nodes available drastically decrease from 300 in March 2015 [24] to roughly 50 in May 2017. In the case of RIPE Atlas, the decrease is due to the fact that we launched a long-standing periodic measurement in June 2016 with an initial set of VPs, some of which later become unavailable. Interestingly, we will see that anycast results appears to be consistent despite this decrease. As early stated, despite a handful of carefully selected vantage points [40] allow to *correctly detect* anycast deployments, it is clear that the shrinking size of the available PlanetLab VP it is not adequate to *thoroughly enumerate* all the locations of an anycast deployment – for which RIPE Atlas measurements become necessary as we shall see.

Censuses. Anycast censuses require the same target to be probed from multiple vantage points: to limit the intrusiveness of our scans, and since we expect that changes in the anycast deployments happen at a low pace, we decide to run scans at a *monthly* frequency.

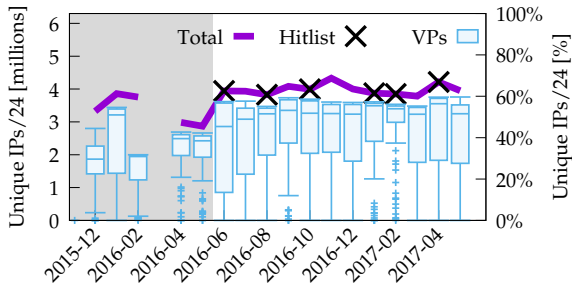


Figure 2: Measurement campaign: box plot of the number of responsive unique IP/24 across all PlanetLab VPs.

Our first anycast census dates back to March 2015 [24]. We then re-engineered our system and started to run monthly censuses from PlanetLab in December 2015. We kept tuning and improving system performance and reliability until June 2016, date at which we additionally started the measurements from RIPE Atlas. We opted to strip down as much as possible the information collected per VP, narrowing down to about 30MB per VP on average, so that the (compressed) raw PlanetLab measurement data hosted at [6] amount to about 60GB per year worth of censuses. The RIPE Atlas measurement are publicly accessible via RIPE Atlas (measurement identifiers are at [6]).

Fig. 2 shows the number of unique IPs that responded to at least one of our PlanetLab VPs in each census, and the right y-axis reports this number as the fraction of replies from the contacted targets. The shadowed part indicates the months where we were still updating the system. Notably, we slowed down the probe rate per VP to about 1,000 targets per second to comply with recommendations in [44], noticing a decrease in the packet loss rate as a beneficial side effect. We can see that the total number of unique IPs is always greater than the number observed by a single VP, and that it fluctuates between 2,9 millions (May 2015) and 4,3 millions (Nov 2016) coherently with [29, 66]. This number has increased since June 2016 when we started to regularly update the hitlist [1] (denoted with crosses). However, notice that even with fresh hitlists not all targets are responsive, which correlates with the availability score of the targets: particularly, the average score for responsive targets (89) is higher than the score of non-responsive ones (40). The figure also reports the distribution of responsive IPs per vantage points (box plots): the recall varies widely per census, per VP, and over time, with some VPs able to collect only few hundred ICMP replies. Luckily, albeit the number of PlanetLab VPs decreases, the median number of contacted targets consistently exceeds 3 millions.

4 RESULTS

This section provides a longitudinal view of anycast evolution. We report both a broad picture including all deployments (Sec.4.1), as well as a more detailed view by cherry-picking some representative ones (Sec.4.2). Without loss of generality, we refer to the last (at time of writing) year worth of censuses, collected between May 2016 and May 2017.

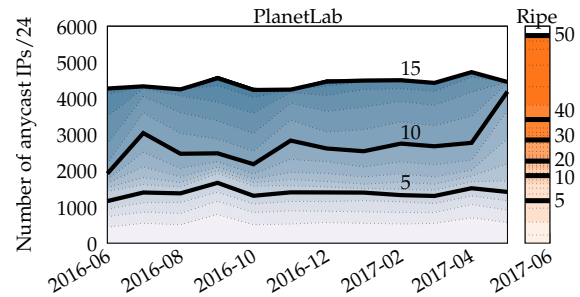


Figure 3: Broad longitudinal view of anycast evolution: Number of IP/24 anycast deployments (y-axis) and breakdown of their geographical footprint (heatmap and contour lines) in PlanetLab (left, over the last year) vs RIPE Atlas (right, last month).

