

NETWORKING BASICS

CMSC 8180

NOV 12 2019



WHY DOES THE INTERNET WORK?

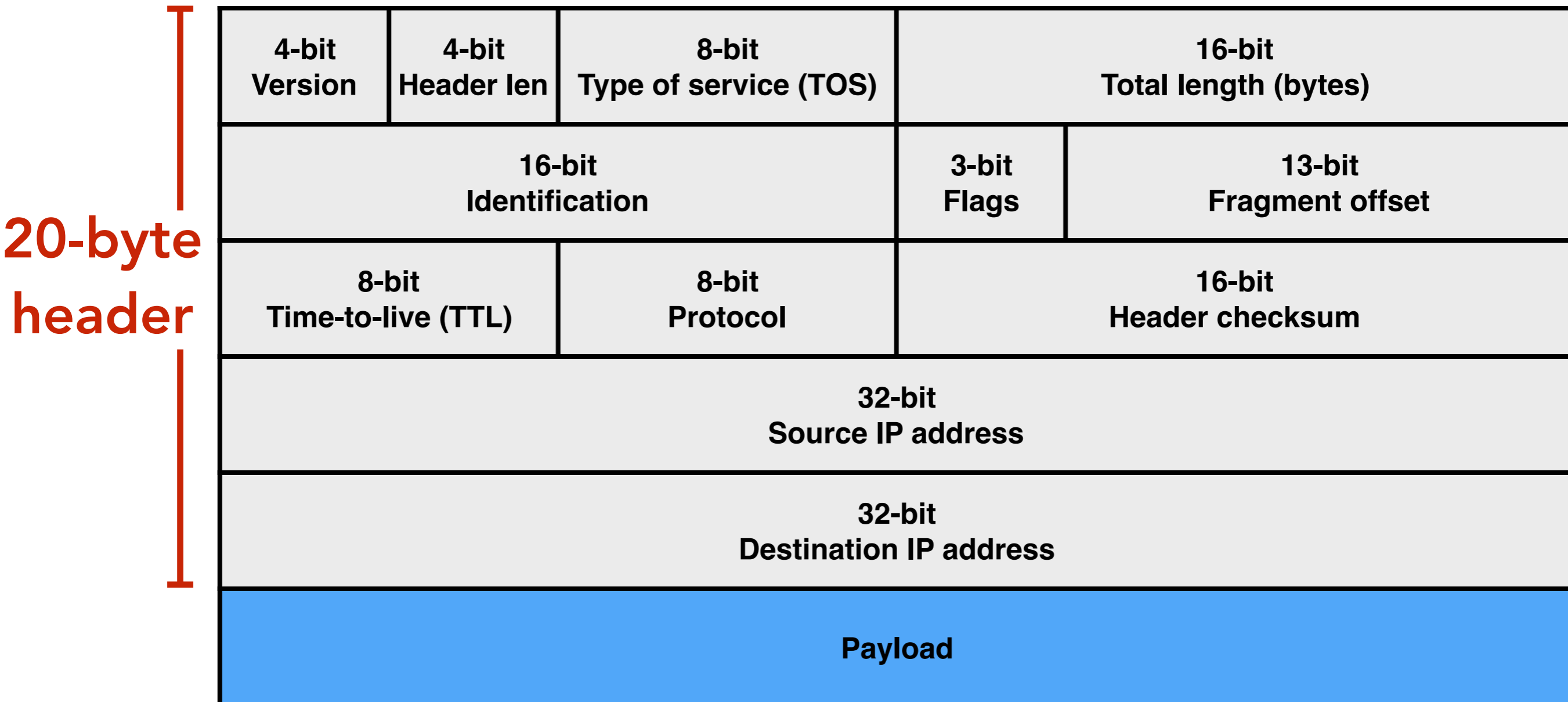
1. PROTOCOLS Agreements on how to communicate

Publicly standardized, esp. via Requests for Comments (RFCs)

RFC 826: ARP RFC 103{4,5}: DNS RFC 793: TCP

Code to the protocol and your product will work with other products

WHY DOES THE INTERNET WORK?



The payload is the "data" that IP is delivering:
May contain another protocol's header & payload, and so on

WHY DOES THE INTERNET WORK?

2. THE NETWORK IS DUMB

End-hosts are the periphery (users, devices)

Routers and **switches** are interior nodes that

Route (figure out where to forward)

Forward (actually send)

- Principle: the routers have no knowledge of ongoing connections through them
- They do “destination-based” routing and forwarding
 - Given the destination in the packet, send it to the “next hop” that is best suited to help ultimately get the packet there

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Mental model: The postal system

WHY DOES THE INTERNET WORK?

3. LAYERS

- The design of the Internet is strongly partitioned into **layers**
 - Each layer relies on the services provided by the layer **immediately** below it...
 - ... and provides service to the layer **immediately** above it

LAYERS OF THE INTERNET

PHYSICAL

Send / receive bit

Broadcasts on shared link

LAYERS OF THE INTERNET

LINK

Local send/recv

*Adds framing & destination;
Still assumes shared link*

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*Adds global addresses;
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TRANSPORT (TCP,UDP)

Process send/recv

E2E communication between processes; Adds ports/reliability

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LAYERS OF THE INTERNET

APPLICATION

Arbitrary

Application-specific semantics

TRANSPORT (TCP,UDP)

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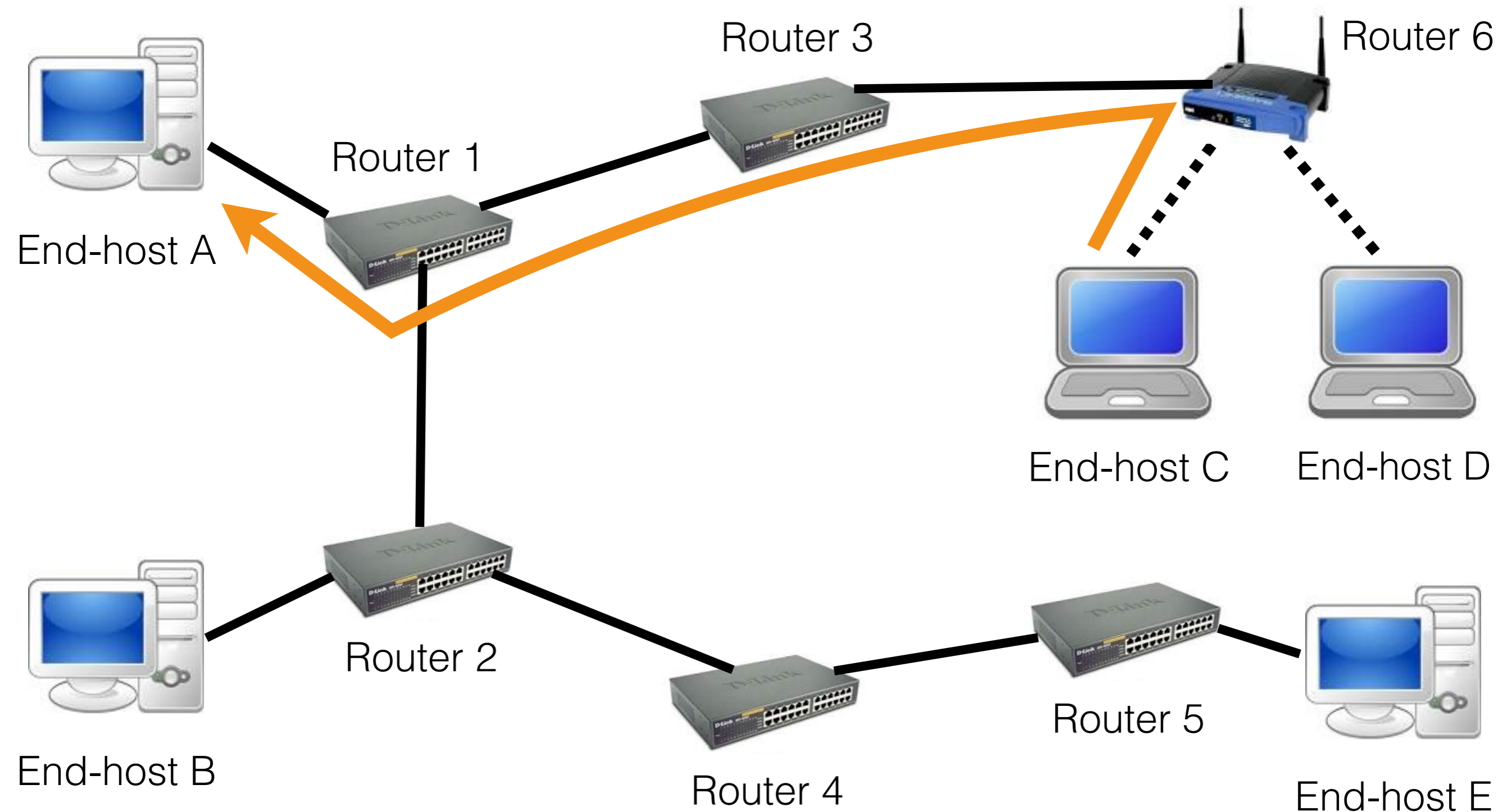
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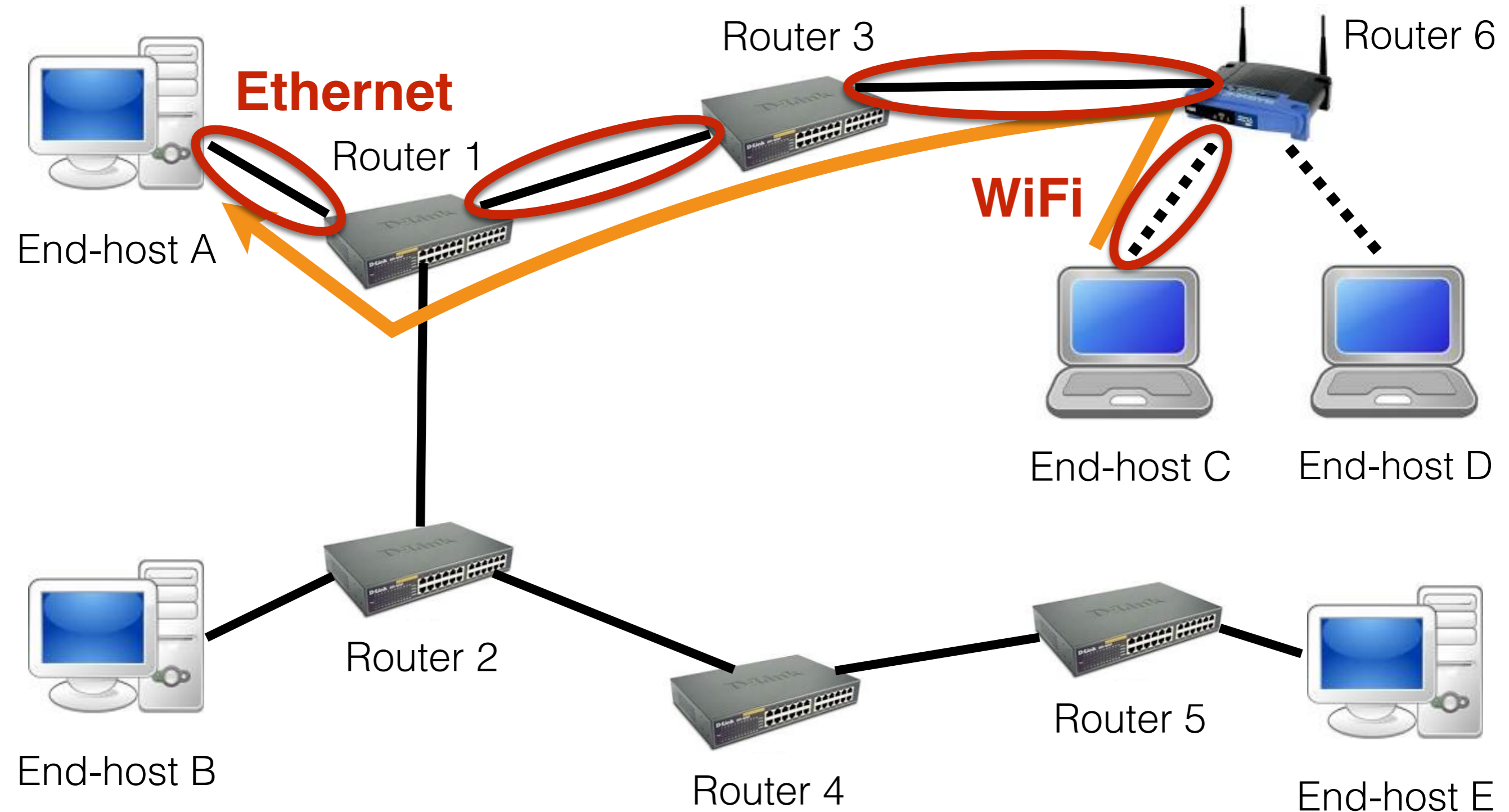
Hop-by-hop vs. end-to-end layers

