DNSSEC and DNSCurve

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The Domain Name System

ibm.com wants to see http://www.mnit.ac.in.

Browser at ibm.com

“The web server www.mnit.ac.in has IP address 210.212.97.131.”

Administrator at mnit.ac.in

Now ibm.com retrieves web page from IP address 210.212.97.131.
Same for Internet mail.

ibm.com has mail to deliver to someone@mnit.ac.in.

Mail client at ibm.com

“The mail server for mnit.ac.in has IP address 210.212.97.131.”

Administrator at mnit.ac.in

Now ibm.com delivers mail to IP address 210.212.97.131.
Forging DNS packets

ibm.com has mail to deliver to someone@mnit.ac.in.

Mail client at ibm.com

“The mail server for mnit.ac.in has IP address 157.22.245.20.”

Attacker anywhere on network

Now ibm.com delivers mail to IP address 157.22.245.20, actually the attacker’s machine.
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“No sniffers on my network!”

... so a blind attacker guesses the bits to repeat, eventually gets lucky.

After analysis, optimization: blind forgery is about as easy as downloading a movie.
Some general questions

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Indeed, many connections use SSL, Skype, etc.
But *most* connections don’t.
Why is there so much unprotected Internet communication?
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In fact, attackers are forging packets and exploiting buffer overflows and doing much more. Users want all of these problems fixed.
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True for most protocols. But let’s focus on HTTP. Most HTTP servers and browsers (Apache, Internet Explorer, Firefox, etc.) support SSL.
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Indeed, usability is a major issue. Only $\approx 1\%$ of the Apache servers on the Internet have SSL enabled.
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Many companies sell SSL-acceleration hardware, but that costs money too.
Why are cryptographic computations so expensive?

Can crypto be faster, without being easy to break?

Can crypto be fast enough to solidly protect all of Google’s communications?

Can crypto be fast enough to protect every Internet packet?

Can universal crypto be usable?
What cryptography can do

Cryptography can stop sniffing attackers by scrambling legitimate packets.

Cryptography is often described as protecting confidentiality: attackers can’t understand the scrambled packets.

Can also protect integrity: attackers can’t figure out a properly scrambled forgery.
Traditional cryptography requires each legitimate client-server pair to share a secret key.

Public-key cryptography has much lower requirements. (1976 Diffie–Hellman; many subsequent refinements)

Each party has one public key. Two parties can communicate securely if each party knows the other party’s public key.

1993: IETF begins “DNSSEC” project to add public-key signatures to DNS.
After fifteen years and millions of dollars of U.S. government grants (e.g., DISA to BIND company; NSF to UCLA; DHS to Secure64 Software Corporation), how successful is DNSSEC?

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Surveys by DNSSEC developers, last updated 2009.03.12, have found 253 *.com names with DNSSEC signatures. 116 on 2008.08.20; 253 > 116.
Why is nobody using DNSSEC?

Some of the Internet’s DNS servers are extremely busy: e.g., the root servers, the .com servers, the google.com servers.

DNSSEC tries to minimize server-side costs by precomputing signatures of DNS records.

Signature is computed once; saved; sent to many clients. Hopefully the server can afford to sign each DNS record once.
Clients don’t share the work of verifying a signature.

DNSSEC tries to reduce client-side costs through choice of crypto primitive.

DNSSEC RFCs say DSA is “10 to 40 times as slow for verification” as RSA; recommend RSA “as the preferred algorithm” for DNSSEC; suggest RSA key size of only 1024 bits for “leaf nodes in the DNS.”
I say:
1024-bit RSA is irresponsible.

2003: Shamir–Tromer et al. concluded that 1024-bit RSA was already breakable by large companies and botnets.

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But most users don’t know this. Why aren’t they using DNSSEC?
DNS architecture

Browser pulls data from DNS cache at ibm.com:

Administrator at mnit.ac.in

“The web server www.mnit.ac.in has IP address 210.212.97.131.”