4.1 Broad view

Longitudinal view. First, we assess the extent of variability of anycast deployments. We start by considering an IP/24 granularity, and depict in Fig. 3 the evolution of the number of IP/24 anycast deployments, i.e., the number of deployments that have been found to be anycast by running iGreedy[26] over PlanetLab measurements. We recall that iGreedy requires to solve a Maximum Independent Set (MIS) optimization problem for each of the over 4 million responsive targets every month: the code available on GitHub [13] is able to complete the analysis of a census in few hours, which returns the set of geolocated replicas \mathcal{G}_t for each responsive IP/24 target t . While full details of the geolocation for each target and over all months are available online as a Google-map interface[6], in this paper we limitedly consider the footprint $G_t = |\mathcal{G}_t|$ of the deployment, i.e., the number of distinct instances irrespectively of their location.

The figure shows that in our censuses, the number of anycast deployments has slightly (+10%) increased in the last year, peaking in April 2017 at 4729 IP/24 belonging to 1591 routed BGP prefixes and 413 ASes. In the last six months, the number of anycast deployments has never dropped below 4500 while in June 2016, when we started the censuses regularly, we found only 4297 IP/24, 1507 BGP prefixes and 379 ASes. Compared to our previous results of March 2015 [24], this represents a 2,5-fold increase in detected anycast instances over a period of 2 years. This may be due to several reasons: part of it is rooted in increased anycast adoption over time, whereas another part is rooted in system improvements to reduce packet losses at PlanetLab monitors (during the gray-shaded beta-testing period), which increases the recall. This also means that results in [24] were fairly conservatively assessing the extent of the anycast Internet.

Fig. 3 additionally encodes, as a heatmap, the estimated geographical footprint G_t , where deployments are ranked from bottom to top in ascending size (equivalently, darker colors). A few contour lines indicate the cumulative number of deployments having no more than 5, 10 or 15 replicas. Interestingly, Fig. 3 shows that, despite a shrinking number of PlanetLab VPs, the number of anycast IP/24 remains steady over time. Particularly, the number of deployments having few replicas (e.g., 5 or less) remains flat over time,

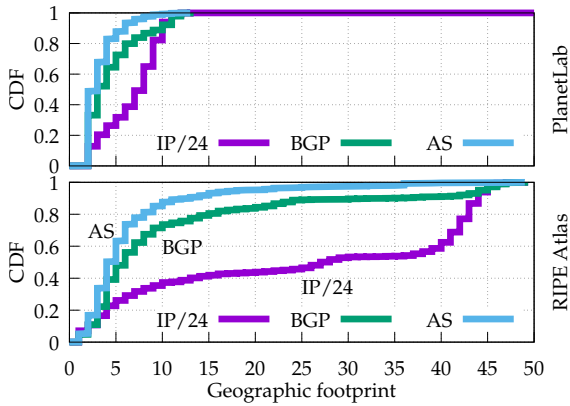


Figure 4: Distribution of the geographic footprint of anycast deployments at IP/24 (G_t), BGP-announced prefix (G_B) and AS level (G_A). Results from PlanetLab (top, all months) vs RIPE Atlas (bottom, last month).

hinting to the fact that the geographical coverage of PlanetLab is still enough to correctly detect most anycast deployments.

Yet, as previously observed, the shrinking number of PlanetLab VPs surely affects the completeness of the replica enumeration. We thus complement PlanetLab censuses with a refinement campaign from RIPE Atlas, which is also reported in Fig. 3: during June 2017, we target all IP/32 that have been found to be anycast in PlanetLab during the previous year. Out of the overall 5841 IP/24s, approximately 300 were not reachable in June 2017 and 5105 IP/24s are confirmed to be still anycast. Particularly, we used 500 RIPE Atlas VPs, i.e., about one order of magnitude more than PlanetLab, which ensures a good geographic coverage (although, admittedly, the results could be refined further by increasing the VP set and the number of latency samples per VP). Thus, while PlanetLab may provide a rather conservative lower bound of the actual footprint for a target t , we expect $G_t^{RIPE} > G_t^{PL}$. Fig. 3 confirms these expectations: in several cases, the number of anycast instances discovered in RIPE Atlas doubles with respect to PlanetLab, and the maximum number exceeds 49 replicas (18 in PlanetLab). Overall, according to RIPE Atlas, half of the deployments are in more than 5 different locations, but only few of them have more than 35 locations (including DNS root servers, Verisign, Microsoft, WoodyNet Packet Clearing House (PCH) and Cloudflare). Consider also that as a consequence of the drop in the number of PlanetLab VPs in the last months, the largest footprint measurable from PlanetLab drops as well (notice the sharp increase for deployments with at most 10 replicas). This confirms that PlanetLab remains useful for anycast detection, but also that RIPE Atlas becomes necessary for enumeration and geolocation, reinforcing the need for a more systematic coupling of complementary measurement infrastructures such as PlanetLab and RIPE Atlas.