Host C communicates with host A



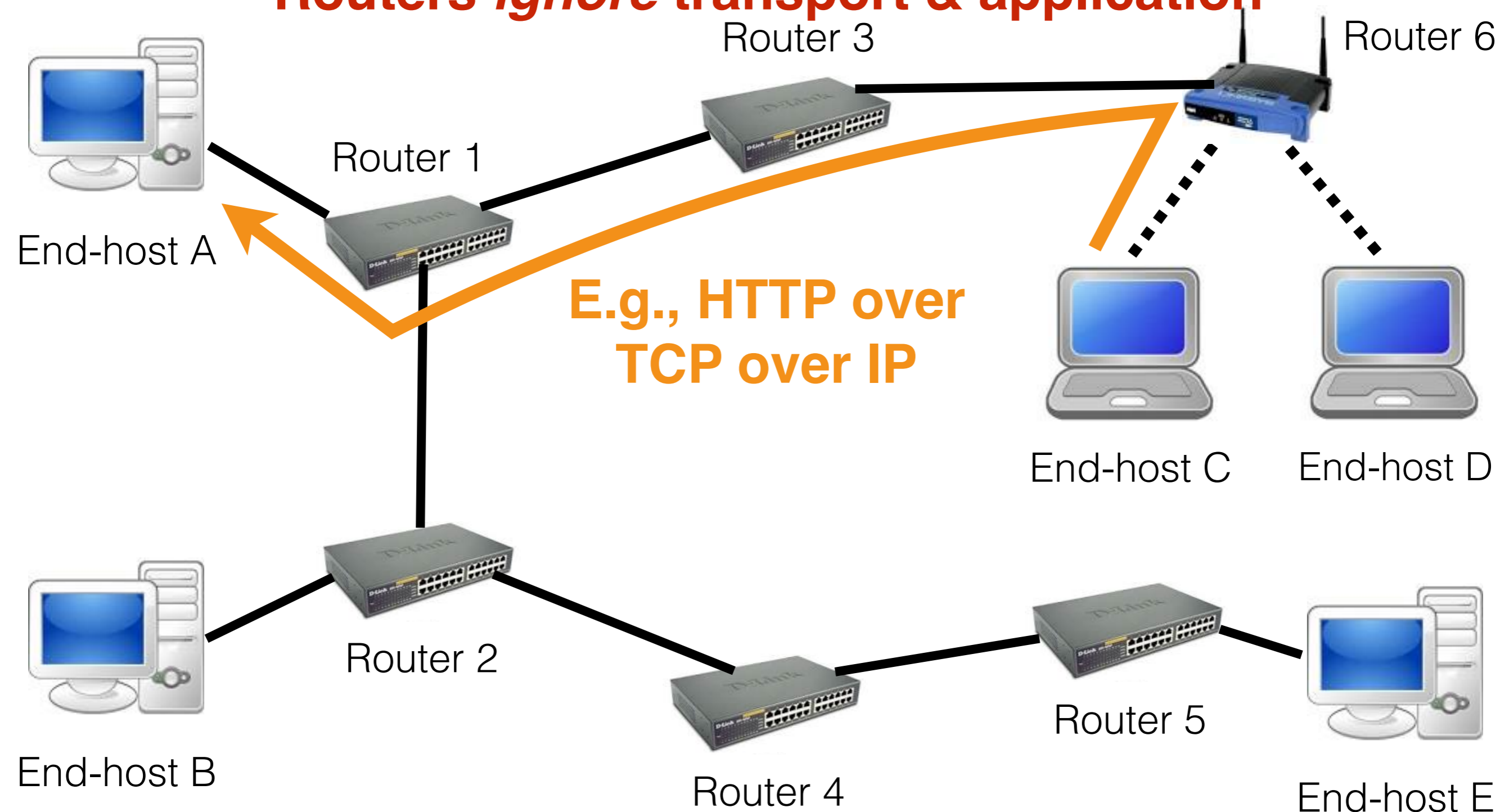
Hop-by-hop vs. end-to-end layers

Different physical & link layers

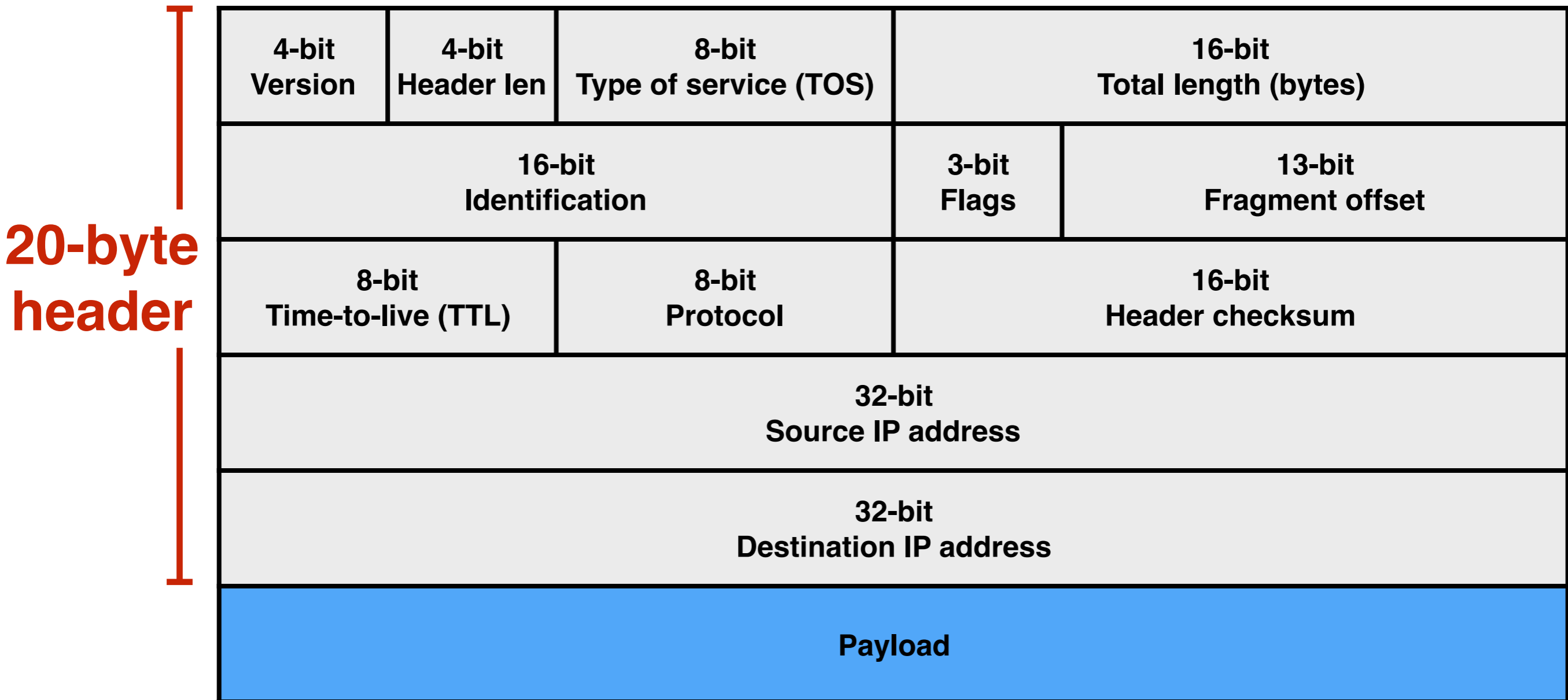


Hop-by-hop vs. end-to-end layers

Same network, transport, and application layers (3/4/7)
Routers *ignore* transport & application



IP packet “header”



IP Packet Header Fields (1)

- **Version number** (4 bits)
 - Indicates the version of the IP protocol
 - Necessary for knowing what fields follow
 - “4” (for IPv4) or “6” (for IPv6)
- **Header length** (4 bits)
 - How many 32-bit words (rows) in the header
 - Typically 5
 - Can provide IP options, too
- **Type-of-service** (8 bits)
 - Allow packets to be treated differently based on different needs
 - Low delay for audio, high bandwidth for bulk transfer, etc.

IP Packet Header Fields (2)

- Two IP addresses
 - Source (32 bits)
 - Destination (32 bits)
- **Destination address**
 - *Unique* identifier/locator for the receiving host
 - Allows each node (end-host and router) to make forwarding decisions
- **Source address**
 - Unique identifier/locator for the sending host
 - Recipient can decide whether to accept the packet
 - Allows destination to *reply* to the source

IP: “Best effort” packet delivery

- Routers inspect destination address, determine “next hop” in the forwarding table
- Best effort = “I’ll give it a try”
 - Packets may be lost
 - Packets may be corrupted
 - Packets may be delivered out of order

Fixing these is the job of the transport layer!

Attacks on IP

4-bit Version	4-bit Header len	8-bit Type of service (TOS)	16-bit Total length (bytes)	
16-bit Identification			3-bit Flags	13-bit Fragment offset
8-bit Time-to-live (TTL)	8-bit Protocol		16-bit Header checksum	
32-bit Source IP address				
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Eavesdrop / Tamper

IP provides no protection of the *payload* or *header*

Source-spoofing

- Why source-spoof?
 - Consider spam: send many emails from one computer
 - Easy defense: block many emails from a given (source) IP address
 - Easy countermeasure: spoof the source IP address
 - Counter-countermeasure?
- How do you know if a packet you receive has a spoofed source?

Salient network features

- Recall: The Internet operates via *destination-based routing*
- attacker: pkt (spoofed source) -> destination
destination: pkt -> spoofed source
- In other words, the response goes to the spoofed source, *not* the attacker

Defending against source-spoofing

- How do you know if a packet you receive has a spoofed source?
 - Send a challenge packet to the (possibly spoofed) source (e.g., a difficult to guess, random nonce)
 - If the recipient can answer the challenge, then likely that the source was not spoofed
- So do you have to do this with every packet??
 - Every packet should have something that's difficult to guess
 - Recall the query ID in the DNS queries! Easy to predict => Kaminsky attack

Source spoofing

- Why source-spoof?
 - Consider DoS attacks: generate as much traffic as possible to congest the victim's network
 - Easy defense: block all traffic from a given source near the edge of your network
 - Easy countermeasure: spoof the source address
- Challenges won't help here; the damage has been done by the time the packets reach the core of our network
- Ideally, detect such spoofing *near the source*

Egress filtering

- The point (router/switch) at which traffic *enters* your network is the *ingress point*
- The point (router/switch) at which traffic *leaves* your network is the *egress point*
- You don't know who owns all IP addresses in the world, but you *do* know who in *your own network* gets what IP addresses
 - If you see a packet with a source IP address that doesn't belong to your network trying to cross your egress point, then *drop it*

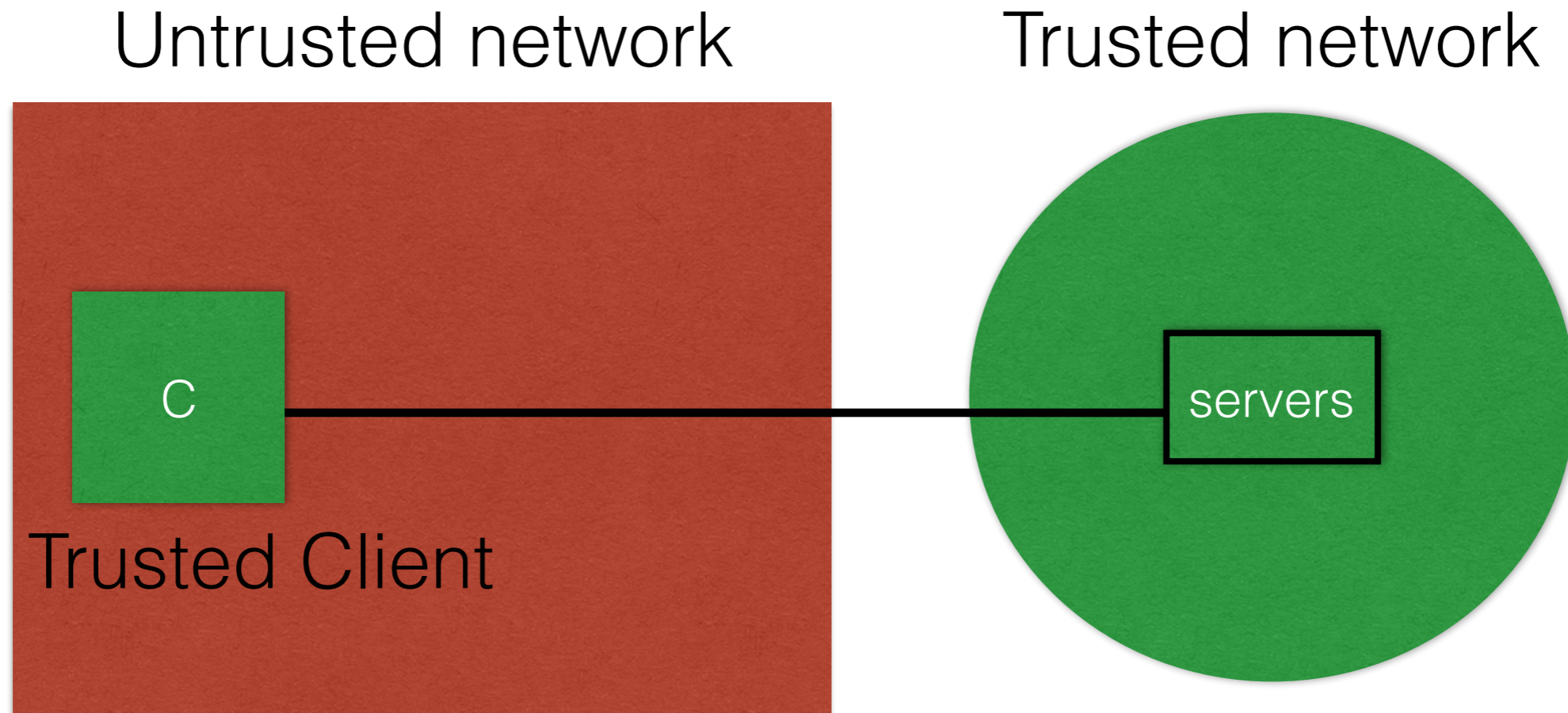
Egress filtering is not widely deployed

Eavesdropping / Tampering

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Payload				

- No security built into IP
- => Deploy secure IP *over IP*

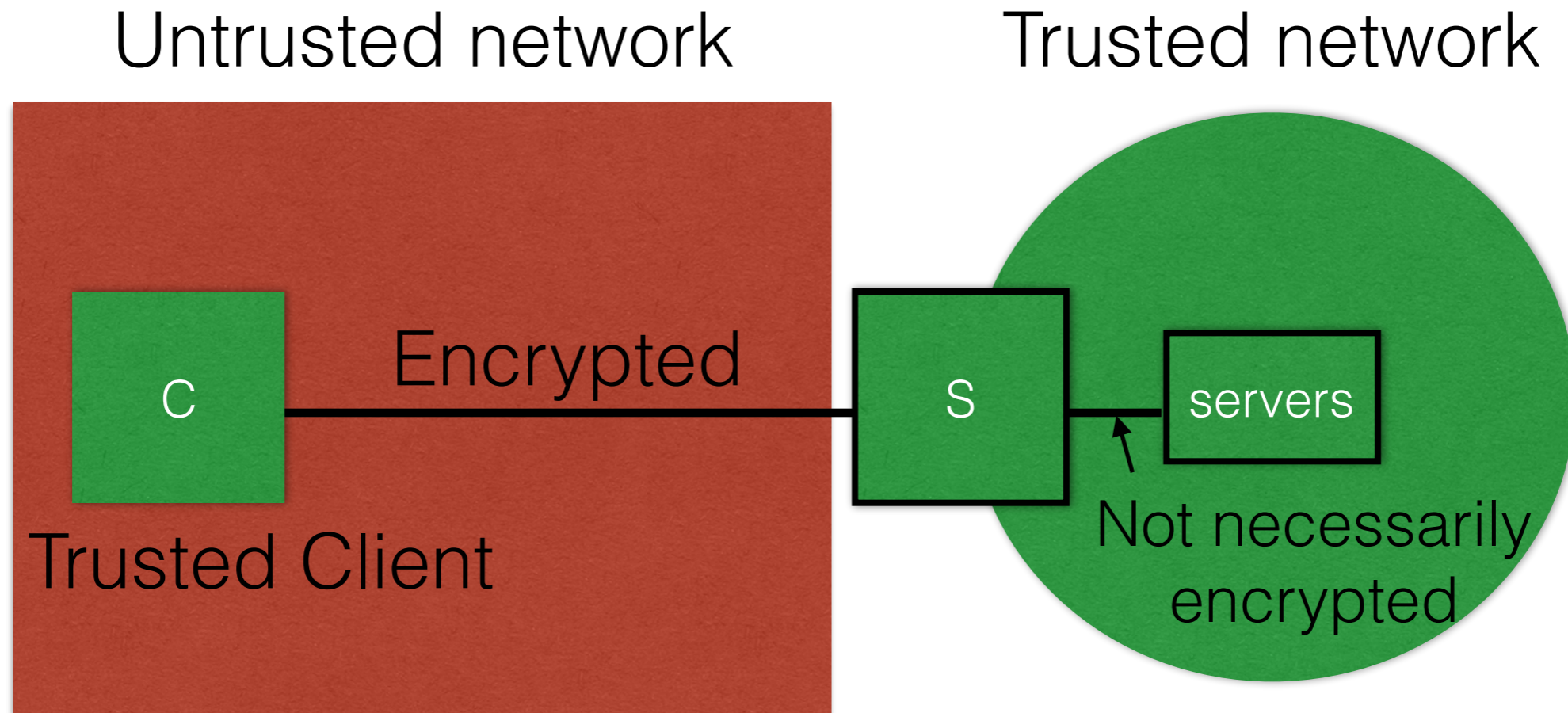
Virtual Private Networks (VPNs)