Cache pulls data from administrator if it doesn’t already have the data.
Administrator pushes data through local database into .mnit.ac.in DNS server:

- Browser at ibm.com
- DNS cache
- .mnit.ac.in DNS server
- .mnit.ac.in database
- Administrator at mnit.ac.in

“The web server www.mnit.ac.in has IP address 210.212.97.131.”
DNS cache learns location of .mnit.ac.in DNS server from .in DNS server:

at ibm.com

“The DNS server for .mnit.ac.in is dns2 with IP address 210.212.97.130.”

at mnit.ac.in
DNS server software listed in Wikipedia: BIND, Microsoft DNS, djbdns, Dnsmasq, Simple DNS Plus, NSD, PowerDNS, MaraDNS, ANS, Posadis, Secure64 DNS.

DNS database-management tools listed by 2008 Salomon: BPP, DNS Boss, DNStool, gencidrzone, h2n, makezones, NSC, nsupdate, SENDS, updatehosts, Utah Tools, webdns, zsu. Plus hundreds of homegrown tools written by DNS registrars etc.
DNSSEC requires new code in every DNS-management tool. Whenever a tool adds or changes a DNS record, also has to precompute and store a DNSSEC signature for the new record. Often considerable effort for the tool programmers.

Example: Signing 2GB database can produce 10GB database (2005 NIST study). Tool reading database into RAM probably has to be reengineered.
Because of engineering costs and redeployment costs, very few database-management tools have added DNSSEC support.

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2008 slideshow “DNSSEC in six minutes” (79 pages): “Any time you modify a zone ... you must re-run dnssec-signzone.”
Administrator also has to send public key to .in.

The .in server and database software and web interface need to be updated to accept these public keys and to sign everything.

Big zones such as .com refuse to sign complete database. Full DNSSEC signing would be much too slow and much too big.
DNS cache needs new software to fetch keys, fetch signatures, and verify signatures.

Often many more packets than original DNS.
Higher latency for user.
More frequent failures.

Also, much easier for attacker to deny service.

$> 100\times$ amplification!

Official DNSSEC response, RFC 4033: “DNSSEC provides no protection against denial of service attacks.”
Replay attack on DNSSEC:
Attacker inspects DNSSEC signatures from mnit.ac.in.
mnit.ac.in changes location, acquires new IP addresses, changes DNS records.
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Attacker inspects DNSSEC signatures from mnis.ac.in.
mnis.ac.in changes location, acquires new IP addresses, changes DNS records.
Attacker buys the old addresses, forges DNS responses with the old DNS records and the old signatures. Passes signature verification. Successfully steals mail!
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DNSSEC has a partial defense. Signature has an expiration date, normally signing date + 30 days. Not very good security: replay attack continues to work for up to 30 days! Also a major administrative hassle: administrator must generate new signatures before old signatures expire. If administrator forgets, domain is destroyed. “DNSSEC suicide.”
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Install HTTPSEC software.
Set up a public key.

After every web-page update, wiki edit, database change, etc., log in to web server and run httpsec-signpages with appropriate options to precompute new signatures.
Imagine an “HTTPSEC” that works like DNSSEC.

Install HTTPSEC software. Set up a public key.

After every web-page update, wiki edit, database change, etc., log in to web server and run `httpsec-signpages` with appropriate options to precompute new signatures.

Replay attacks work for 30 days. Have to run `httpsec-signpages` again before 30-day expiration or your web pages are destroyed.
But wait, there’s more!

NXDOMAIN attack on DNSSEC: Attacker forges DNS response from google.com saying that citronella.google.com doesn’t exist.
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When is the signature precomputed? Does Google precompute signatures for all possible names? Too many!
DNSSEC solution: Sign multi-NXDOMAIN such as "there are no names between chrome.google.com and code.google.com."

DNSSEC server issues this signed data in response to any name between chrome and code. Tricky definition of "between"; theoretically implementable.
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Consequence: If you deploy DNSSEC then you are exposing all of your DNS names!
Newest DNSSEC variant: “NSEC3” (2008 Laurie), exposing hashes of DNS names. Hash is 150 SHA-1 iterations.

Hash-enumeration attack: Attacker guesses many names, computes their hashes, compares to the hashes exposed by DNSSEC+NSEC3.

Small 10-computer cluster: $\approx 2^{44}$ guesses/year.

Large company or botnet: $\approx 2^{64}$ guesses/year.
Without DNSSEC, attacker has to send query for each guessed name.

Flooding a 4Mbps connection: \( \approx 2^{37} \) guesses/year.

