

# The DNS security mess

D. J. Bernstein

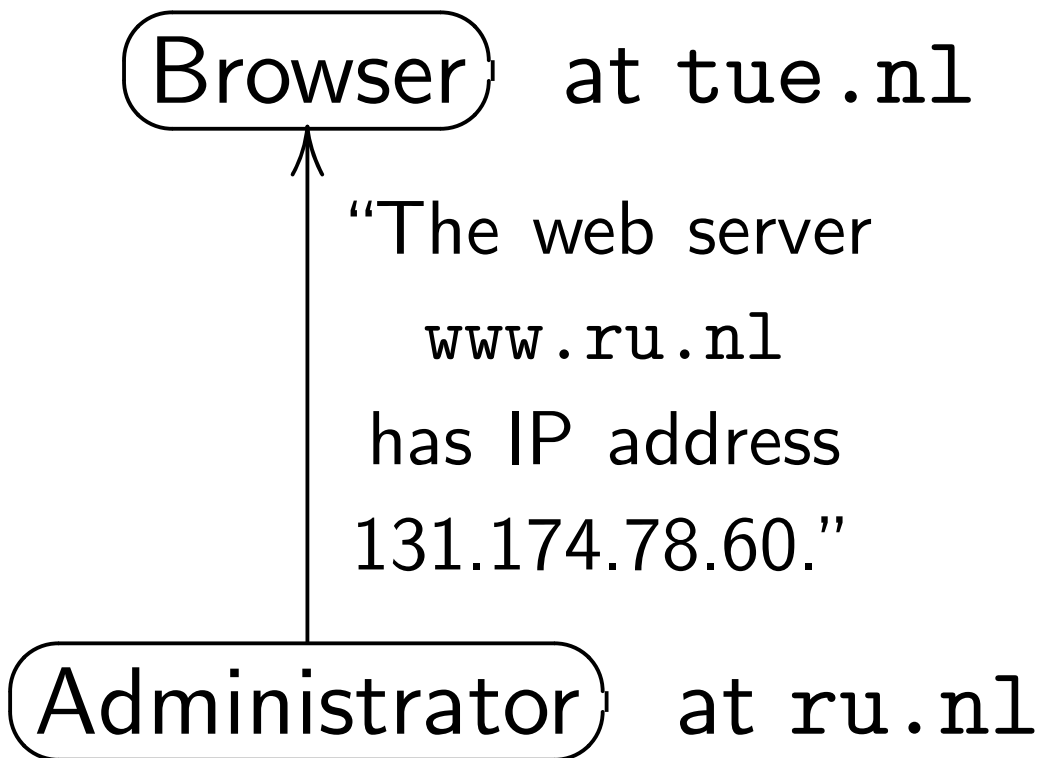
University of Illinois at Chicago;

Technische Universiteit Eindhoven

# The Domain Name System

tue.nl wants to see

http://www.ru.nl.