Goal: Allow the client to connect to the trusted network from within an untrusted network

Example: Connect to your company's network (for payroll, file access, etc.) while visiting a competitor's office

Virtual Private Networks (VPNs)



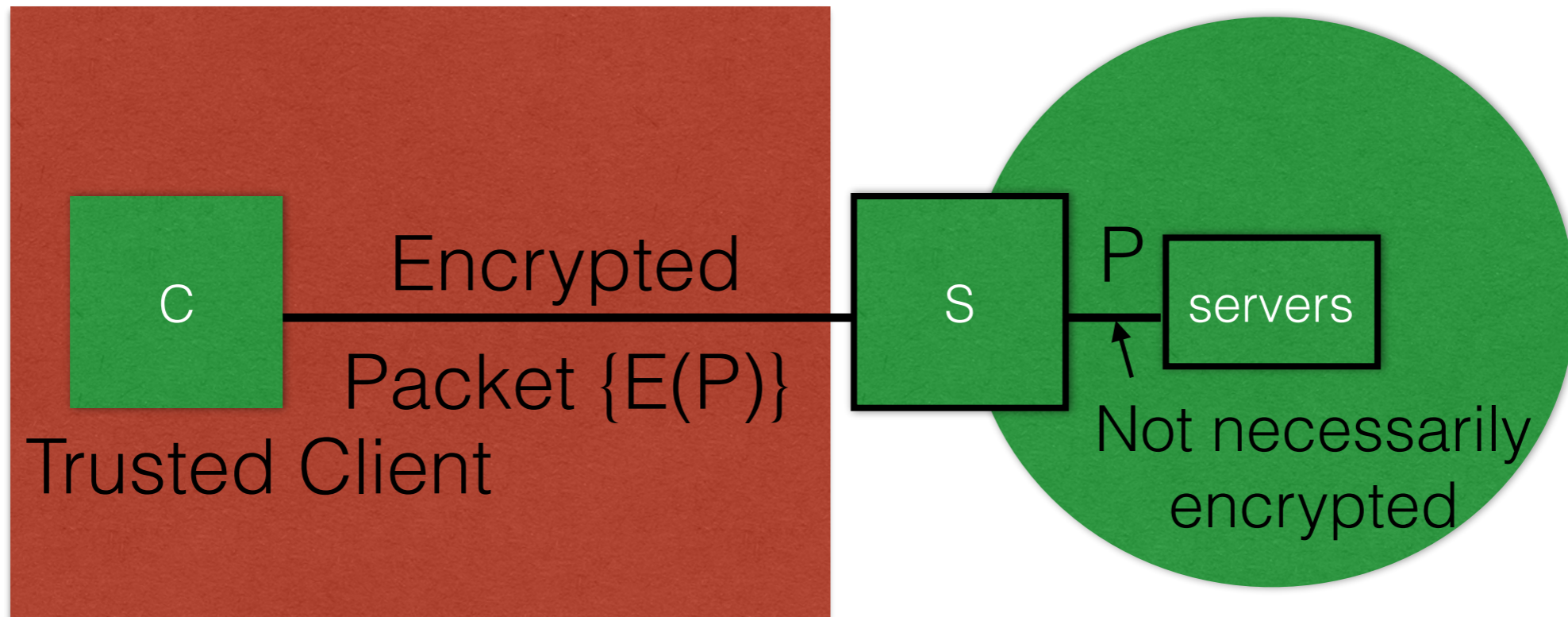
Idea: A VPN "client" and "server" together create end-to-end encryption/authentication

Predominate way of doing this: IPSec

IPSec

- Operates in a few different modes
 - Transport mode: Simply encrypt the payload but not the headers
 - Tunnel mode: Encrypt the payload *and* the headers
- But how do you encrypt the headers? How does routing work?
 - Encrypt the entire IP packet and make that the payload of another IP packet
 -

Tunnel mode

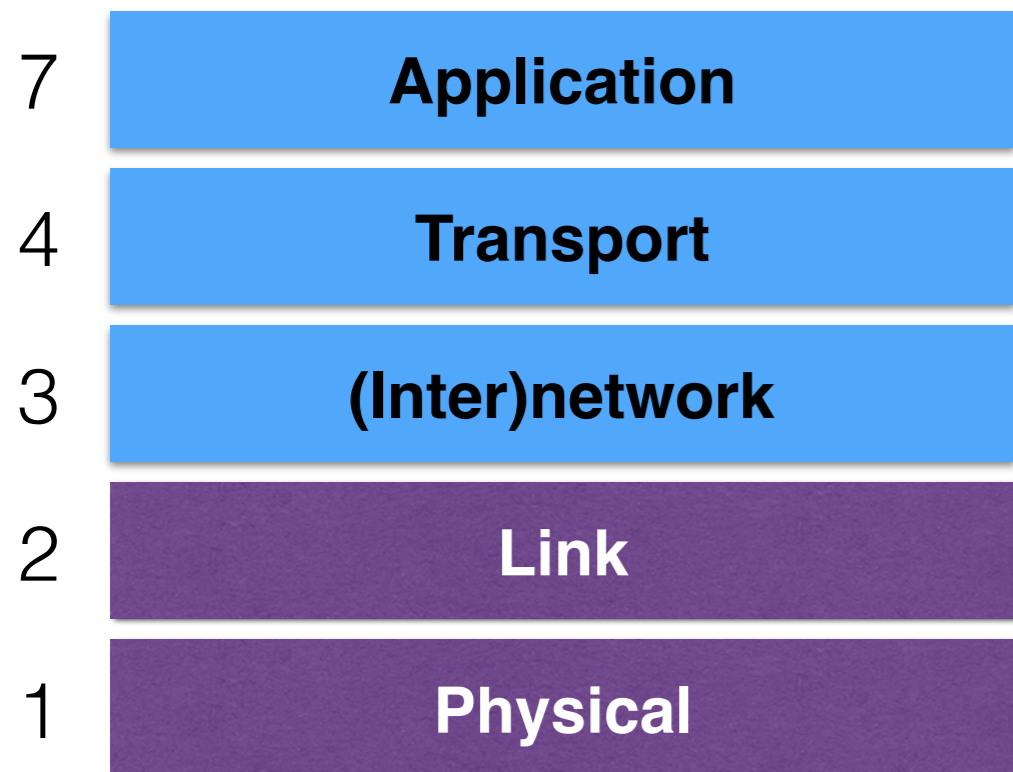


The VPN server decrypts and then sends the payload (itself a full IP packet) as if it had just received it from the network

From the client/servers' perspective:

Looks like the client is physically connected to the network!

Layer 4: Transport layer



- End-to-end communication between **processes**
- Different types of services provided:
 - UDP: unreliable *datagrams*
 - TCP: *reliable* byte stream
- “Reliable” = keeps track of what data were received properly and retransmits as necessary

TCP: reliability

- Given best-effort deliver, the goal is to ensure *reliability*
 - All packets are delivered to applications
 - ... in order
 - ... unmodified (with reasonably high probability)
- Must robustly detect and retransmit lost data

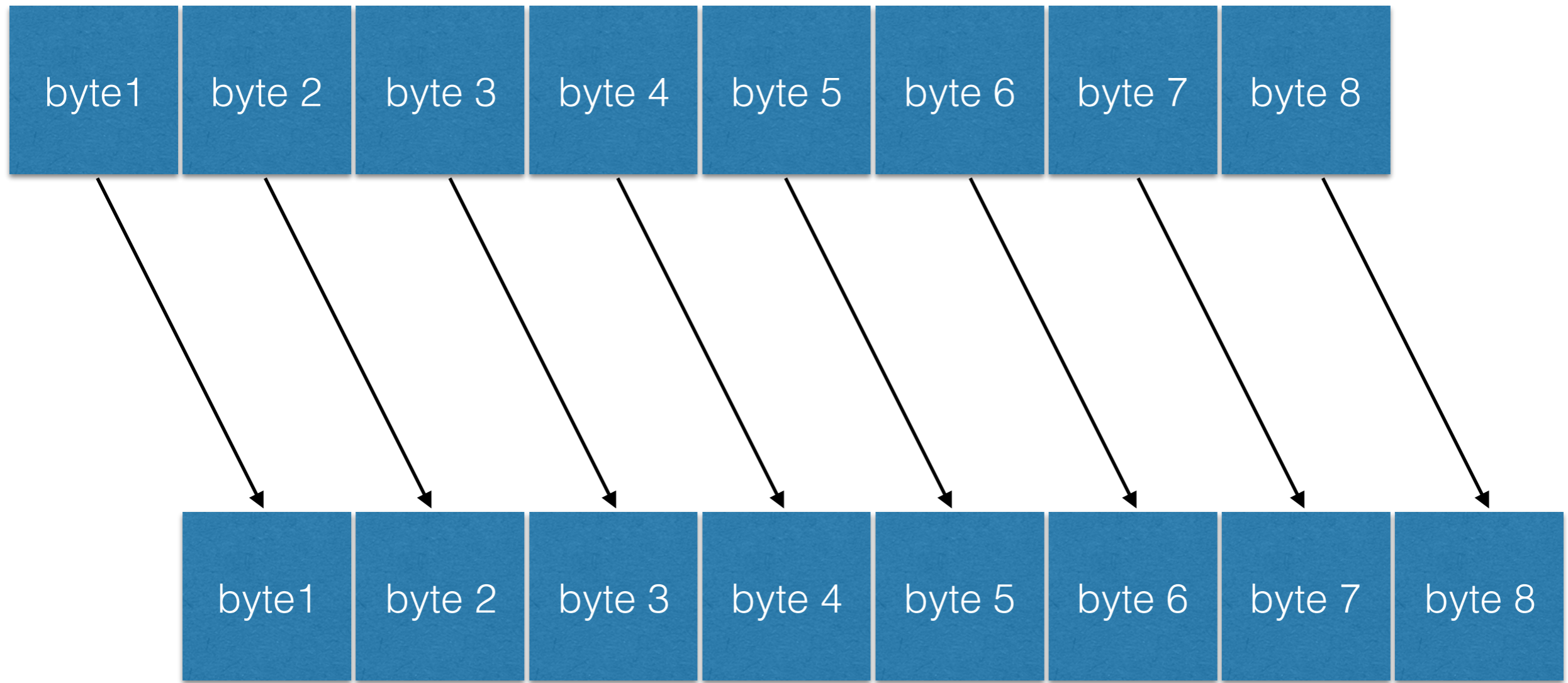
TCP's bytestream service

- Process A on host 1:
 - Send byte 0, byte 1, byte 2, byte 3, ...
- Process B on host 2:
 - Receive byte 0, byte 1, byte 2, byte 3, ...
- The applications do **not** see:
 - packet boundaries (looks like a stream of bytes)
 - lost or corrupted packets (they're all correct)
 - retransmissions (they all only appear once)