Aggregation level. Clearly, while we operate censuses at IP/24 level, it is then possible to aggregate the information at BGP or AS level. Denoting with S_x the set of IP/24 included in a BGP-announced prefix (or an AS) x , we can define the *spatial IP footprint* ACM SIGCOMM Computer Communication Review

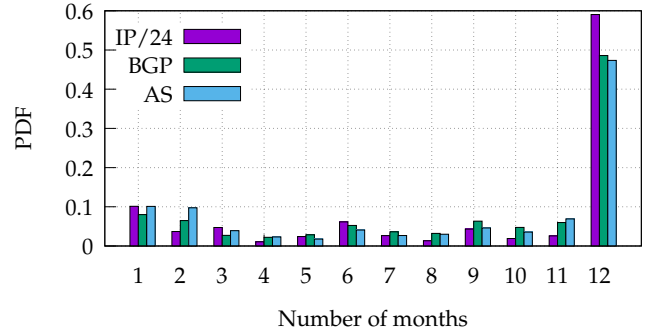


Figure 5: Anycast deployments stability over time: number of censuses where the IP/24, BGP prefix or AS is present over the one year observation period.

as $S_x = |S_x|$. By extension, we can define the BGP-level (AS-level) geographic footprint G_B (G_A) by considering only the largest IP/24 in the prefix $G_B = \max_{t \in S_B} G_t$ ($G_A = \max_{t \in S_A} G_t$). To perform this aggregation step, for each month in the census dataset, we retrieve the AS and prefix information using all the RIPE-RIS and RouteViews collectors with BGPStream [58], and cross-validate the information using the TeamCymru IP to ASn service [2].

The different viewpoints are illustrated in Fig.4 that reports for PlanetLab (top, all months) vs RIPE Atlas (bottom, last month) the cumulative distribution function of the geographic footprint at IP/24, BGP-announced prefix and AS levels. The geographic footprint per-IP/24 vs per-BGP/AS varies widely, which is due to the fact that the spatial distribution is highly skewed, so that ASes making use of a large number of IP/24 are over-represented. Particularly, while more than 50% of the ASes (75% of BGP announced prefixes) make use of a single anycast IP/24, about the 10% of the ASes (BGP prefixes) hosts more than 10 anycast IP/24, topping to 384 (for 104.16.0.0/12) and 3016 (for AS13335). Since all three level of aggregation have relevance to give an unbiased picture of Internet anycast, we make available monthly snapshots with IP/24, BGP and AS aggregations as tabular data [6], which is also browsable online.

Finally, as a rough measure of persistence of individual anycast deployments, Fig.5 depicts a breakdown of the number of months that these catchments are present in our censuses at IP/24, BGP or AS levels. Notice that over 45% of anycast ASes (60% of anycast IP/24) consistently appear in our measurements for the whole year and 70% ASes (78% IP/24) appear at least 6 months. Only less than 10% deployments are seen only once.

4.2 Focused view

Top-10 deployments. We now provide a more detailed view of a few selected ASes out of the 566 in our censuses. Particularly, Tab. 1 reports detail concerning the top-10 deployments (company name and type, AS number and the number of BGP prefixes announced by that AS), the spatial footprint (i.e. the number S_A of IP/24 per AS and its temporal variability) and the geographical footprint (i.e. the number G_A of distinct replicas and its temporal variability). To compactly represent the size of a deployment, we report the maximum number S_A^+ of observed anycast IP/24 over the last year

Table 1: Focused view: Footprint variability of top-5 spatial (top) and top-5 geographical (bottom) deployments.

| Deployment footprint: | | | | Spatial | | Geographical | |
|-----------------------|-------|------|-----|---------|--------|--------------|--------|
| Company | AS | Type | BGP | S_A^+ | CV_S | G_A^+ | CV_G |
| Cloudflare | 13335 | CDN | 206 | 3016 | 0.04 | 49 | 0.07 |
| Google | 15169 | SP | 16 | 524 | 0.38 | 30 | 0.08 |
| Afilias | 12041 | TLD | 218 | 218 | 0.15 | 6 | 0.10 |
| Fastly | 54113 | CDN | 34 | 175 | 0.09 | 20 | 0.07 |
| Incapsula | 19551 | DDoS | 146 | 146 | 0.23 | 15 | 0.17 |
| Cloudflare | 13335 | CDN | 206 | 3016 | 0.04 | 49 | 0.07 |
| L root | 20144 | DNS | 1 | 1 | 0 | 47 | 0.13 |
| F root | 3557 | DNS | 2 | 2 | 0 | 40 | 0.19 |
| Woodynet | 42 | TLD | 132 | 133 | 0.02 | 39 | 0.12 |
| Verisign | 26415 | Reg. | 2 | 2 | 0 | 36 | 0.20 |

for that AS, as well as the $G_A^+ = \max G_A^{RIPE}(t)$ maximum number of locations observed from RIPE Atlas (recall that the number of locations is lower bound of the actual number of anycast replicas due to additive noise in the propagation latency measurements). The selection in Tab. 1 reports the top-5 in terms of S_A^+ spatial footprint (top) and the top-5 for G_A^+ geographic footprint (bottom).