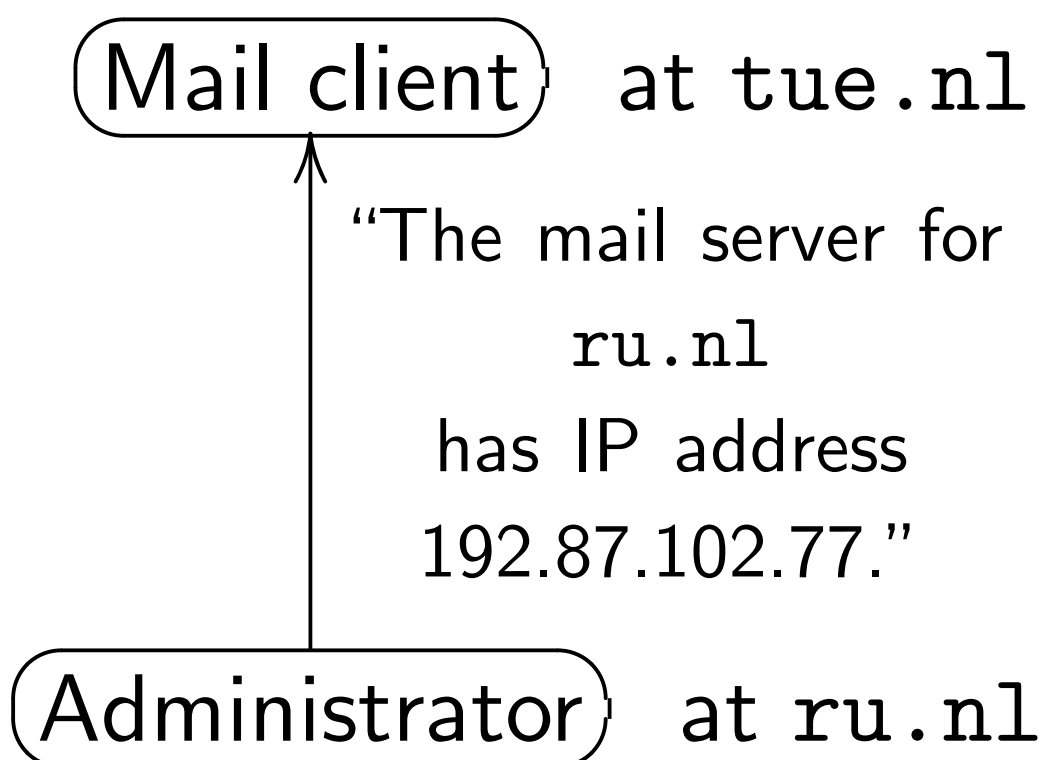
Now tue.nl

retrieves web page from

IP address 131.174.78.60.

Same for Internet mail.

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



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.

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for attackers to do this:

Control name, type, time  
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If guess fails, try again.

After analysis, optimization:  
this is about as much traffic  
as downloading a movie.



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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!



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the new .org public key  
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Because the .org servers  
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... or is it?

## December 2015: reality

Let's find a .org server:

```
$ dig +short ns org
```

```
d0.org.afiliast-nst.org.
```

```
a0.org.afiliast-nst.info.
```

```
c0.org.afiliast-nst.info.
```

```
b2.org.afiliast-nst.org.
```

```
a2.org.afiliast-nst.info.
```

```
b0.org.afiliast-nst.org.
```

```
$ dig +short \
```

```
    b0.org.afiliast-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:

```
$ 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  
69T6U801GSG9E1LMITK4DEMOT  
  NS SOA RRSIG DNSKEY NSEC  
3PARAM  
  
h9p7u7tr2u91d0v0ljs9l1gid
```

np90u3h.org. 86400 IN RRS  
IG NSEC3 7 2 86400 201601  
06023715 20151216013715 1  
448 org. 0GLyaFRtHdR6UBeq  
EZ1/mnvAG8NJ2z5nBi5ALpYtE  
UJRUAfKVCzaWJjZ rpgB6WgcF  
TczyRmM8iYvBNwzmUxoPzgkv  
ALtRDom1rdpsVDxGveMJu6 pE  
80Jdf2sbfXmZd1viiz+RXRvNI  
YBNTujz2NPadBATP1UNr0sbQj  
Cota iBk=

bgca0g0ug0p6o7425emkt9ue4  
qng3p2f.org. 86400 IN NSE  
C3 1 1 1 D399EAAB BGDM7MS

F9V1T1JFVI8FA211MH4JD7UJ7

A RRSIG

bgca0g0ug0p6o7425emkt9ue4

qng3p2f.org. 86400 IN RRS

IG NSEC3 7 2 86400 201512

30150037 20151209140037 1

448 org. Wg2ha2mg0DnjiVN1

P7sk04Y/nSp+sR5uhChRWyzqH

Vn/Q4DEXqftVYeh v/x7Cmz2Q

Ork7bZ/K+v0+5m0Myao6Fod8+

fevV8t4ZmWrS+NLjNfx/y1 So

StsWztJ50oxdmZw1Ew0ALH/5g

sK+PUKaB6dx2BoE0iFn1p1PSf

ggs9 MB0=

Wow, that's a lot of data.

Must be strong cryptography!