TCP bytestream service

Abstraction: Each *byte* reliably delivered in order

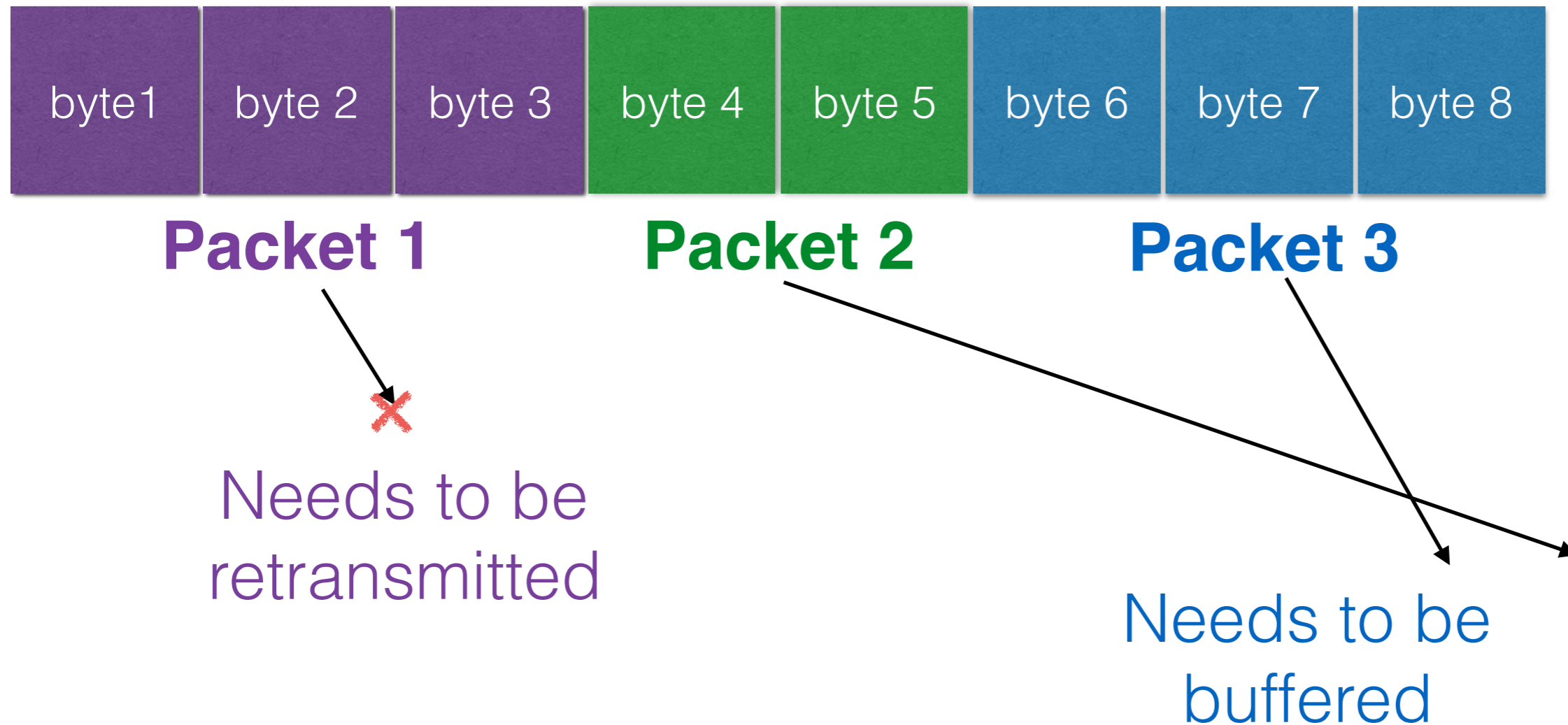
Process A on host H1



Process B on host H2

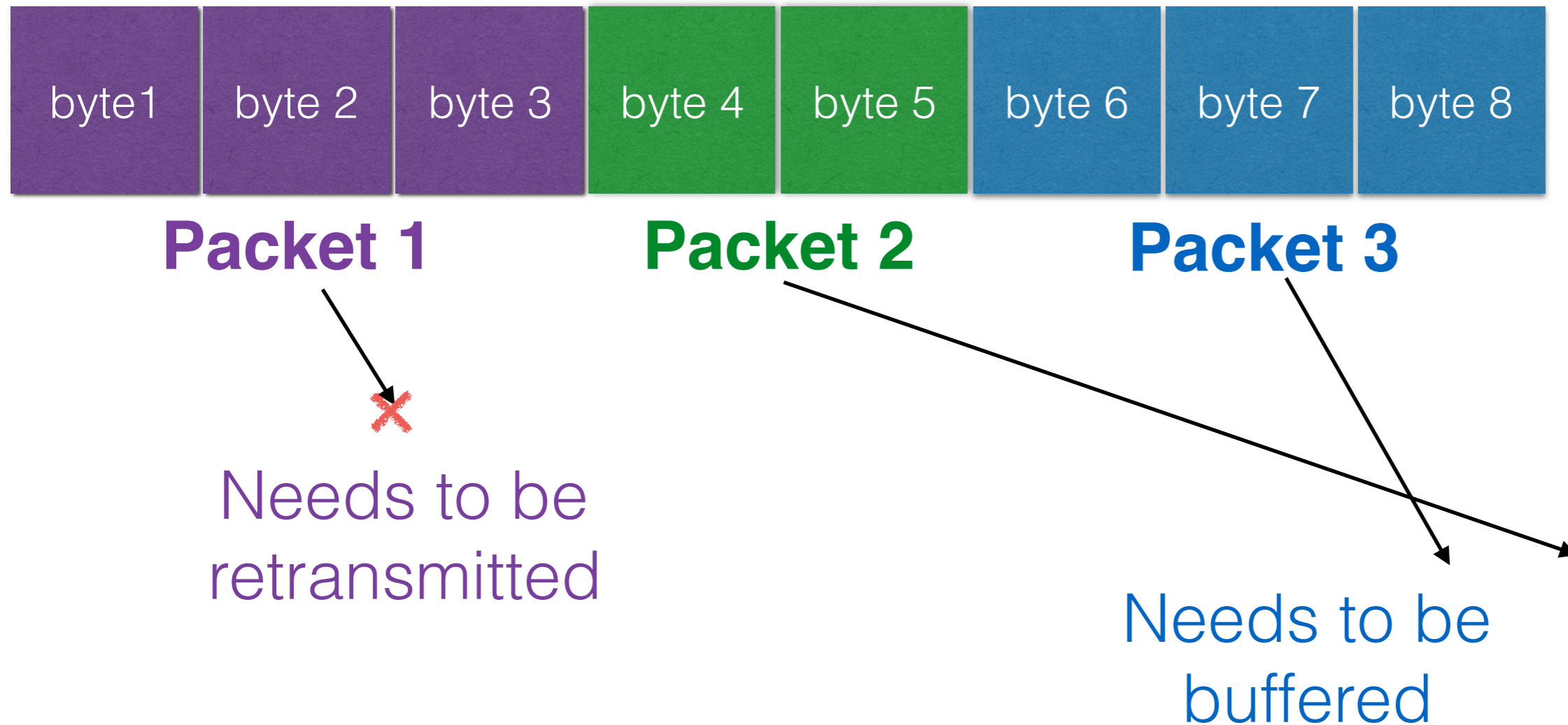
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**Reality: *Packets* sometimes retransmitted,
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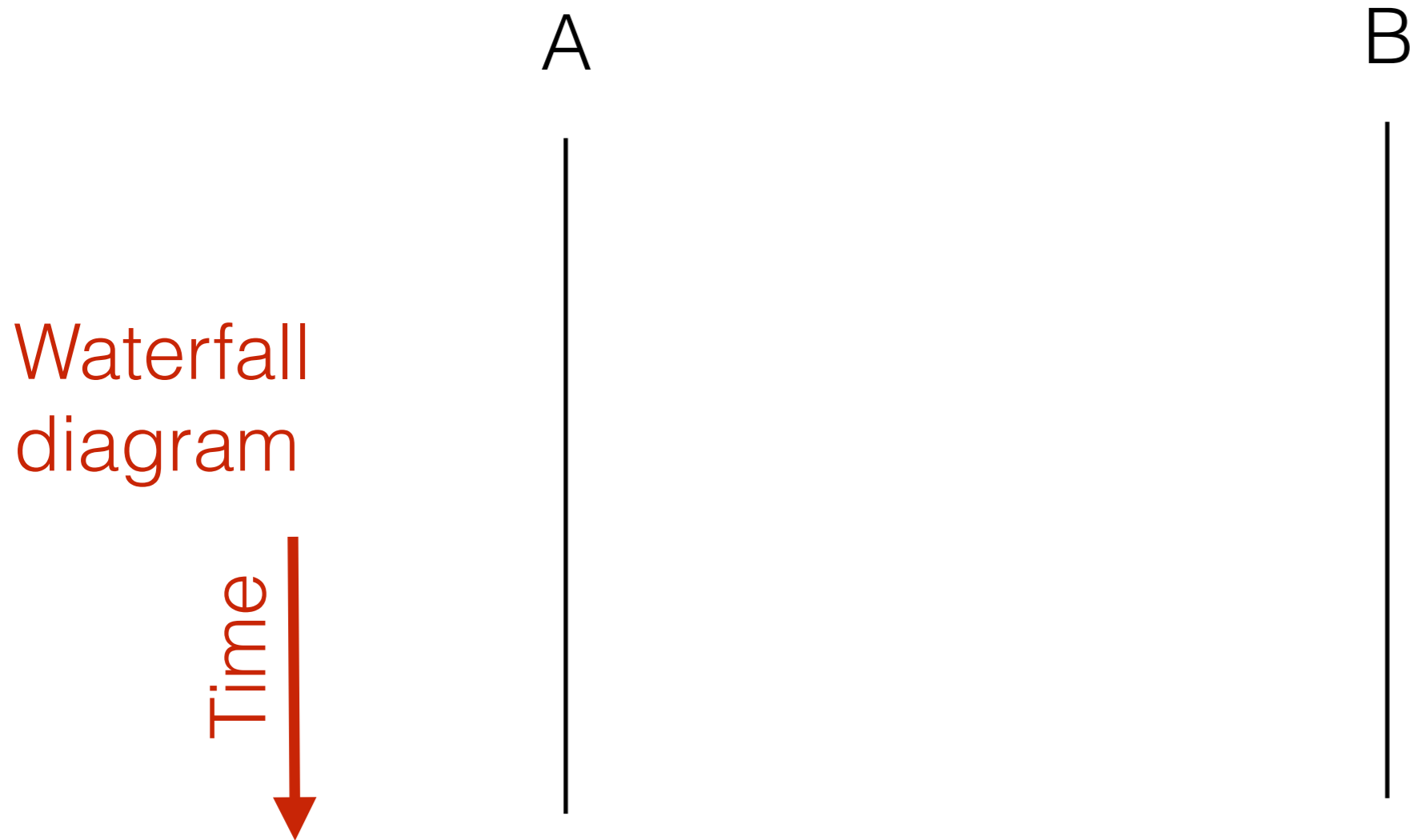
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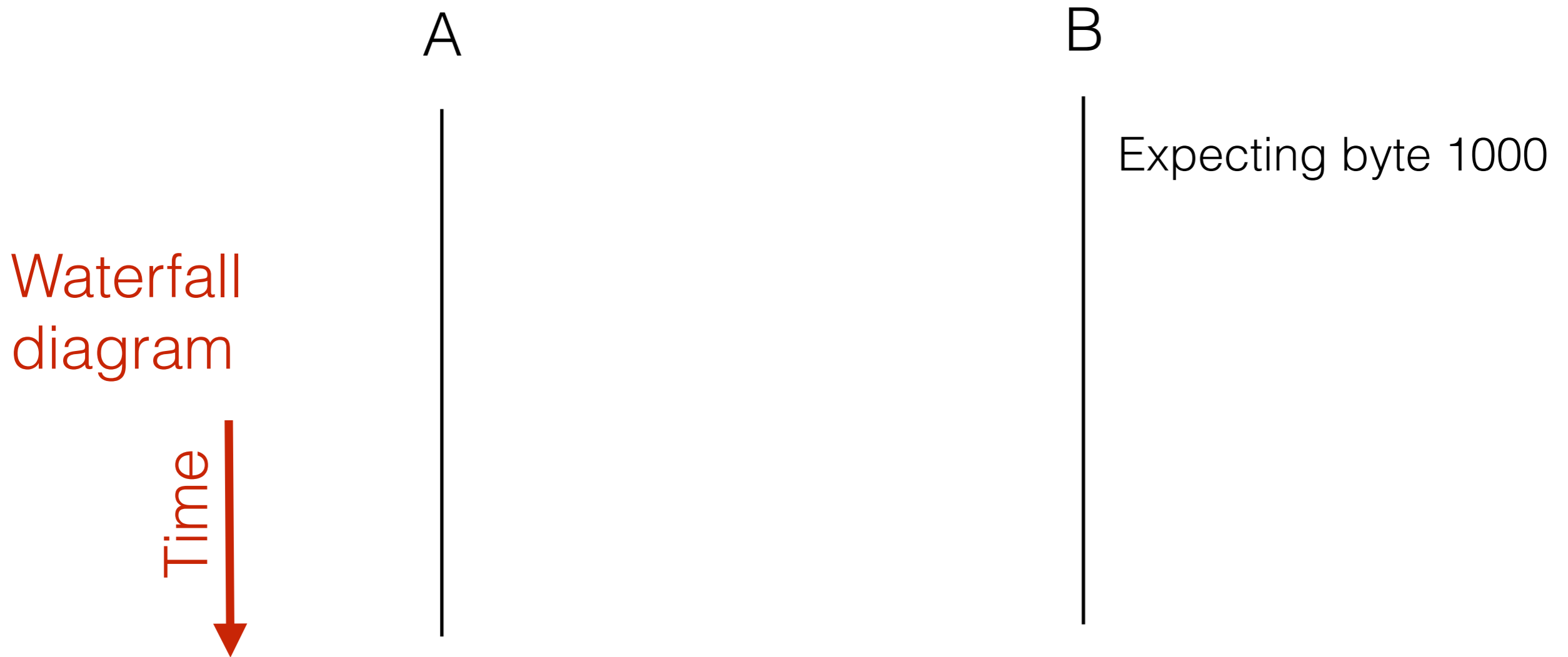


**TCP's first job: achieve the abstraction while
hiding the reality from the application**

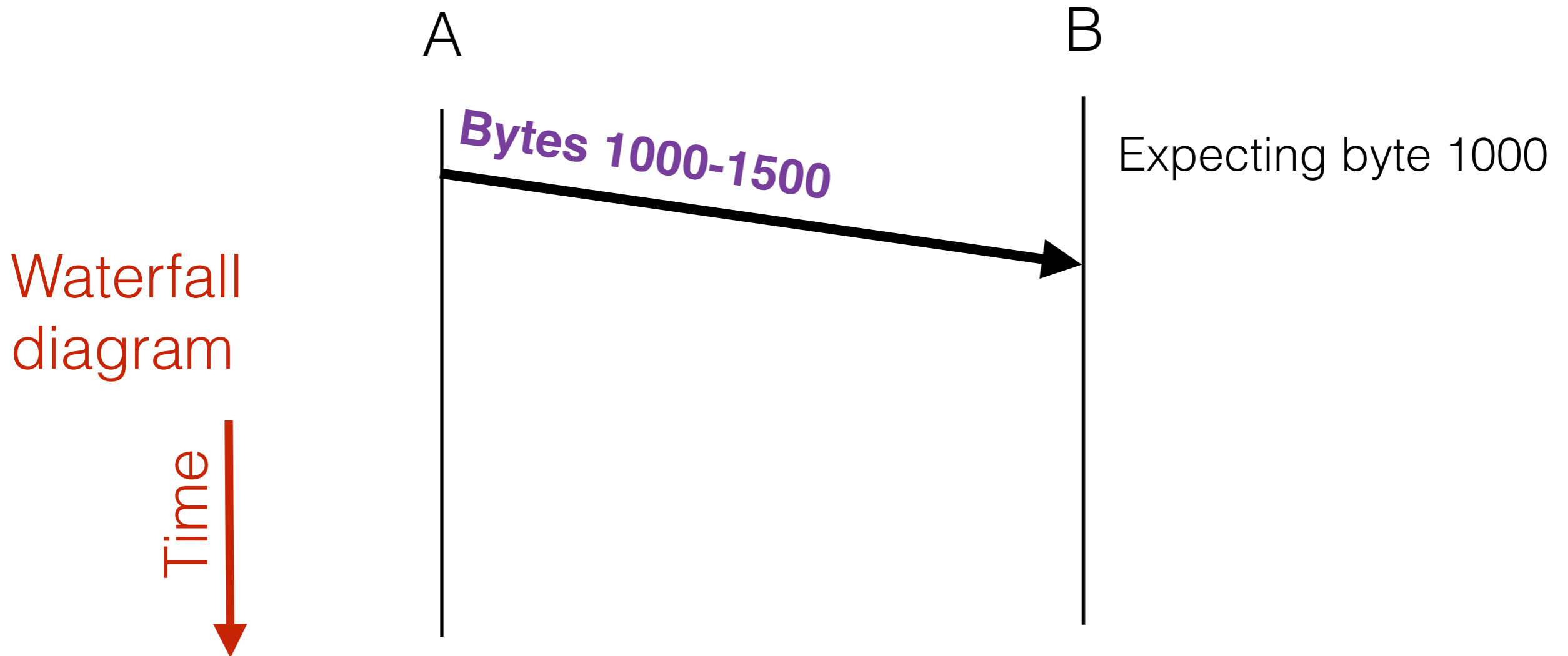
How does TCP achieve reliability?