Considering the spatial footprint IP/24, Cloudflare (AS13335) has a leading role: it is present in all the censuses with over 3 thousands IP/24 belonging to about 200 announced prefixes (mainly /20 but also less specific prefixes, as a /12 or a /17), and we did not observe significant variation over time. Furthermore, as confirmed from RIPE Atlas, the deployment has a heterogeneous geographical footprint, with some /24 having only 10–15 instances, while in the majority of the cases the /24 appear at over 40 distinct locations (119 according to [14]). Notice that, this would had been unnoticed if we had performed censuses at a different granularity (i.e., one IP/32 per BGP prefix as opposite as to one IP/32 per IP/24 in that prefix). Few other companies have over 100 anycast IP/24 prefixes in our censuses. For instance, Google (AS15169) exhibits a 3-fold increase in the number of IPs/24 in the last year (from 130 IPs/24 announced mainly by /16 in June 2016, to 330 IP/24 announced also by 190 new /13 prefixes in March 2017), the majority of which have instances at more than 30 locations. Opposite behaviors are also possible: for instance, the Fastly CDN (AS54113), shrunk its spatial footprint, the majority of which belong to an IP/16 and regularly appear in all our censuses. Interestingly, as early depicted in Fig. 3, the overall aggregate of all anycast deployments (i.e., the number of anycast /24 in the Internet and their geographical breakdown) is stable despite the variability of the individual deployments.

The common way to deploy anycast is to announce an IP prefix from multiple points using the same AS [48], that we refer to Single Origin AS (SOAS). Another way is to announce the IP prefix using multiple ASes, usually referred as Multiple Origin ASes (MOAS) prefixes. In our dataset, we identified hundred IPs/24 as MOASes, that are commonly announced by few siblings, i.e., different ASes belonging to the same organization that announce the same prefix. However we spot cases where the number of ASes is greater than 10: for instance, we find that Verisign announces MOASes with 17 different ASes in the range of AS36617-AS36632; similarly, the ACM SIGCOMM Computer Communication Review

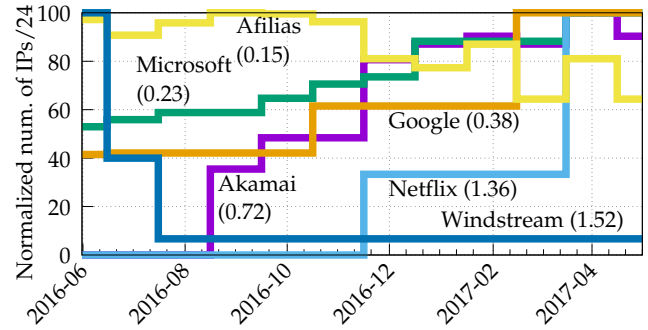


Figure 6: Spatial footprint evolution: Number of IPs/24 for selected anycast AS deployments (PlanetLab).

Registry and DNS company AusRegistry, announces MOASes with 13 different ASes.

To compactly represent the spatial footprint evolution over time, we use the coefficient of variation, computed as the ratio of the standard deviation over the average number of anycast IP/24 per month $CV_S = \text{std}(S_A(t))/\mathbb{E}[S_A(t)]$. From Tab. 1, we can see that for deployments that have large spatial footprint (top), the variability CV_S can be important (e.g., Google or Incapsula), hinting to deployments that have grown (or shrunk) significantly. Conversely, among deployments with large geographical footprint, several have a very small spatial footprint ($S_A^+ \geq 2$) and exhibit no variation $CV_S = 0$.

Finally, as simple indicator of geographical footprint variability we compute $CV_G = \text{std}(G_A^{PL}(t))/\mathbb{E}[G_A^{PL}(t)]$ from PlanetLab measurements. Notably, we expect part of the variability to be due to measurement imprecision: e.g., shrinking number of VPs, packet losses and increased delay, can lead to underestimate the number of distinct locations. Yet, as it can be seen from Tab. 1, we find that the geographical variability is lower than the spatial one: this is reasonable since, while spatial variability hints to configuration changes in software, the geographical one possibly hints to physical deployments of new hardware.