```
$ tcpdump -n -e \  
    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 \  
    org @199.19.54.1
```

Sends 89-byte IP packet,  
receives two IP fragments  
totalling 2362 bytes.



## Interlude: the attacker's view

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Let's see what DNSSEC can do  
as an amplification tool for  
denial-of-service attacks.

# Download DNSSEC zone list:

```
wget -m -k -I / \
    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 \
| 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

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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:

```
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
```

I sustained  $51\times$  amplification  
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Attacker sending 10Mbps can trigger 500Mbps flood from the DNSSEC drone pool, taking down typical site.

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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2536 IP addresses worldwide.



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Exercise: Collect+publish data.

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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:

SURF  
NET



## HARDENING THE INTERNET

The impact and importance of DNSSEC



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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Still no public announcements  
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against honest attackers.”

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

I say:

Using RSA-1024 is irresponsible.

But that's not the big problem  
with these DNSSEC signatures  
for `greenpeace.org`.

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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.”

SURF  
NET



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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.

Continuing cycle of  
DNSSEC implementations,  
IETF DNSSEC discussions,  
protocol updates, revised  
software implementations, etc.

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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.

DNSSEC made breakable choices such as 640-bit RSA for no reason other than fear of overload.

DNSSEC needed more options to survive the inevitable breaks. More complexity  $\Rightarrow$  more bugs, including security holes.

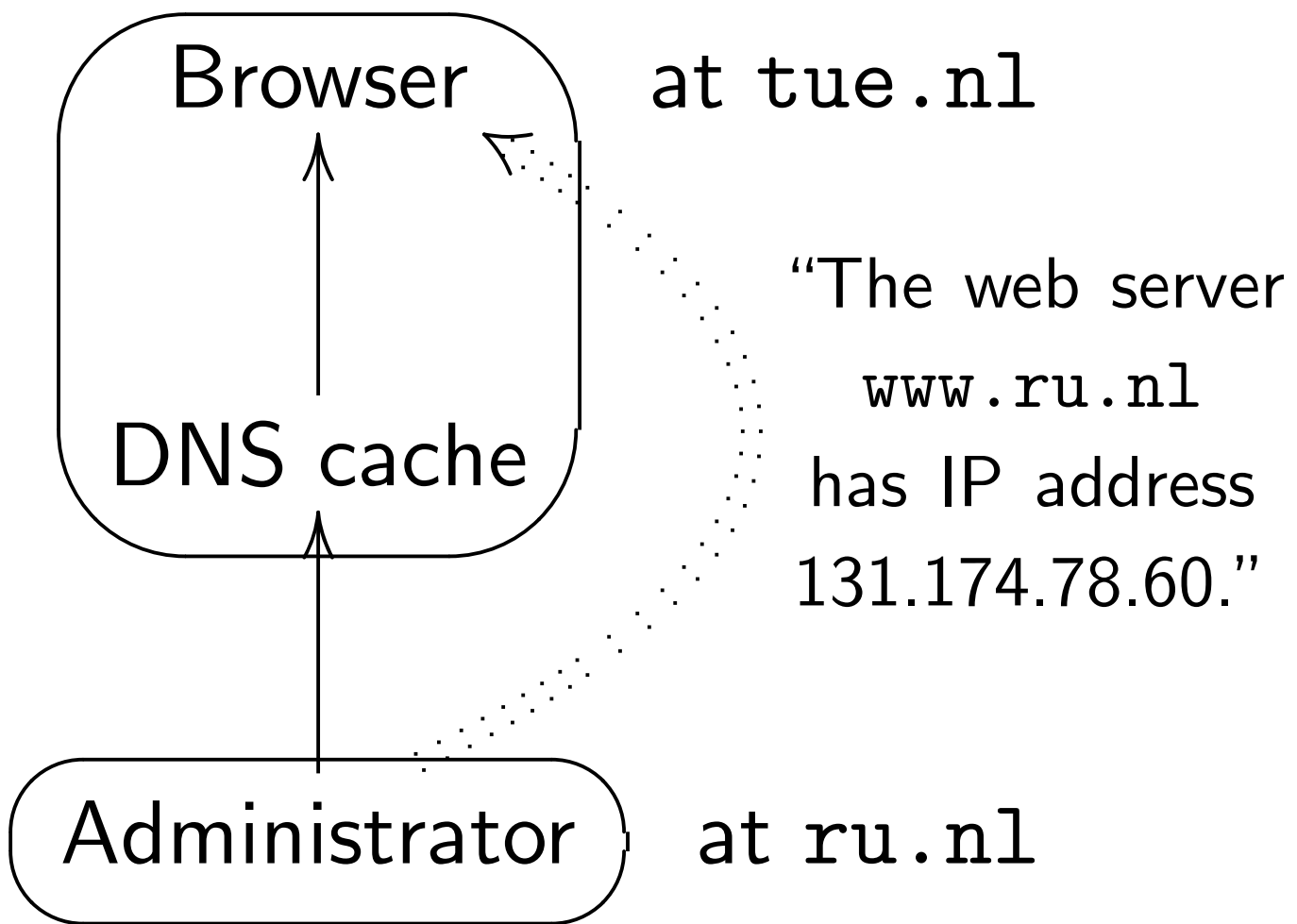
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Looking beyond the crypto: Precomputation forced DNSSEC down a path of unreliability, insecurity, and unusability. Let's see how this happened.