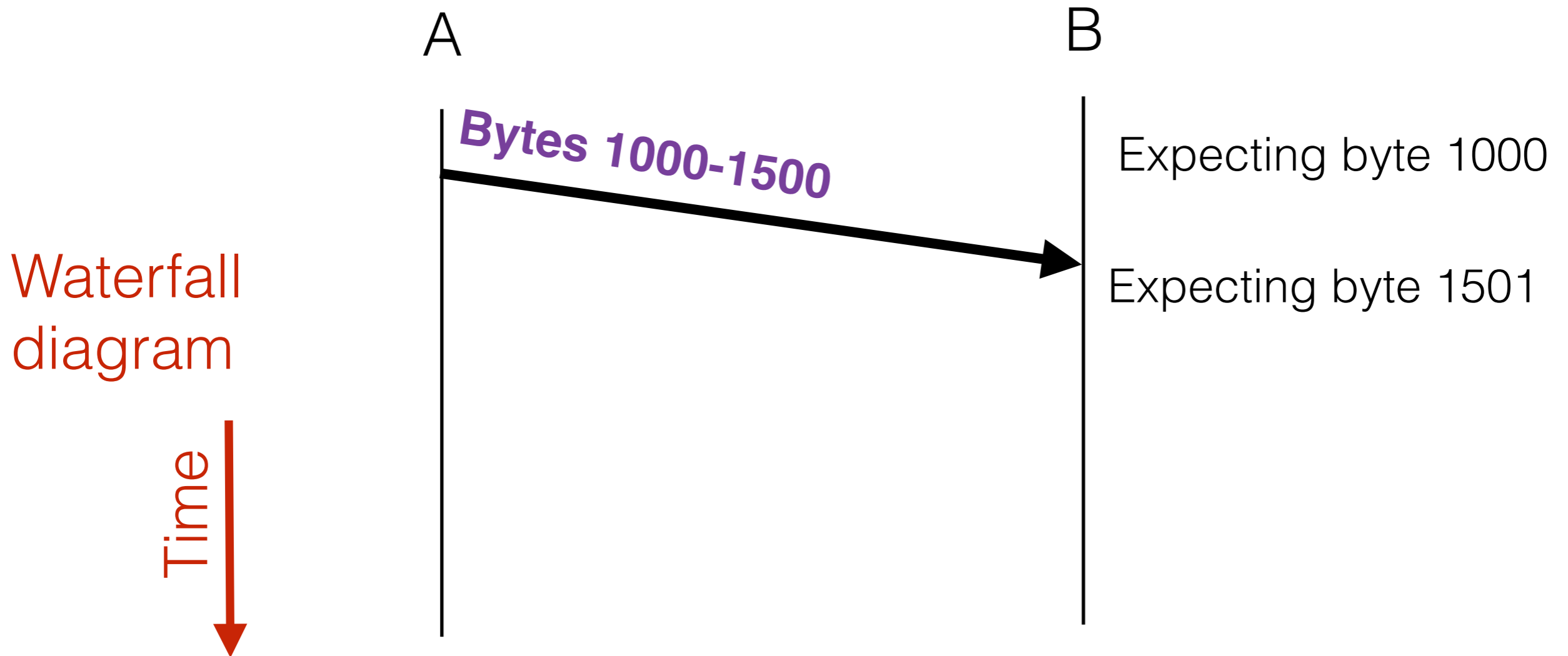
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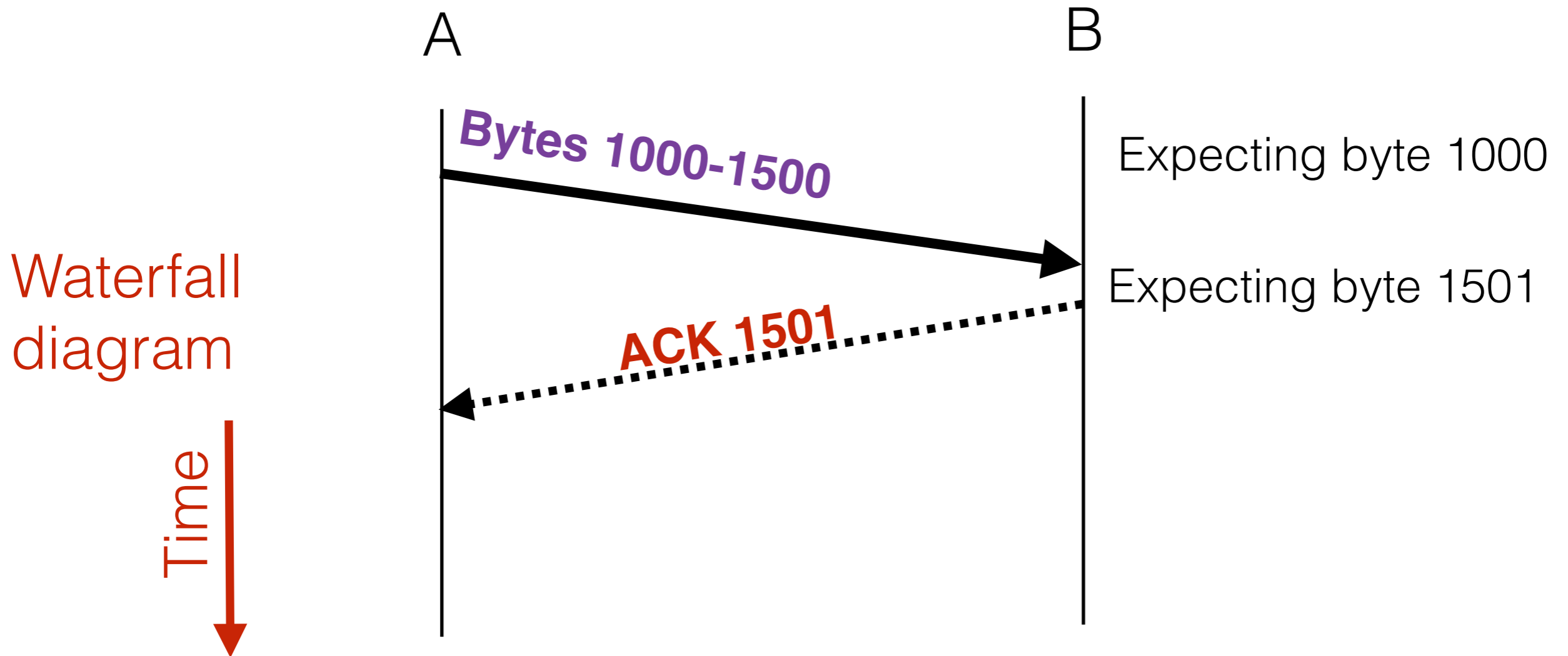
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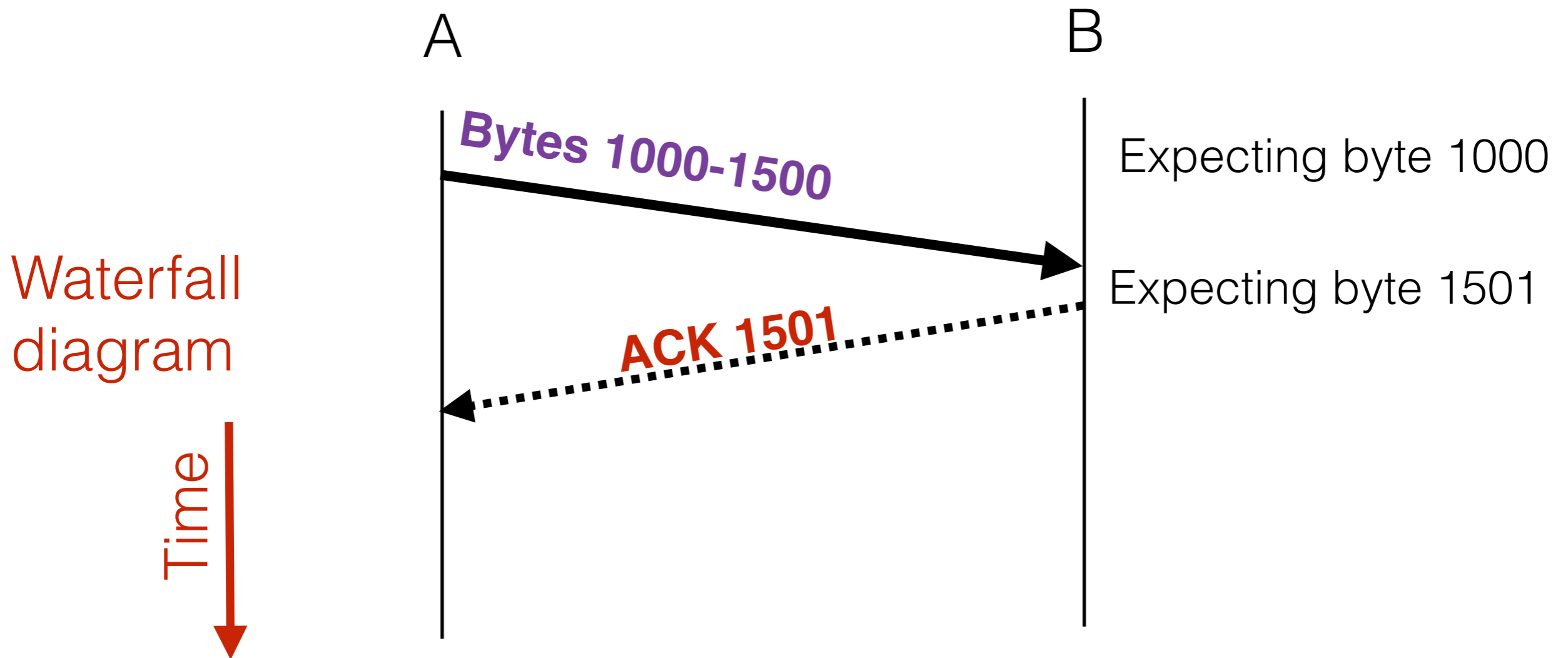
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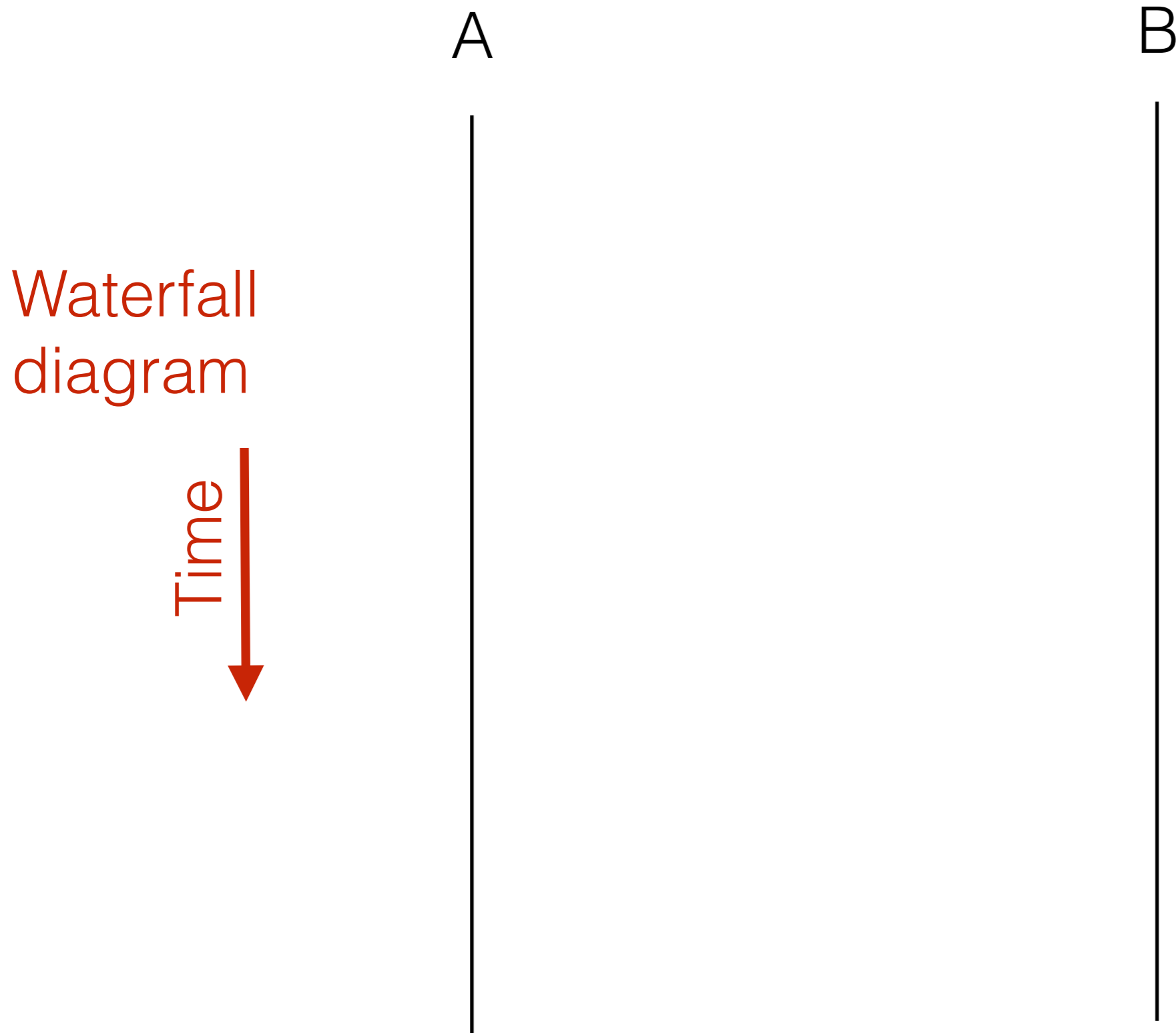


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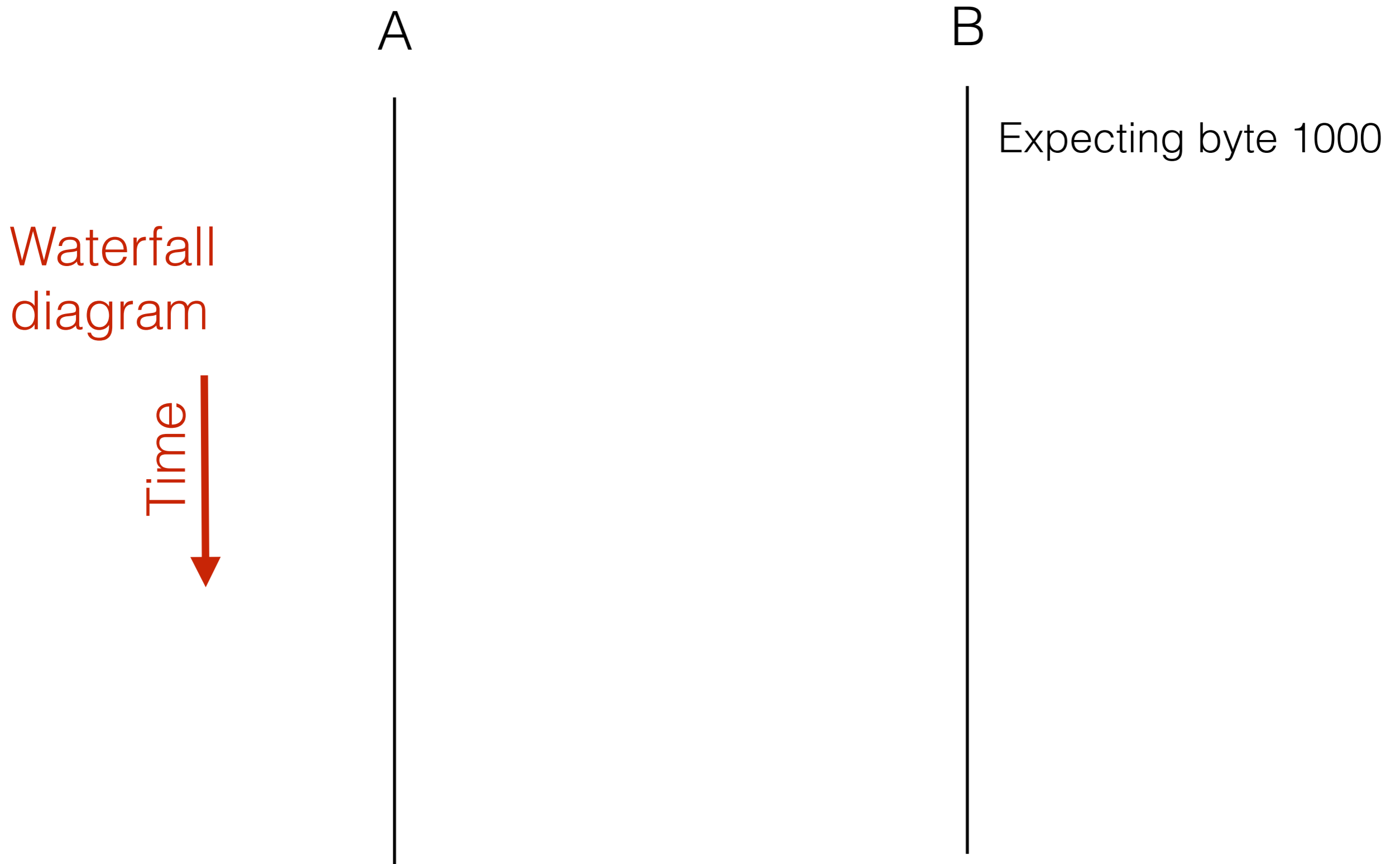


Reliability through acknowledgments to determine whether something was received.