Temporal variability. We now inspect temporal variability at a finer grain. We start by depicting in Fig.6 the temporal evolution of the spatial footprint, normalized for the maximum observed for that deployment (i.e., $S_A(t)/\max_t S_A^+(t)$) for catchments in the top-5 (Afilias, Google) as well as for other key Internet players (Microsoft, Akamai, Netflix, Windstream). Evolutions represent a sample of what can be found in our censuses: for instances the two ASes reported in the picture owned by Akamai (AS21342) and Netflix (AS40027) start being announced as anycast during our observation period and either systematically (Akamai) or abruptly (Netflix) increase the amount of responsive anycast IP/24 over time. Google (AS15169) and Microsoft (AS8068) both have a sizeable presence at the beginning of the observation period, with roughly 50% of the IP/24 already in use, and roughly double the amount of IP/24 used at the end of the period in a smooth (Microsoft) or abrupt (Google) fashion. Finally, close to the beginning of our observation period, Windstream drastically reduces its anycast spatial footprint, keeping just a single anycasted IP/24. While these

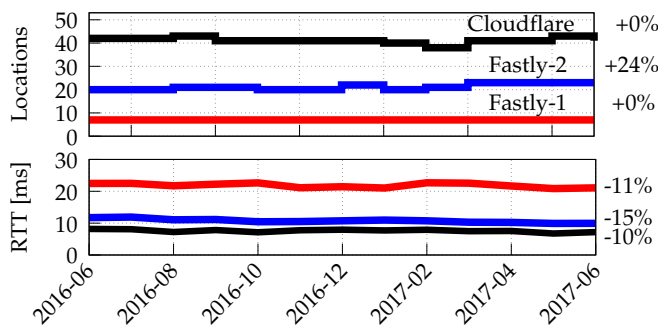


Figure 7: Geographical evolution of selected anycast deployments: Number of locations (top) and delay toward the replicas (bottom) measured from RIPE Atlas.

observations have anecdotal value, and cannot explain the reason behind changes in the deployment, they however confirm that anycast deployments have a rather lively temporal evolution, the extent of which is captured by the coefficient of variation. It is worth recalling that individual deployment exhibit wide variations, however the aggregate remains quite stable over time (recall Fig.3).

It is intuitive that the number (and location) of vantage points upper-bounds (and constrains) the number of anycast instances that can be found. Given the slow but steady decrease of the PlanetLab VPs, we unfortunately do not deem PlanetLab measurement reliable in assessing, at a fine grain, the geographic growth (which can be underestimated) or reduction (which can be due to VP decrease) of anycast deployments. We thus decided to regularly monitor anycast prefixes using 500 Ripe Atlas VPs. We picked targets from two key CDN players, namely Cloudflare (8 different IP/20) and Fastly (5 different IP/24). As per Tab. 1, Cloudflare is the top-1 player over all anycast, and given its sheer footprint, we expect it to grow at a slower rate with respect to other deployments: especially, the number of locations appears to already significantly exceed the one³ suggested in [30]. As such, we use Cloudflare as a litmus paper for our measurement. Our selection of Fastly is then motivated by the fact that despite it appears in the top-5 and so we expect it to steadily appear in our measurement, it has 1/10 the spatial footprint and 1/2 the geographic footprint of Cloudflare: so it not only has room to grow, but also possibly has the money necessary for the investment.

Fig. 7 comprises three lines: for Cloudflare, we report the average over all IP/20, whereas for Fastly we cherry pick 2 out of the 5 IP/24 we monitored, that are representative of the typical (Fastly-1) and smaller-than-typical Fastly deployment (Fastly-2). In the case of Cloudflare the figure shows that, as expected, the number of instances is stable (i.e., the growth rate is slow with respect to our observation window), so that fluctuations are only measurement artifacts. Whereas the Fastly-1 IP/24 remains stable IP/24 with

³ In particular [30] states that "After carefully studying four very different anycast deployments, we claim that 12 anycast sites would be enough for good overall latency. Two sites per continent, in well chosen and well connected locations, can provide good latency to most users". The Cloudflare catchment exceeds this suggestion by approximately 5x in our measurement, and by nearly an order of magnitude according to the Cloudflare blog[14, 15] that reports 119 nodes at times of writing.