Compared to normal DNS, DNSSEC+NSEC3 makes guessing silent and makes it millions of times faster for a well-equipped attacker.

DNSSEC+NSEC3 is advertised as being better than DNSSEC; but it still loses privacy compared to normal DNS.
Precomputation impact summary:

DNSSEC is pain for implementors. Hundreds of DNS programs—all caches, all servers, and all management tools—need to be modified to precompute and store signatures.

DNSSEC is pain for administrators, far beyond a simple upgrade.

DNSSEC hurts privacy.
DNSSEC hurts reliability.
DNSSEC aids denial of service.
Rethinking signatures

Conventional wisdom: DNSSEC’s precomputation, sacrificing security while creating severe usability problems, is necessary for speed.

Can we achieve adequate speed \textit{without} precomputation? Let’s change the design.
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Can we achieve adequate speed *without* precomputation? Let’s change the design.

1. **Add encryption.**
   Want to protect against sabotage *and* against espionage.
   So use public-key signatures *and* public-key encryption.
2. Merge signing with encryption.

“Public-key signcryption” protects against forgery and eavesdropping in one step.

“Public-key authenticated encryption” is even faster.

No need to partition the algorithms into an encryption component and an authentication component. Combined algorithms are faster.
3. Merge public-key operations across multiple messages.

It’s silly for a sender to authcrypt two messages to the same recipient.

“Hybrid cryptography” is much faster.

Example: Sender generates a random AES key, authcrypts the AES key, uses the AES key to encrypt and authenticate both messages.
4. Choose sensible primitives.

256-bit elliptic-curve cryptography using public-domain software:

489069 Core 2 cycles to handle a new communication partner.

5355 cycles to encrypt and authenticate a 510-byte message.

6786 cycles to verify and decrypt a legitimate 510-byte message.

3465 cycles to reject a forged 510-byte message.
A 2.5GHz Intel Core 2 Quad Q9300 CPU costs US$225. Complete computer: $400.

This CPU has 4 cores. Each core carries out 2.5 billion cycles/second.

On this computer, the same software takes just 49 seconds to handle 1000000 new communication partners, and just 12 seconds to handle 10000000 incoming packets and 10000000 outgoing packets.
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Verisign says that it wants to be prepared for 4 trillion packets/day. Cryptographic cost of 4 trillion partners/day with this software: < 3000 computers.
What is this software?

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Actually done three months ago. Subsequent time has been QA.

NaCl is now released:

http://nacl.cace-project.eu
The DNSCurve project

DNSCurve uses NaCl to add heavy-duty integrity (RSA-1024 has 80-bit security; DNSCurve has 128-bit security) and some confidentiality and availability to the Domain Name System.

Despite all this security, DNSCurve is very easy for DNS software authors to implement and very easy for administrators to deploy.
Administrator has to change the mnit.ac.in server to support DNSCurve, or install a DNSCurve forwarder alongside the server.

Administrator does not need to change database software, does not need to store signatures, does not need new procedures for updating DNS records, and does not risk DNSSEC suicide.
Administrator changes server name such as \texttt{dns2} to a server name that encodes the DNSCurve public key.

The \texttt{.in} server and database software and web interface already support \texttt{mnit.ac.in} server names selected by the \texttt{mnit.ac.in} administrator!
Cache has to be upgraded to support DNSCurve.

Cache naturally sees the encoded DNSCurve public key. Cache encrypts and authenticates DNS packets sent to that server. Cache verifies and decrypts DNS packets received from that server.

No extra packets. Forged packets are very efficiently discarded. Denial of service becomes much more difficult.
Does DNSCurve mean that DNSSEC is completely useless?

No. DNSSEC can protect against compromise of DNS servers if administrator generates signatures on another machine that has not been compromised.
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Analogy: HTTPSEC, unlike HTTPS, can protect against compromise of HTTP servers if administrator signs web pages on another machine.

But does this justify the pain of DNSSEC+HTTPSEC?
More information on DNSCurve:
Software release coming soon.

Thinking beyond DNS: Can every Internet packet be protected in a similar way?
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Thinking beyond DNS:
Can every Internet packet be protected in a similar way?

Thinking beyond networking:
When people sacrifice security and usability for the sake of performance, are they really improving performance?