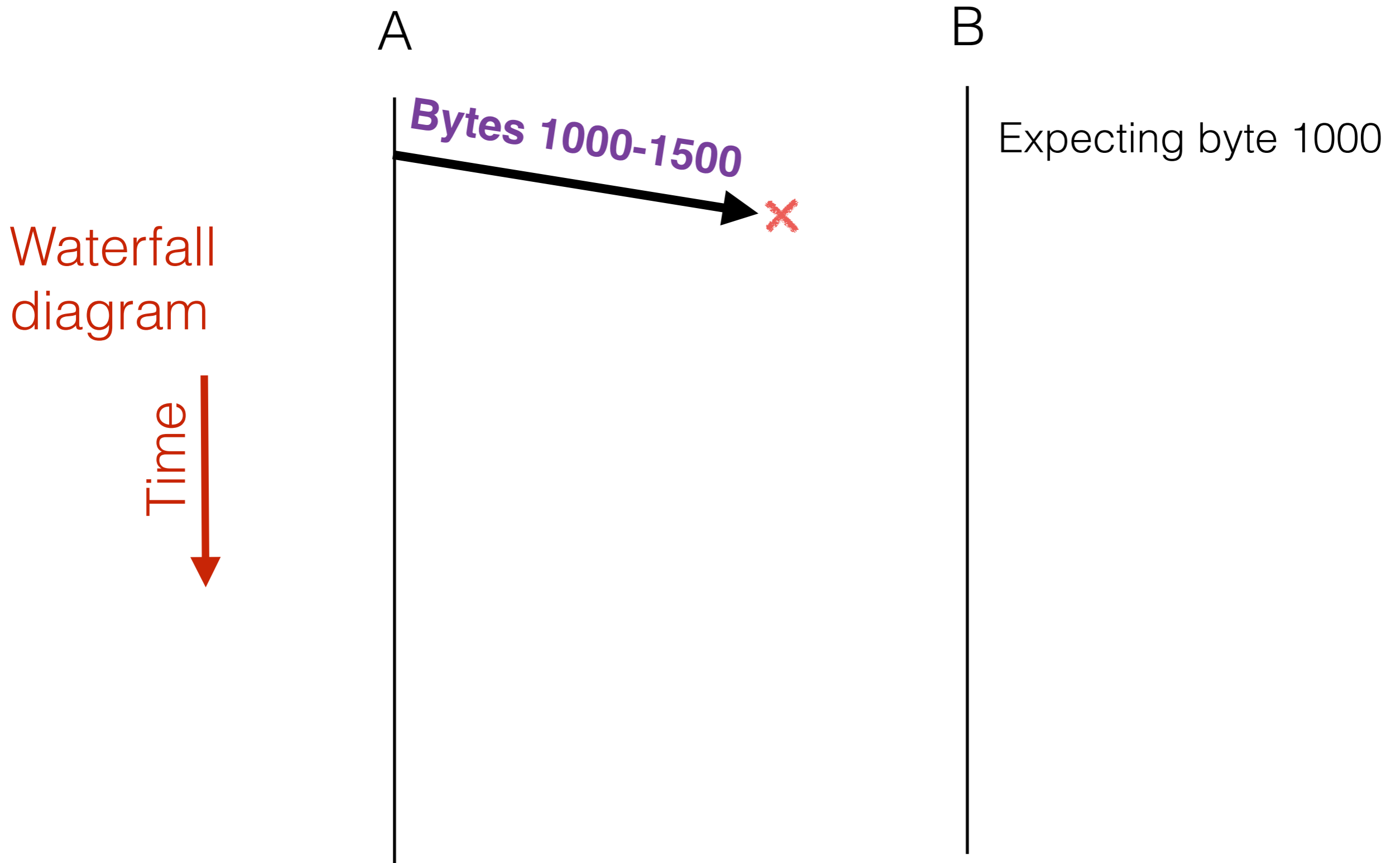
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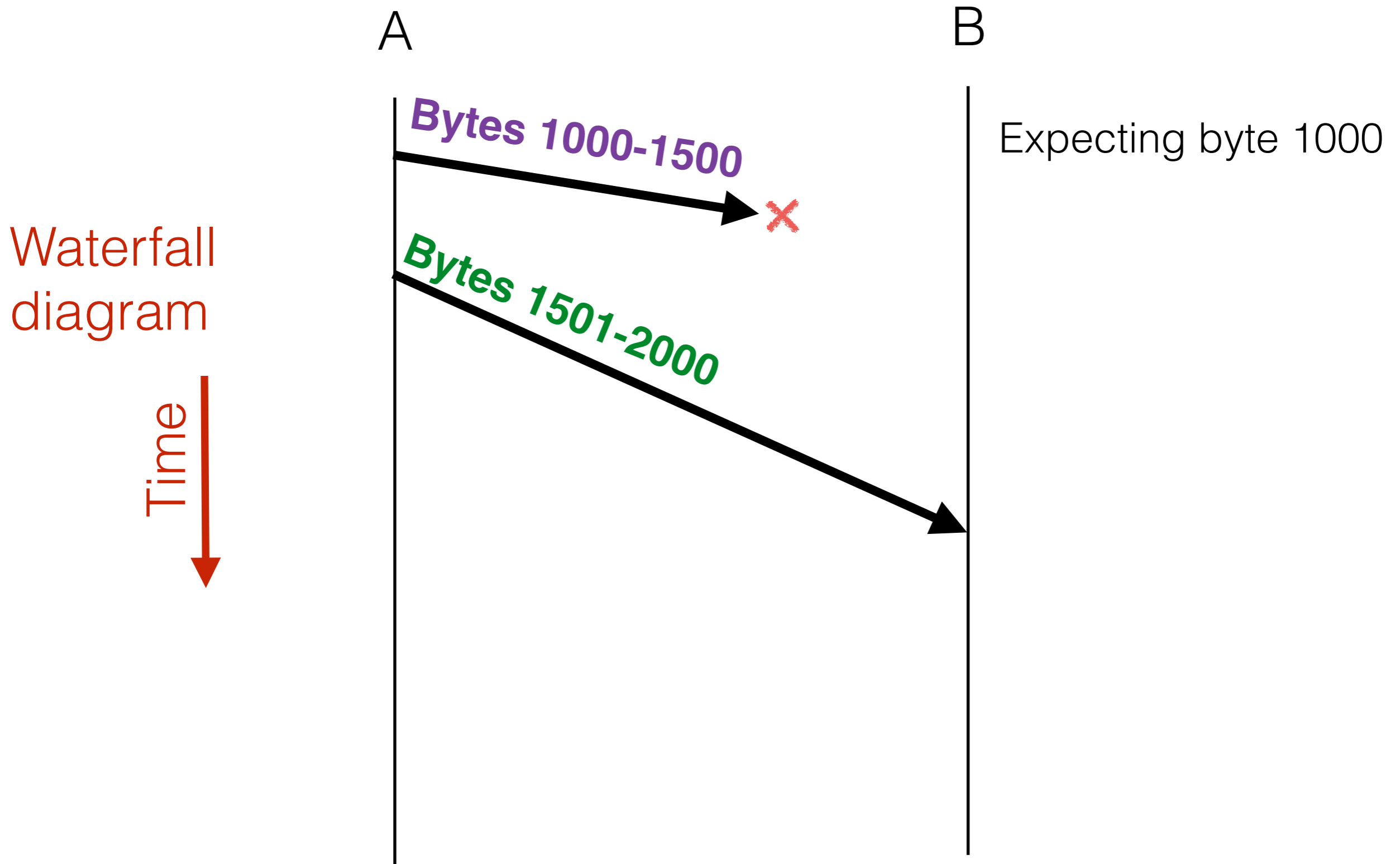
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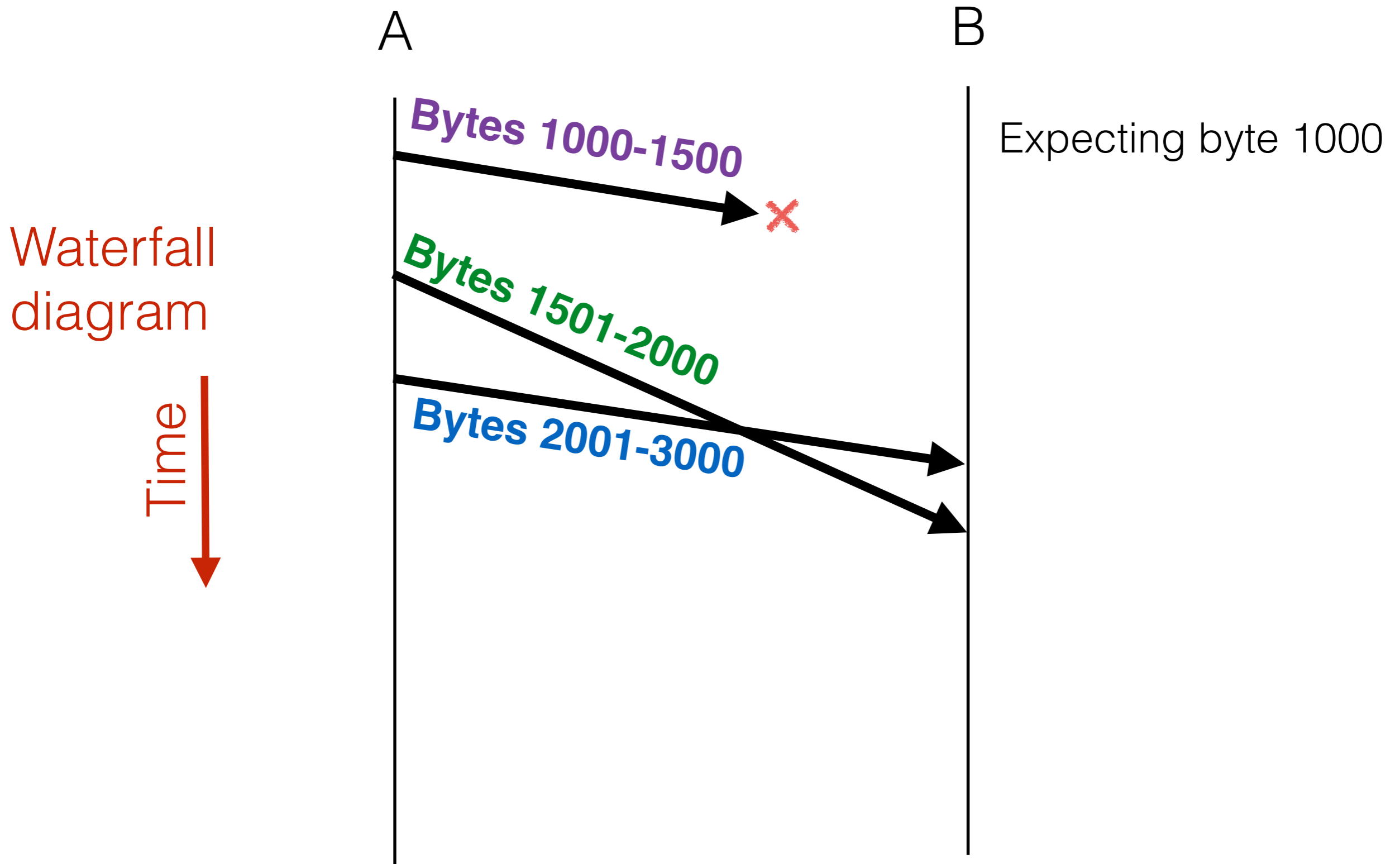
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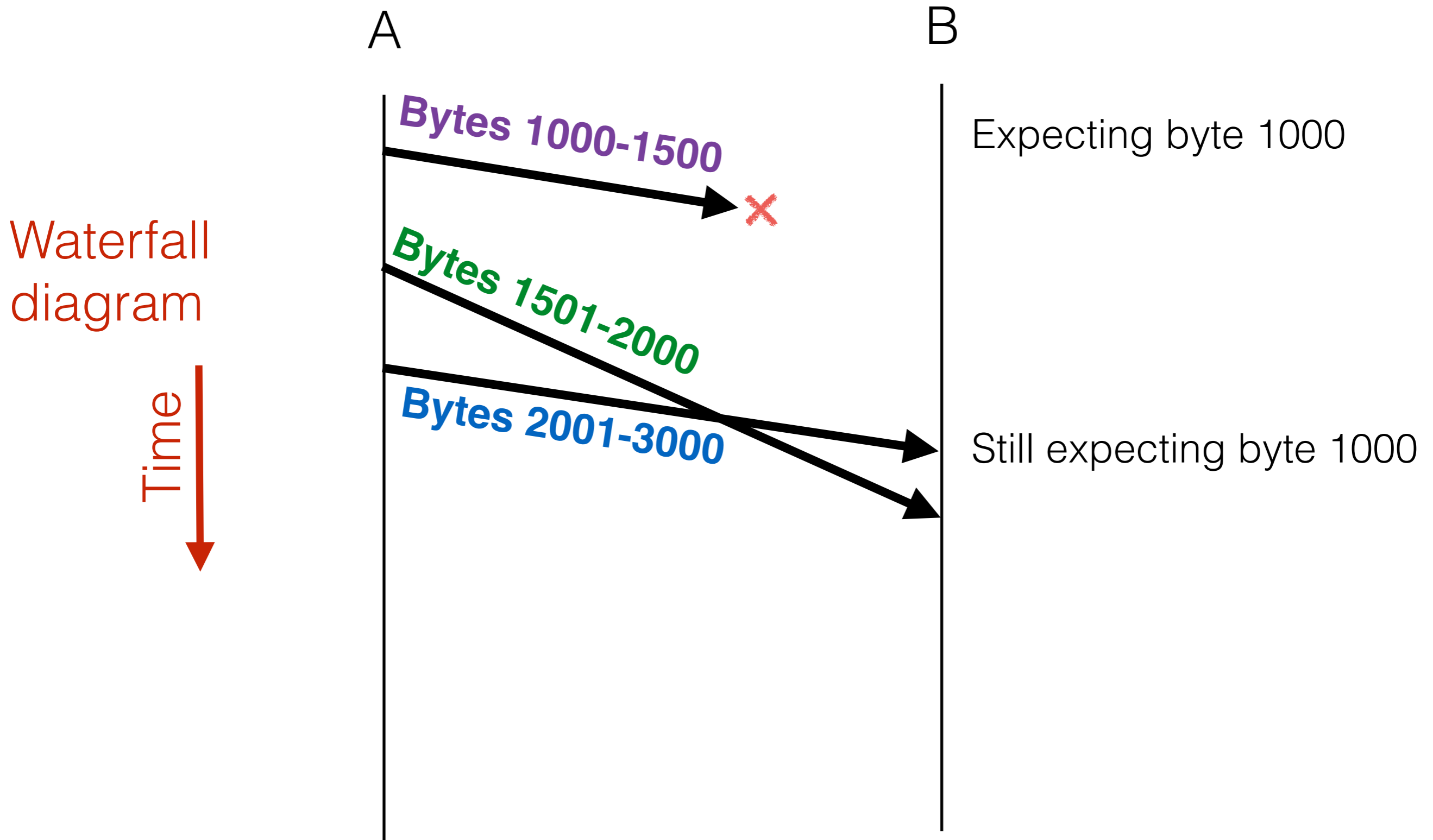