only 7 different locations, in the case of the Fastly-2 IP/24, we observe a growth from 19 locations in June 2016 to 24 in June 2017. For reference purposes, 33 locations are mentioned in [16]: this corresponds to a 73% recall, in line with expectations for the iGreedy methodology [26]. Latency measurements are shown in the bottom part of the figure. We can observe a 10% of latency reduction also for stable deployments (Fastly-1 and Cloudflare) and it thus to be imputed to other causes (e.g., increased peering connectivity). At the same time, at least for Fastly, it appears that increasing the number of instances reduces the average latency toward our RIPE Atlas probes by an additional 5%, and *halves* the 95th percentile (from 137ms in June 2016 to 68ms in June 2017), unlike expectations [30]. A significant take-away from Fig. 7 is that the advantage to increase the catchment size appears to have diminishing returns: in other words, the (delay) gain from Fastly-1 to Fastly-2 is significant, whereas the (delay) gain to expand further to reach the size of Cloudflare deployment is modest. Clearly, the fact that L and F DNS root servers and Cloudflare [15] deployments significantly exceed 100 distinct locations, implies that one size may not fit all for anycast deployments – and that further research is needed to provide a more accurate answer so as to what should be a reasonable size for anycast catchments.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Internet anycast is an important building block of the current Internet: the study of deployments and their evolution is useful to enrich our understanding of Internet operations. In this longitudinal study, we learn that anycast detection (important for censorship studies[59]) is reliable in spite of varying (and especially diminishing) vantage points. We additionally see that anycast *spatial footprint* (i.e., the number of anycast /24 per AS) evolves significantly for individual deployments, though it remains steady in the aggregate. PlanetLab censuses can reliably measure this variability.

However, while we gather that anycast *geographical footprint* evolves, we also acknowledge that to accurately track the state of anycast Internet at replica level a large set of vantage points are needed. In this case, due to decreasing PlanetLab VPs, a more tight coupling with RIPE Atlas would be needed (e.g., monthly detection from PlanetLab, followed from a refinement of geolocation for detected anycast deployments).

Finally, by closely monitoring a few deployments with RIPE Atlas, we gather that even anycast deployments that already have a large geographical footprint, apparently benefit (in that their service latency decreases, though with diminishing returns) from further growing the deployment beyond sound rules of thumb [30], which requires more systematic investigation. In particular, IP anycast is an appealing way to implement, at relatively low cost, an effective replication scheme for a variety of services [41], as the paths leading to anycasted replicas are (with few exceptions) significantly stable over time [64]. Given anycast importance, a broad and systematic analysis of the current catchments is hopefully helpful to update and distill deployment guidelines along the lines of [15, 30, 56].

Alongside sharing the knowledge gathered in this study, we especially believe that by making our datasets and tools available [6] to the scientific community, we can contribute to enrich the Internet map along the anycast dimension.

GRAZIE

We wish to thank the anonymous Reviewers whose useful comments helped us improving the quality of this paper. This work has been carried out at LINCS (<http://www.lincs.fr>) and benefited from support of NewNet@Paris, Cisco's Chair "NETWORKS FOR THE FUTURE" at Telecom ParisTech (<http://newnet.telecom-paristech.fr>).