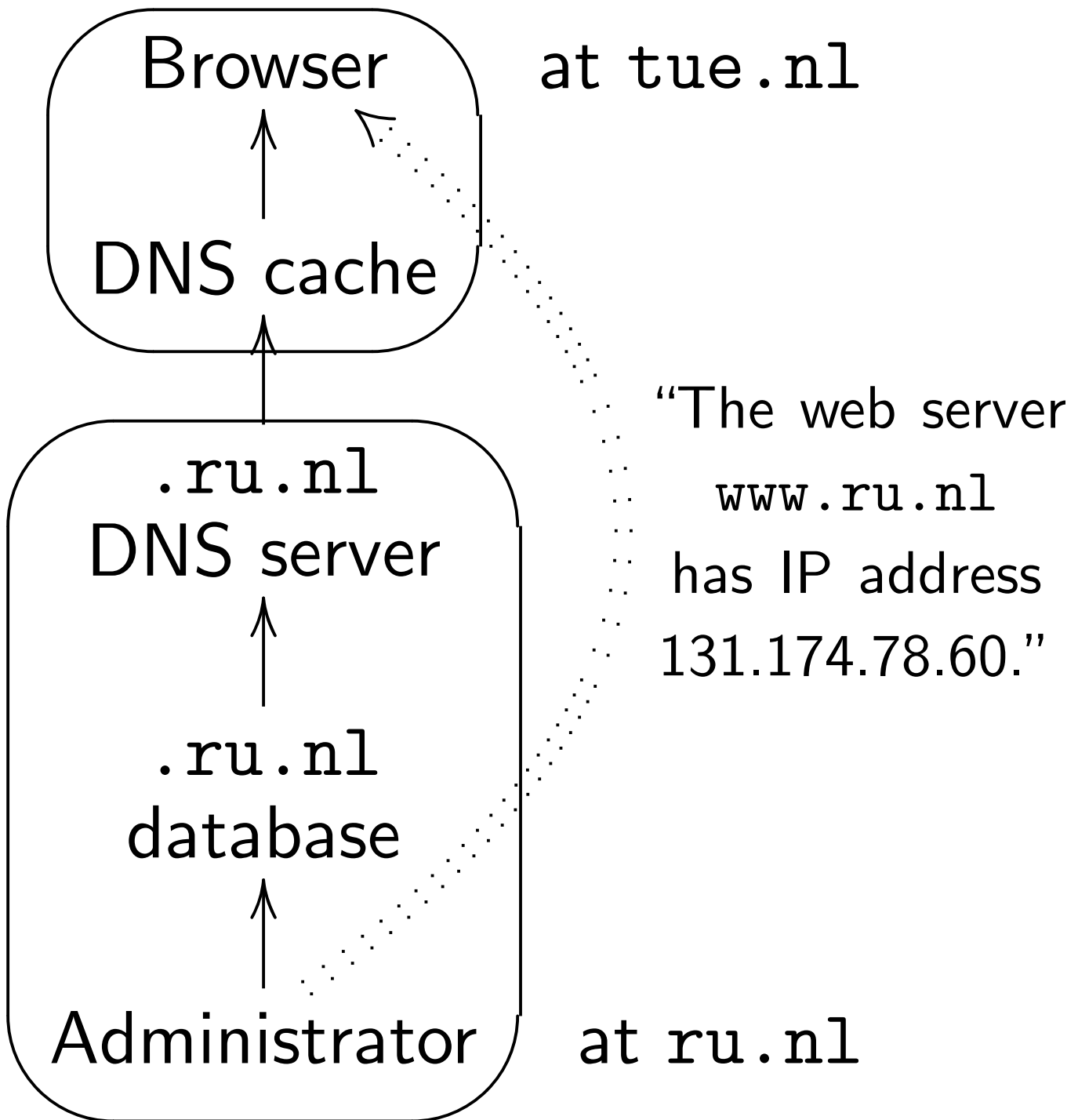
# DNS architecture

Browser pulls data from  
DNS cache at `tue.nl`:

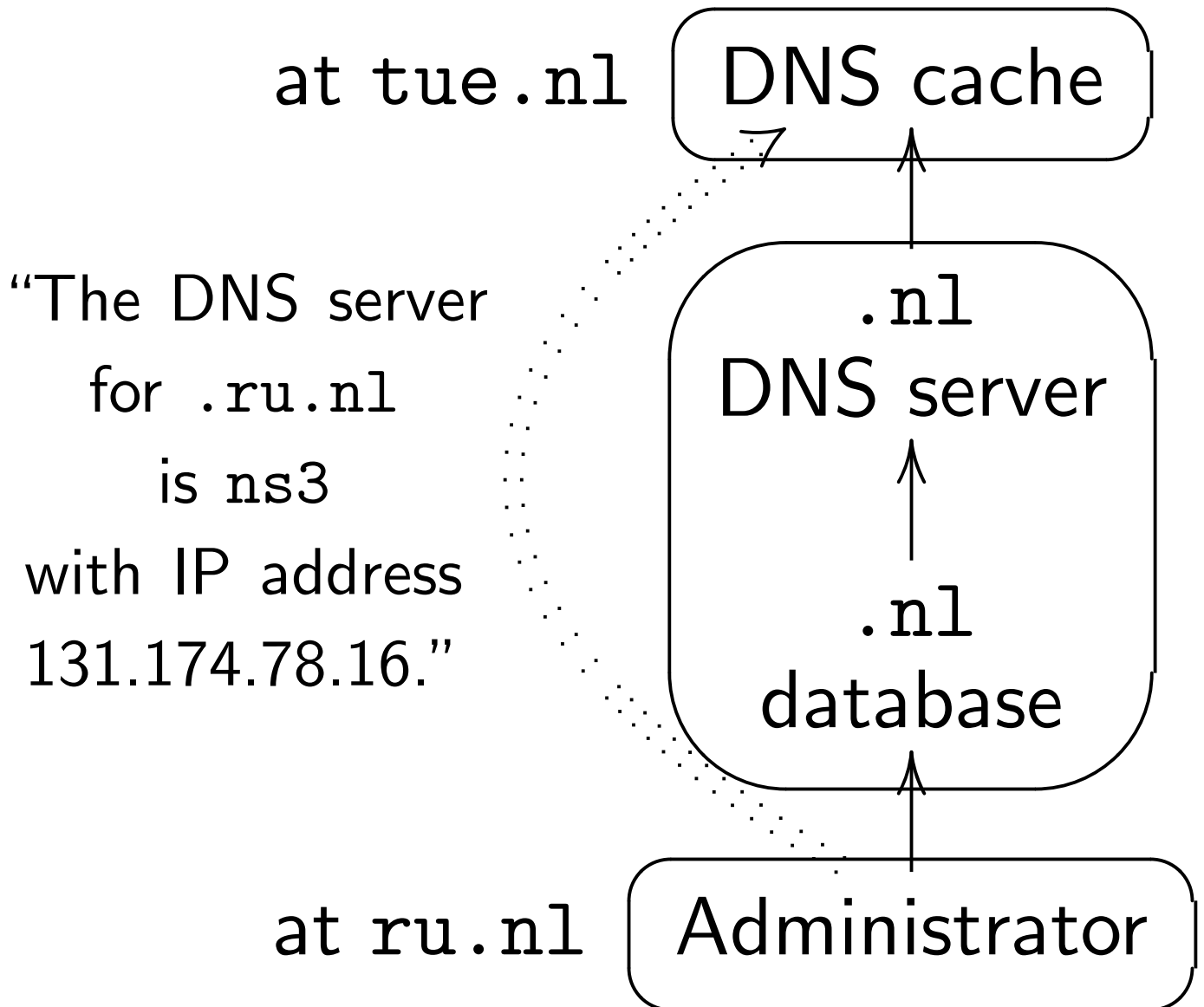


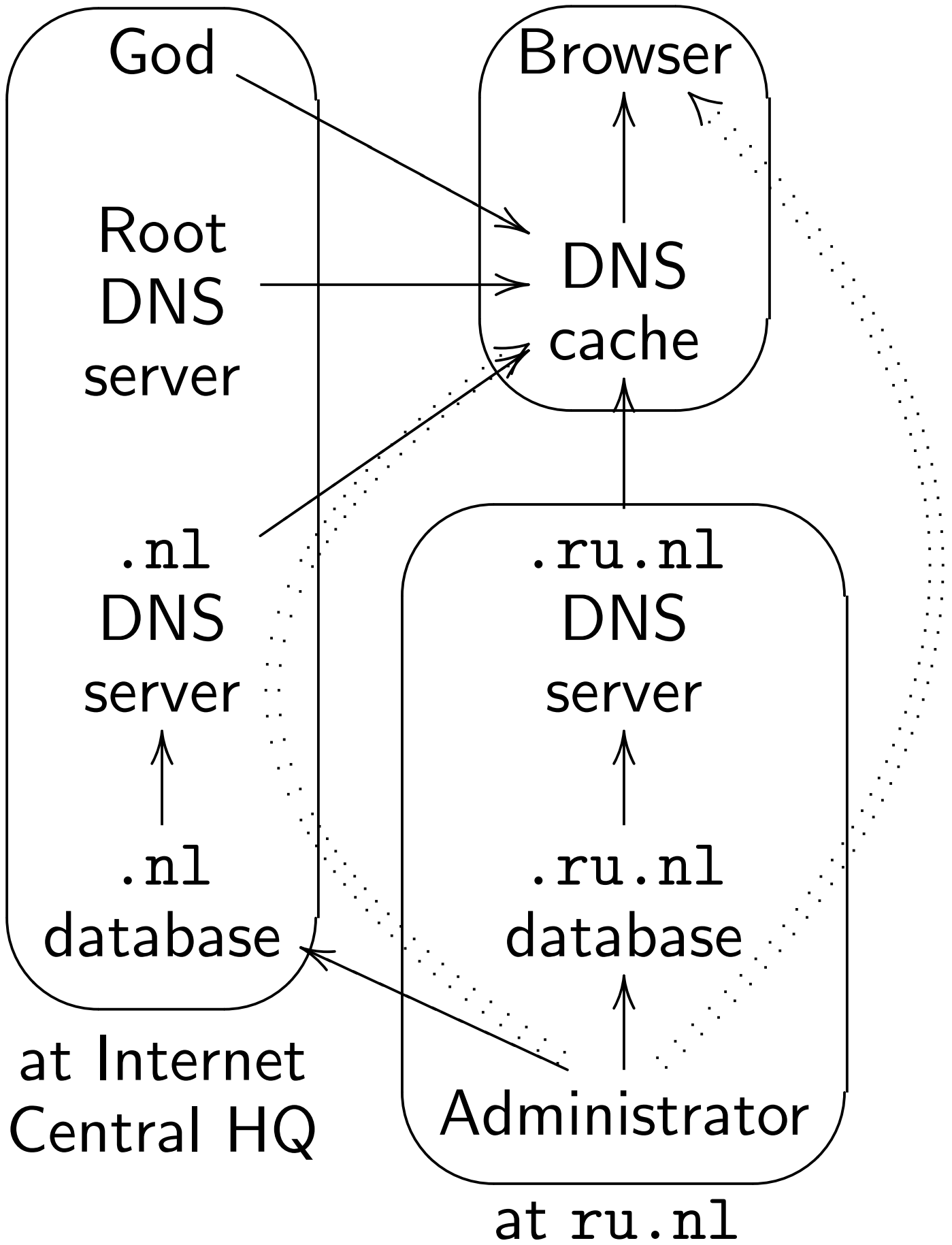
Cache pulls data from  
administrator if it  
doesn't already have the data.

Administrator pushes data through local database into .ru.nl DNS server:



DNS cache learns location of  
.ru.n1 DNS server from  
.n1 DNS server:





DNS server software listed in Wikipedia: BIND, Microsoft DNS, djbdns, Dnsmasq, Simple DNS Plus, NSD, Knot DNS, PowerDNS, MaraDNS, pdnsd, Nominum ANS, Nominum Vantio, Posadis, Unbound, Cisco Network Registrar, dnrd, gdnsd, YADIFA, yaku-ns, DNS Blast.

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?

e.g. Most big sites  
return random IP addresses  
to spread load across servers.

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,  
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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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2015.01.25: `opendnssec.org`  
killed itself.

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2015.12.11: `af.mil` killed itself.

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Many more: see `ianix.com`  
`/pub/dnssec-outages.html`.

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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.

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.

Alternative: DNSSEC's "NSEC".  
e.g. `nonex.clegg.com` query  
returns "There are no names  
between `nick.clegg.com` and  
`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,  
googleffffffffffe91126e7,  
home, imogene, jennifer,  
localhost, mail, wiki, www.

Try `foo.clegg.com` etc.

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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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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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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 10000000000 million silent guesses/day.

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Store a signature next to  
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Recompute and store signature  
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Any failure: HTTPSEC suicide.

Dynamic content? Give up.



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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?

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Never mind all the problems.

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## 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?**

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  
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DNSSEC purists criticize HTTPS:  
“You can’t trust your servers.”

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(preferably in guarded rooms).

DNSSEC precomputes signatures.  
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But DNSSEC is not signing  
any of the user’s data!

PGP signs the user's data.

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PGP-signed web pages and email are protected against misbehaving servers, and against network attackers.

With PGP, what attack is stopped by DNSSEC?

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.

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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.