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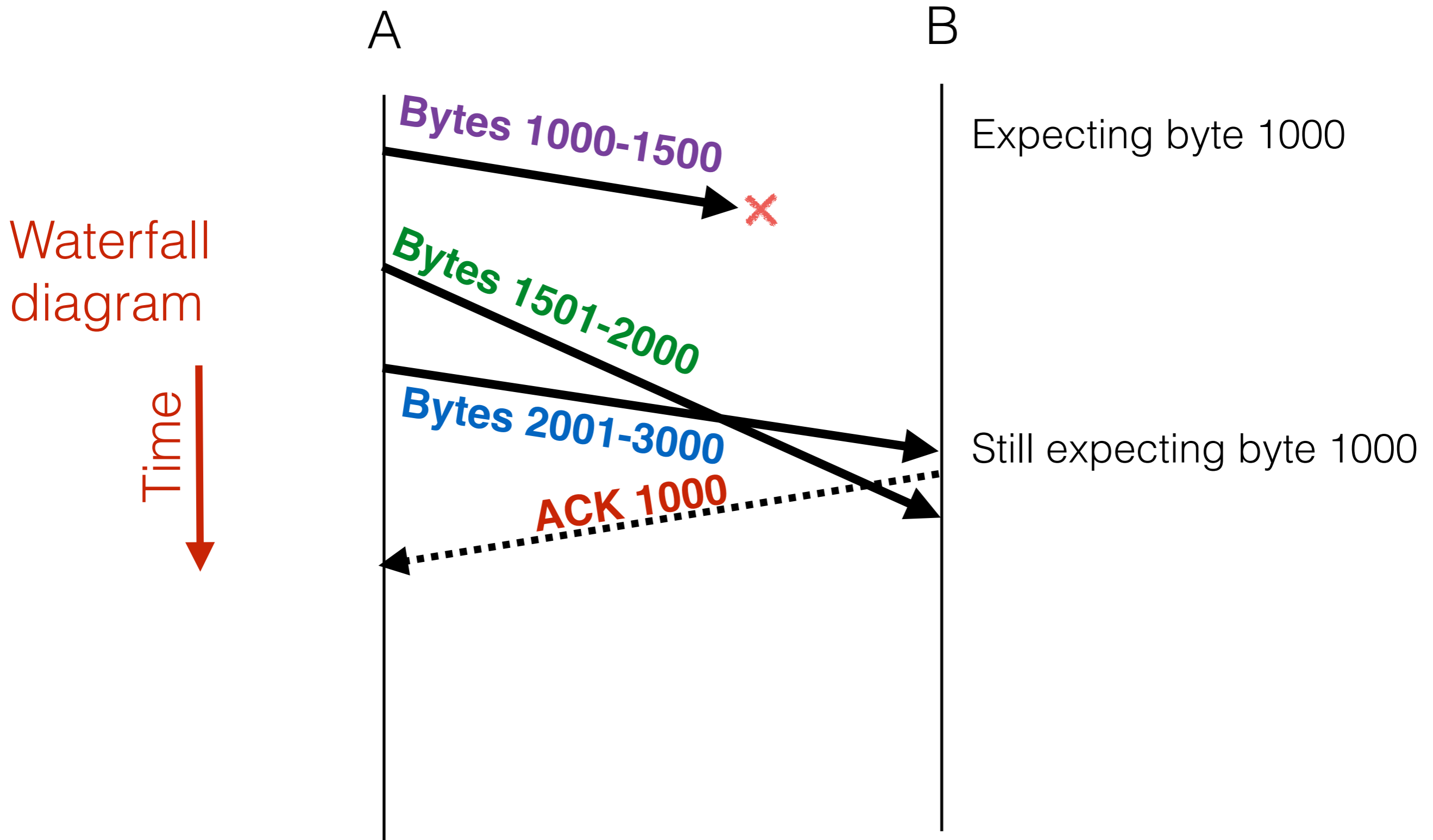
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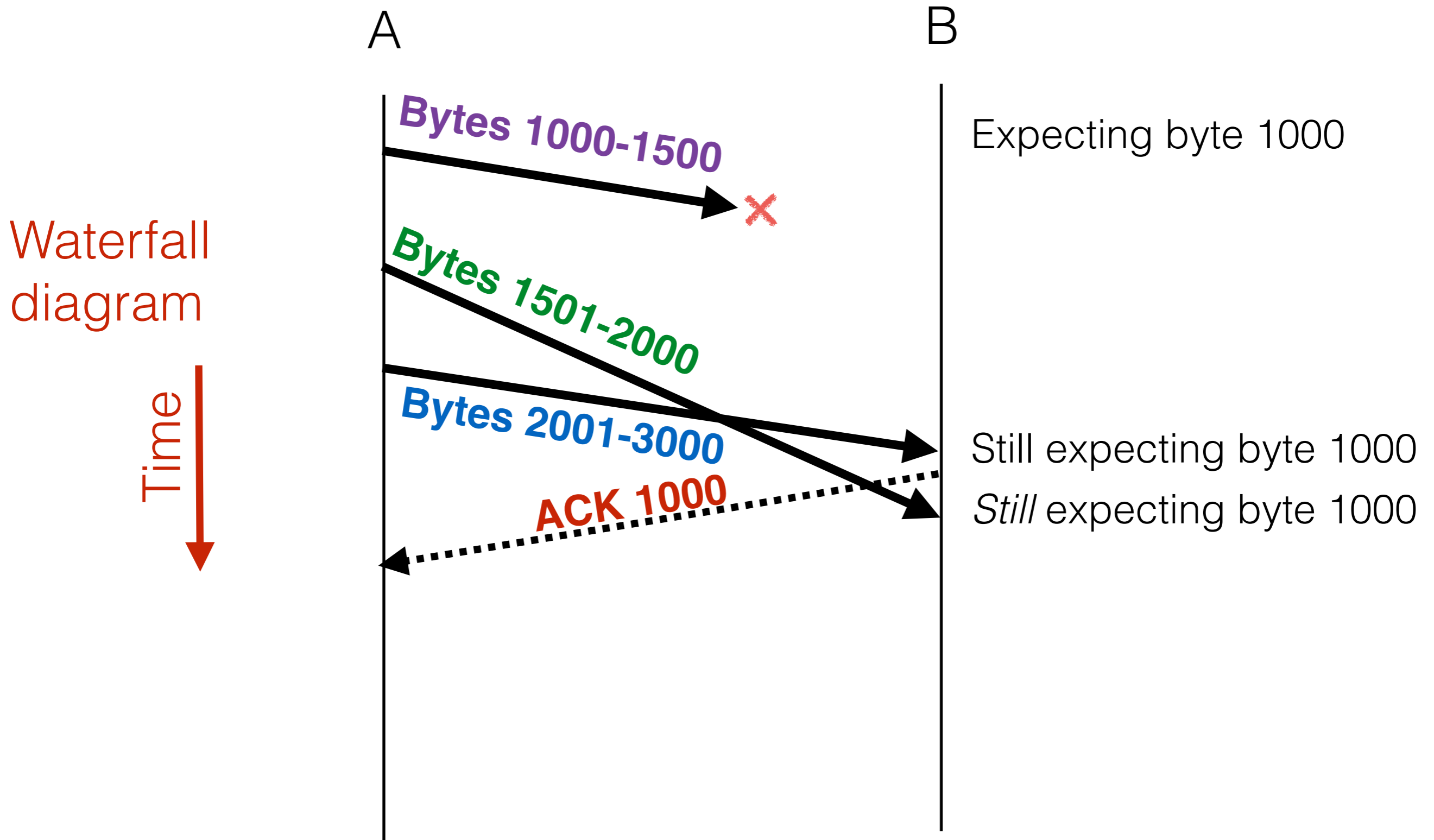
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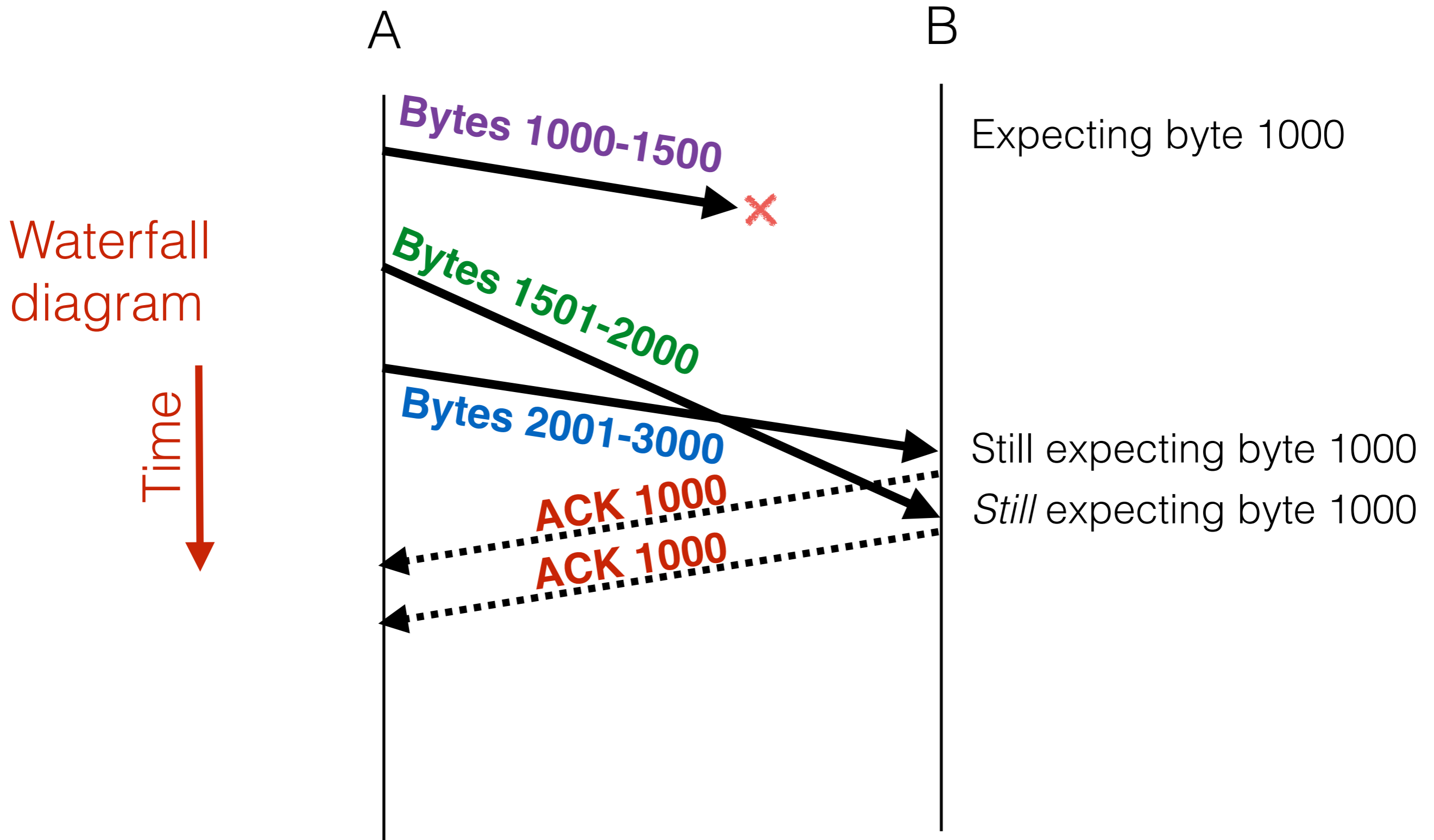
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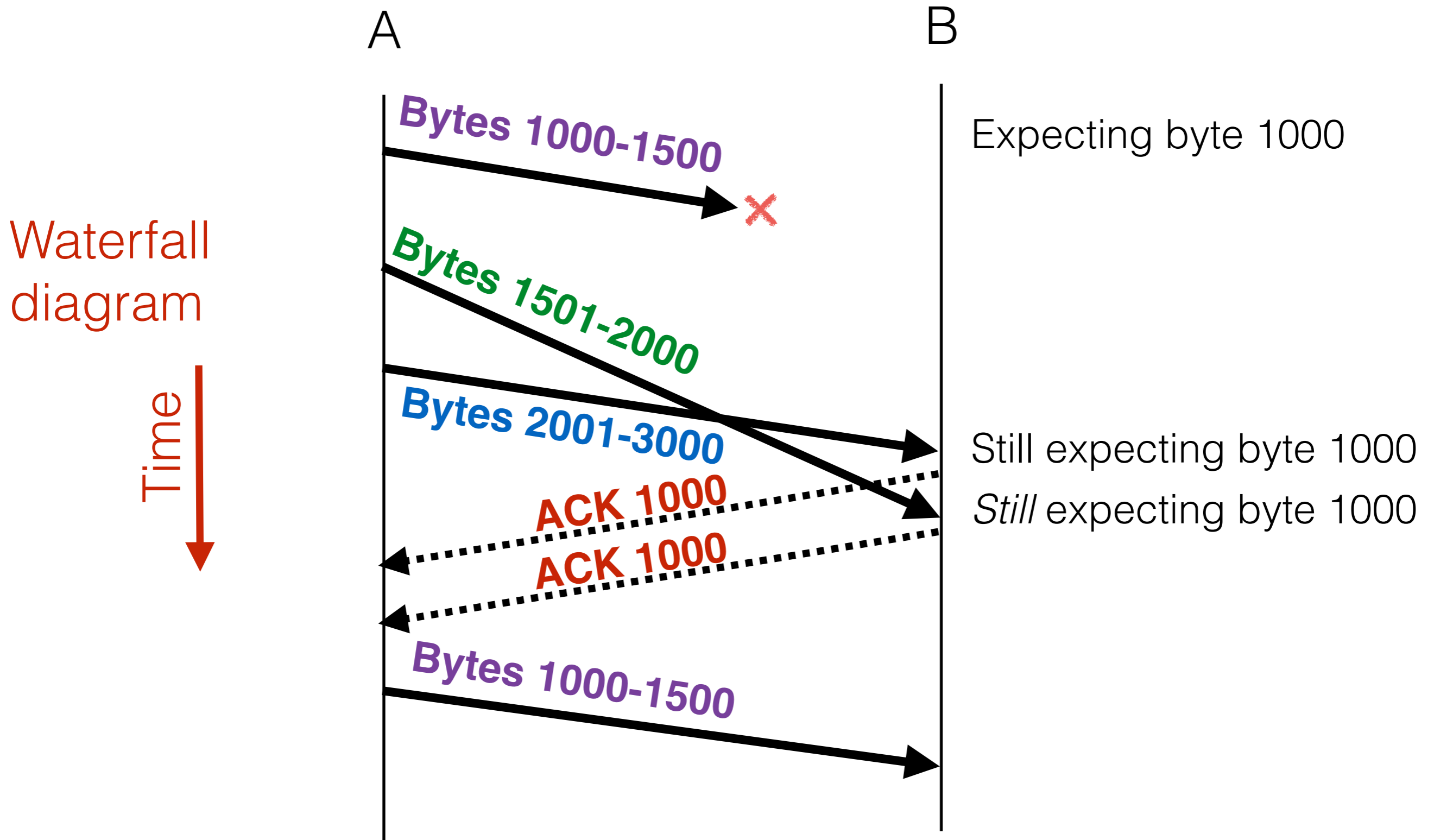