REFERENCES

- [1] 2006. Internet Addresses Hitlist Dataset. Provided by the USC/LANDER project <http://www.isi.edu/ant/lander>. (2006).
- [2] 2008. <http://www.team-cymru.org/Services/ip-to-asn.html>. (2008).
- [3] 2012. <http://census2012.sourceforge.net/paper.html>. (2012).
- [4] 2015. <https://labs.ripe.net/Members/emileaben/measuring-ixps-with-ripe-atlas>. (2015).
- [5] 2015. <https://labs.ripe.net/Members/emileaben/has-the-routability-of-longer-than-24-prefixes-changed>. (2015).
- [6] 2018. <http://www.telecom-paristech.fr/~drossi/anycast>. (2018).
- [7] 2018. <https://github.com/robertdavidgraham/masscan>. (2018).
- [8] 2018. <https://nmap.org>. (2018).
- [9] 2018. <https://dnsscan.shadowserver.org/>. (2018).
- [10] 2018. <https://atlas.ripe.net>. (2018).
- [11] 2018. <http://www.caida.org/projects/ark>. (2018).
- [12] 2018. <https://www.planet-lab.org>. (2018).
- [13] 2018. <https://github.com/TeamRossi/anycast-census>. (2018).
- [14] 2018. <http://www.cloudflare.com/network>. (2018).
- [15] 2018. <https://blog.cloudflare.com/amsterdam-to-zhuzhou-cloudflare-global-network/>. (2018).
- [16] 2018. <https://www.fastly.com/network-map/>. (2018).
- [17] David Adrian, Zakir Durumeric, Gulshan Singh, and J Alex Halderman. 2014. Zippier ZMap: Internet-Wide Scanning at 10 Gbps. In *WOOT*.
- [18] V. Bajpai and J. Schonwalder. 2015. A Survey on Internet Performance Measurement Platforms and Related Standardization Efforts. *IEEE Communications Surveys & Tutorials* (2015).
- [19] Hitesh Ballani and Paul Francis. 2005. Towards a Global IP Anycast Service. In *ACM SIGCOMM*.
- [20] Hitesh Ballani, Paul Francis, and Sylvia Ratnasamy. 2006. A measurement-based deployment proposal for IP anycast. In *ACM IMC*.
- [21] Biet Barber, Matt Larson, and Mark Koster. 2006. Traffic Source Analysis of the J Root Anycast instances. 39th Nanog. (2006).
- [22] Peter Boothe and Randy Bush. 2005. DNS Anycast Stability: Some Early Results. 19th APNIC. (2005).
- [23] Matt Calder, Xun Fan, Zi Hu, Ethan Katz-Bassett, John Heidemann, and Ramesh Govindan. 2013. Mapping the expansion of Google's serving infrastructure. In *ACM IMC*.
- [24] Danilo Cicalese, Jordan Auge, Diana Joumlatt, Timur Friedman, and Dario Rossi. 2015. Characterizing IPv4 Anycast Adoption and Deployment. In *ACM CoNEXT*.
- [25] Danilo Cicalese, Diana Joumlatt, Dario Rossi, Marc-Olivier Buob, Jordan Augé, and Timur Friedman. 2015. A Fistful of Pings: Accurate and Lightweight Anycast Enumeration and Geolocation. In *IEEE INFOCOM*.
- [26] Danilo Cicalese, Diana Joumlatt, Dario Rossi, Marc-Olivier Buob, Jordan Auge, and Timur Friedman. 2016. Latency-Based Anycast Geolocalization: Algorithms, Software and Datasets. *IEEE JSAC* (2016).
- [27] Lorenzo Colitti. 2006. Measuring anycast server performance: The case of K-root. 37th Nanog. (2006).
- [28] David Dagon, Niels Provos, Christopher P Lee, and Wenke Lee. 2008. Corrupted DNS Resolution Paths: The Rise of a Malicious Resolution Authority.. In *NDSS*.
- [29] Alberto Dainotti, Karyn Benson, Alistair King, Bradley Huffaker, Eduard Glatz, Xenofontas Dimitropoulos, Philipp Richter, Alessandro Finamore, and Alex C Snoeren. 2016. Lost in Space: Improving Inference of IPv4 Address Space Utilization. *IEEE JSAC* (2016).
- [30] Ricardo de Oliveira Schmidt, John Heidemann, and Jan Harm Kuipers. 2017. Anycast Latency: How Many Sites Are Enough?. In *PAM*.
- [31] R. Durairajan, S. Ghosh, X. Tang, P. Barford, and B. Eriksson. 2013. Internet Atlas: A Geographic Database of the Internet. In *ACM HotPlanet*.
- [32] Zakir Durumeric, Michael Bailey, and J Alex Halderman. 2014. An Internet-Wide View of Internet-Wide Scanning.. In *USENIX Security Symposium*.
- [33] Z. Durumeric, E. Wustrow, and J. Alex Halderman. 2013. ZMap: Fast Internet-wide Scanning and Its Security Applications. In *USENIX Security Symposium*.
- [34] Robert Engel, Vinod Peris, Debanjan Saha, Erol Basturk, and Robert Haas. 1998. Using IP Anycast For Load Distribution And Server Location. In *IEEE GI*.
- [35] B. Eriksson, P. Barford, J. Sommers, and R. Nowak. 2010. A Learning-based Approach for IP Geolocation. In *PAM*.
- [36] Brian Eriksson and Mark Crovella. 2013. Understanding geolocation accuracy using network geometry. In *IEEE INFOCOM*.
- [37] Xun Fan, John S. Heidemann, and Ramesh Govindan. 2013. Evaluating anycast in the domain name system.. In *IEEE INFOCOM*.
- [38] Ashley Flavel, Pradeepkumar Mani, David A Maltz, Nick Holt, Jie Liu, Yingying Chen, and Oleg Surmachev. 2015. FastRoute: A Scalable Load-Aware Anycast Routing Architecture for Modern CDNs. In *USENIX NSDI*.
- [39] Michael J. Freedman, Karthik Lakshminarayanan, and David Mazières. 2006. OASIS: Anycast for Any Service. In *USENIX NSDI*.
- [40] Gregoire Gallois-Montbrun and Victor Nguyen. 2015. Defining a minimum vantage point selection to detect BGP Hijack with iGreedy. <http://perso.telecom-paristech.fr/drossi/teaching/INF570/projects/2015-paper-3.pdf>. (2015).
- [41] Danilo Giordano, Danilo Cicalese, Alessandro Finamore, Marco Mellia, Maurizio Munafo, Diana Joumlatt, and Dario Rossi. 2016. A First Characterization of Anycast Traffic from Passive Traces. In *TMA*.
- [42] Vasileios Giotsas, Amogh Dhamdhere, and Kimberly C Claffy. 2016. Periscope: Unifying looking glass querying. In *PAM*.
- [43] B. Gueye, A. Ziviani, M. Crovella, and S. Fdida. 2004. Constraint-based geolocation of internet hosts.. In *ACM IMC*.
- [44] Hang Guo and John Heidemann. 2018. Detecting ICMP Rate Limiting in the Internet. In *PAM*.
- [45] J. Heidemann, Y. Pradkin, R. Govindan, C. Papadopoulos, G. Bartlett, and J. Bannister. 2008. Census and Survey of the Visible Internet. In *ACM IMC*.
- [46] Nadia Heninger, Zakir Durumeric, Eric Wustrow, and J Alex Halderman. 2012. Mining Your Ps and Qs: Detection of Widespread Weak Keys in Network Devices.. In *USENIX Security Symposium*.
- [47] Ralph Holz, Lothar Braun, Nils Kammenhuber, and Georg Carle. 2011. The SSL landscape: a thorough analysis of the X.509 PKI using active and passive measurements. In *ACM IMC*.
- [48] Xin Hu and Z Morley Mao. 2007. Accurate real-time identification of IP prefix hijacking. In *IEEE SP*.
- [49] Daniel Karrenberg. 2005. Anycast and BGP Stability: A Closer Look at DNSMON Data. 34th Nanog. (2005).
- [50] Dina Katabi and John Wroclawski. 2000. A Framework for Scalable Global IP-anycast (GIA). In *ACM SIGCOMM*.
- [51] T. Krenc, O. Hohlfeld, and A. Feldmann. 2014. An Internet Census Taken by an Illegal Botnet: A Qualitative Assessment of Published Measurements. *ACM SIGCOMM CCR* (2014).
- [52] Derek Leonard and Dmitri Loguinov. 2013. Demystifying internet-wide service discovery. *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking* (2013).
- [53] Matt Levine, Barrett Lyon, and Todd Underwood. 2006. Operational experience with TCP and Anycast. 37th Nanog. (2006).
- [54] Ziqian Liu, Bradley Huffaker, Marina Fomenkov, Nevil Brownlee, and Kimberly C. Christy. 2007. Two Days in the Life of the DNS Anycast Root Servers.. In *PAM*.
- [55] Doug Madory, Chris Cook, and Kevin Miao. 2013. Who are the anycasters. Nanog. (2013).
- [56] Danny McPherson, Eric Osterweil, David Oran, and Dave Thaler. 2014. *RFC 7094, Architectural considerations of IP anycast*.
- [57] Ariana Mirian, Zane Ma, David Adrian, Matthew Tischer, Thasphon Chuenchujit, Tim Yardley, Robin Berthier, Joshua Mason, Zakir Durumeric, J Alex Halderman, et al. 2016. An Internet-Wide View of ICS Devices. In *IEEE PST*.
- [58] Chiara Orsini, Alistair King, Danilo Giordano, Vasileios Giotsas, and Alberto Dainotti. 2016. BGPStream: a software framework for live and historical BGP data analysis. In *ACM IMC*.
- [59] Paul Pearce, Roya Ensafi, Frank Li, Nick Feamster, and Vern Paxson. 2017. Augur: Internet-Wide Detection of Connectivity Disruptions. In *IEEE SP*.
- [60] Ingmar Poese, Steve Uhlig, Mohamed Ali Kaafar, Benoit Donnet, and Bamba Gueye. 2011. IP Geolocation Databases: Unreliable? *ACM SIGCOMM CCR* (2011).
- [61] Christian Rossow. 2014. Amplification Hell: Revisiting Network Protocols for DDoS Abuse. In *NDSS*.
- [62] S. Sarat, V. Pappas, and A. Terzis. 2006. On the Use of Anycast in DNS. In *ICCCN*.
- [63] Florian Streibelt, Jan Böttger, Nikolaos Chatzis, Georgios Smaragdakis, and Anja Feldmann. 2013. Exploring EDNS-client-subnet Adopters in Your Free Time. In *ACM IMC*.
- [64] Lan Wei and John Heidemann. 2017. Does Anycast Hang up on You?. In *TMA*.
- [65] Jing'an Xue, David Choffnes, and Jilong Wang. 2017. CDNs Meet CN. (2017).
- [66] Sebastian Zander, Lachlan LH Andrew, and Grenville Armitage. 2014. Capturing ghosts: Predicting the used IPv4 space by inferring unobserved addresses. In *ACM IMC*.