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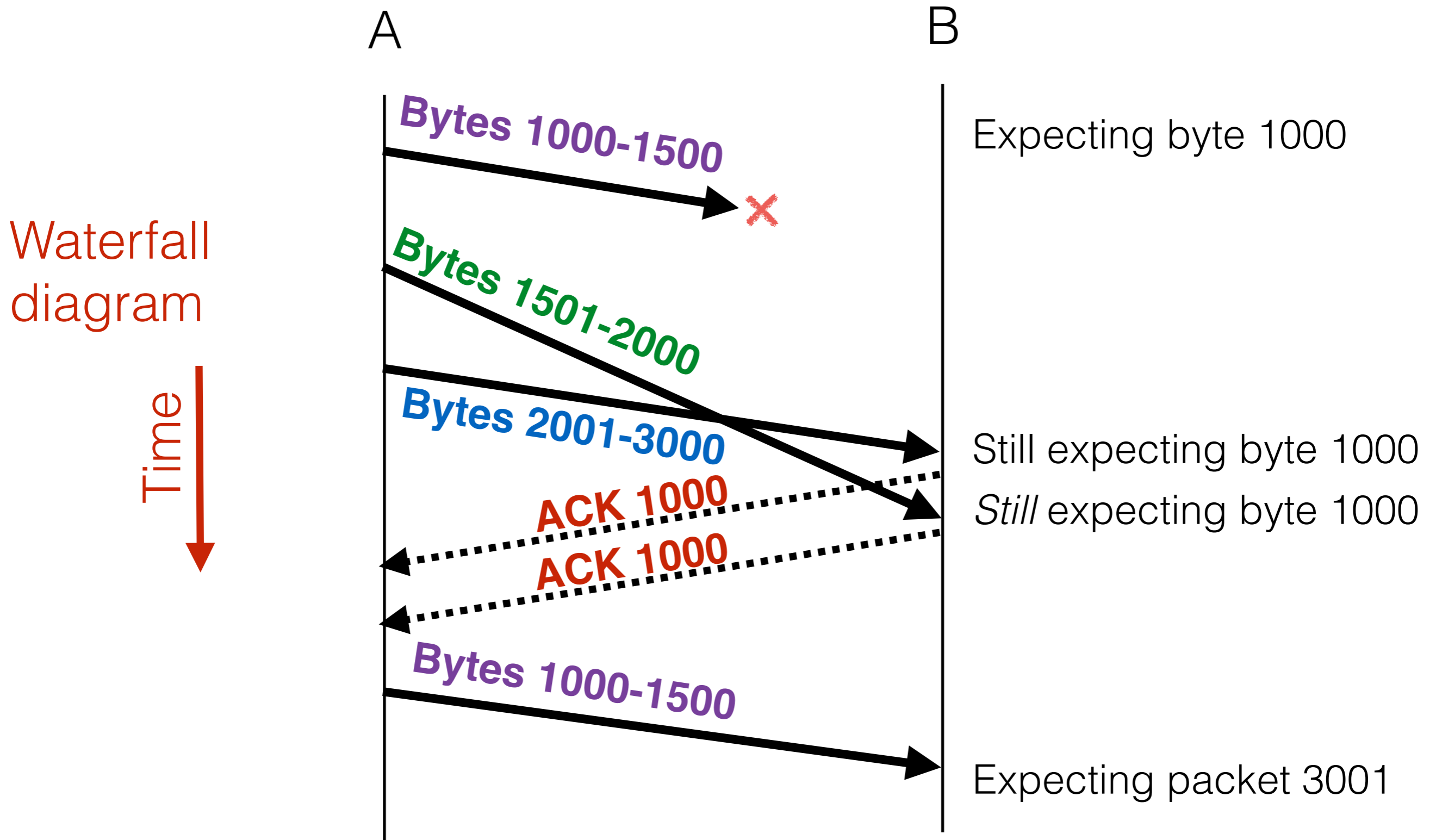
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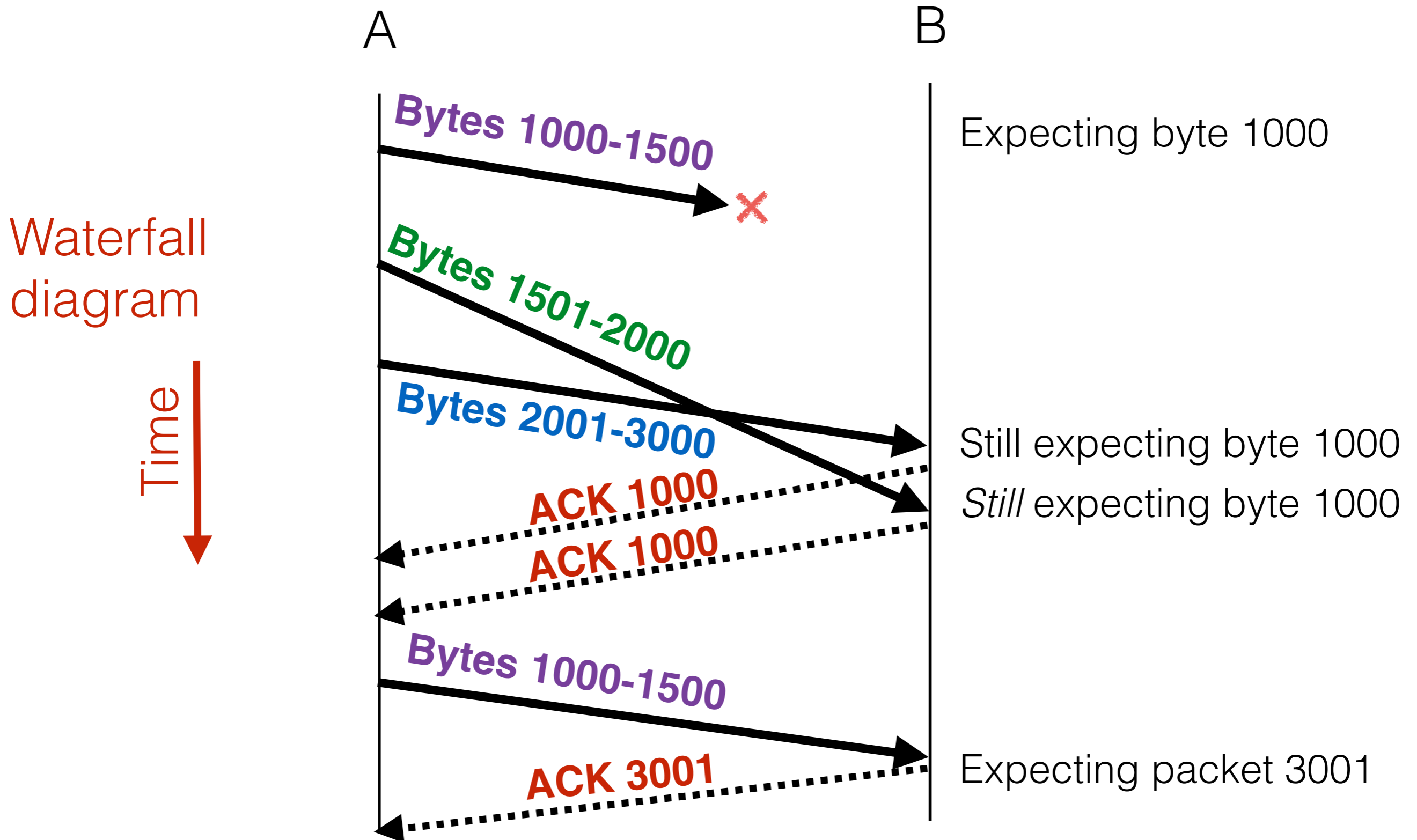
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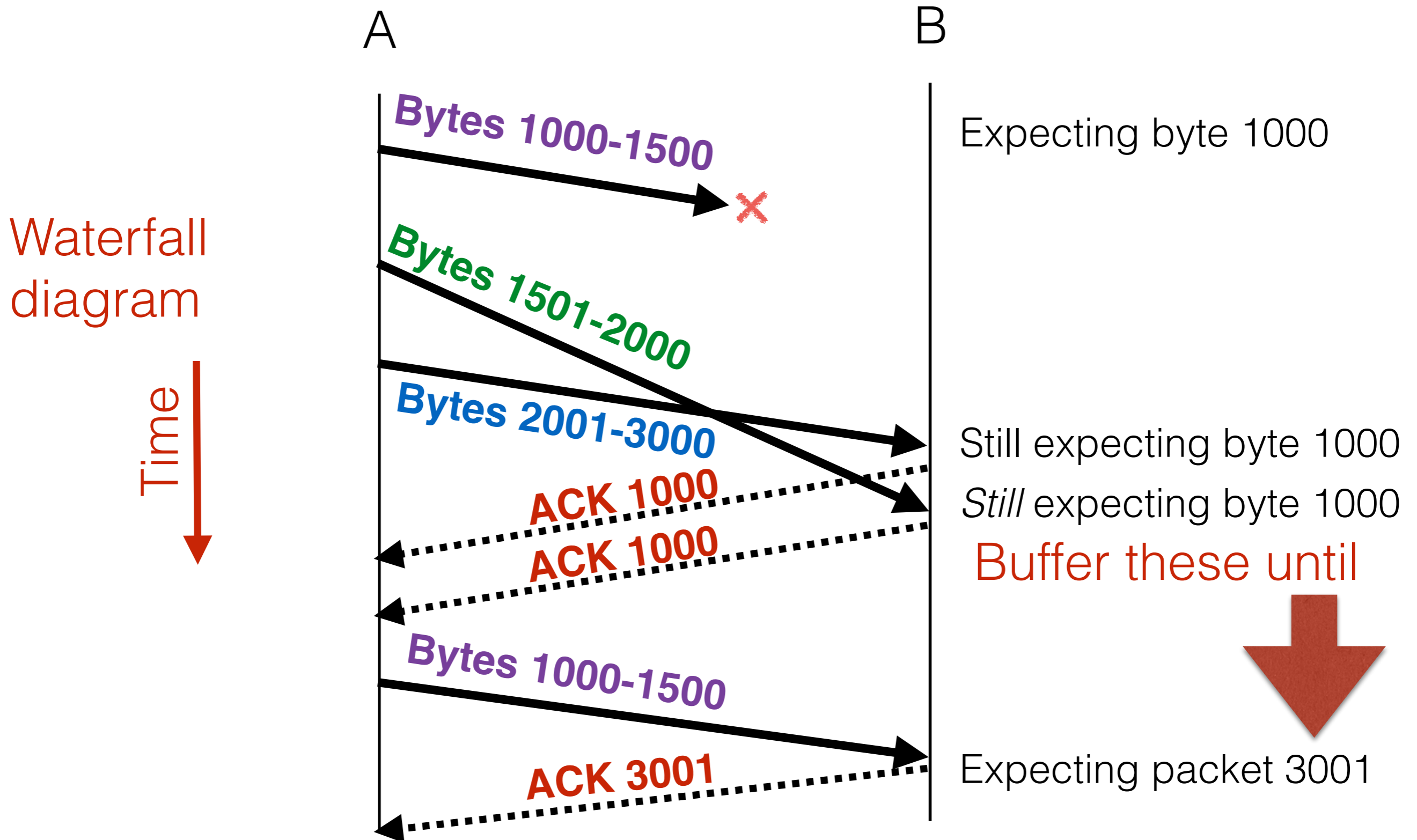
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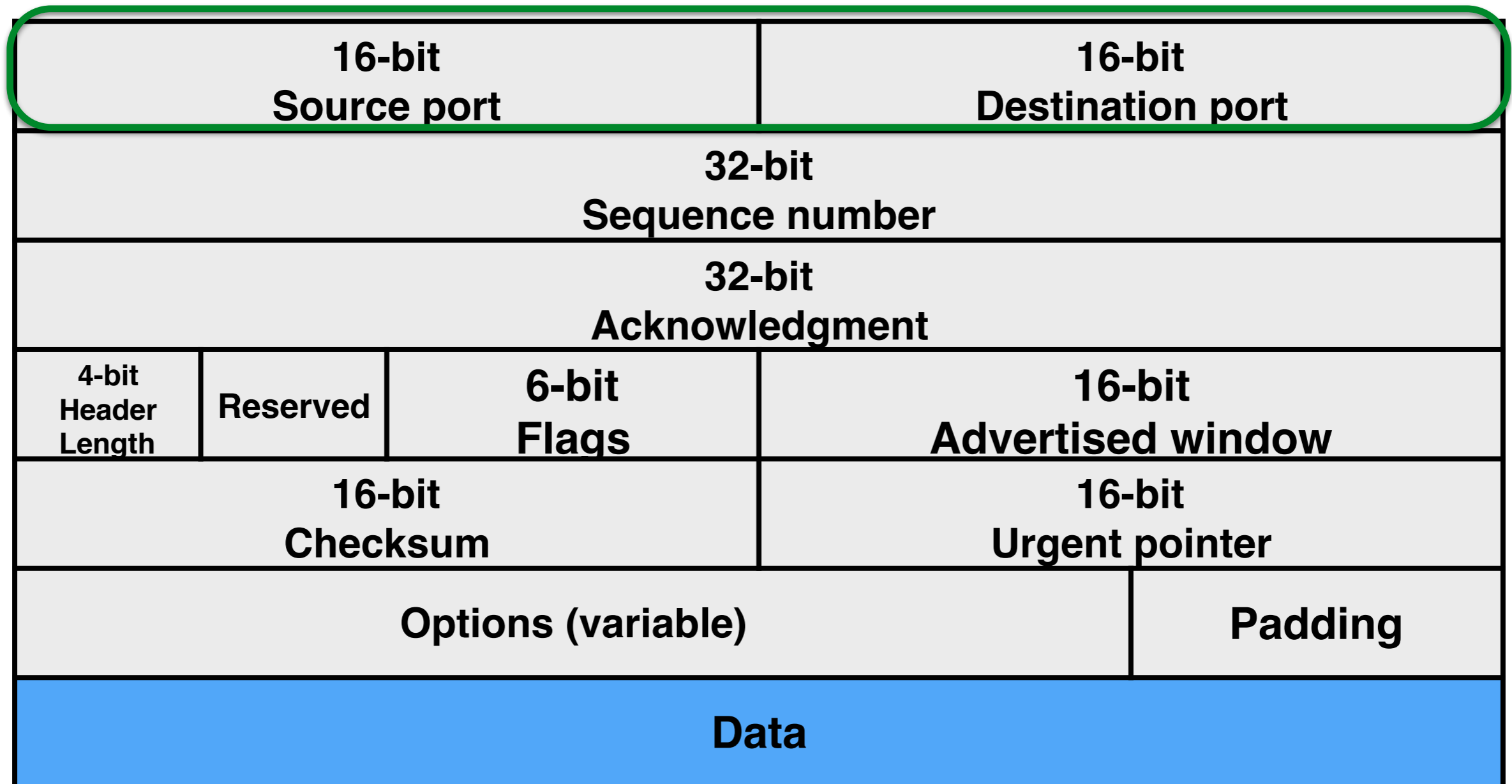


TCP congestion control

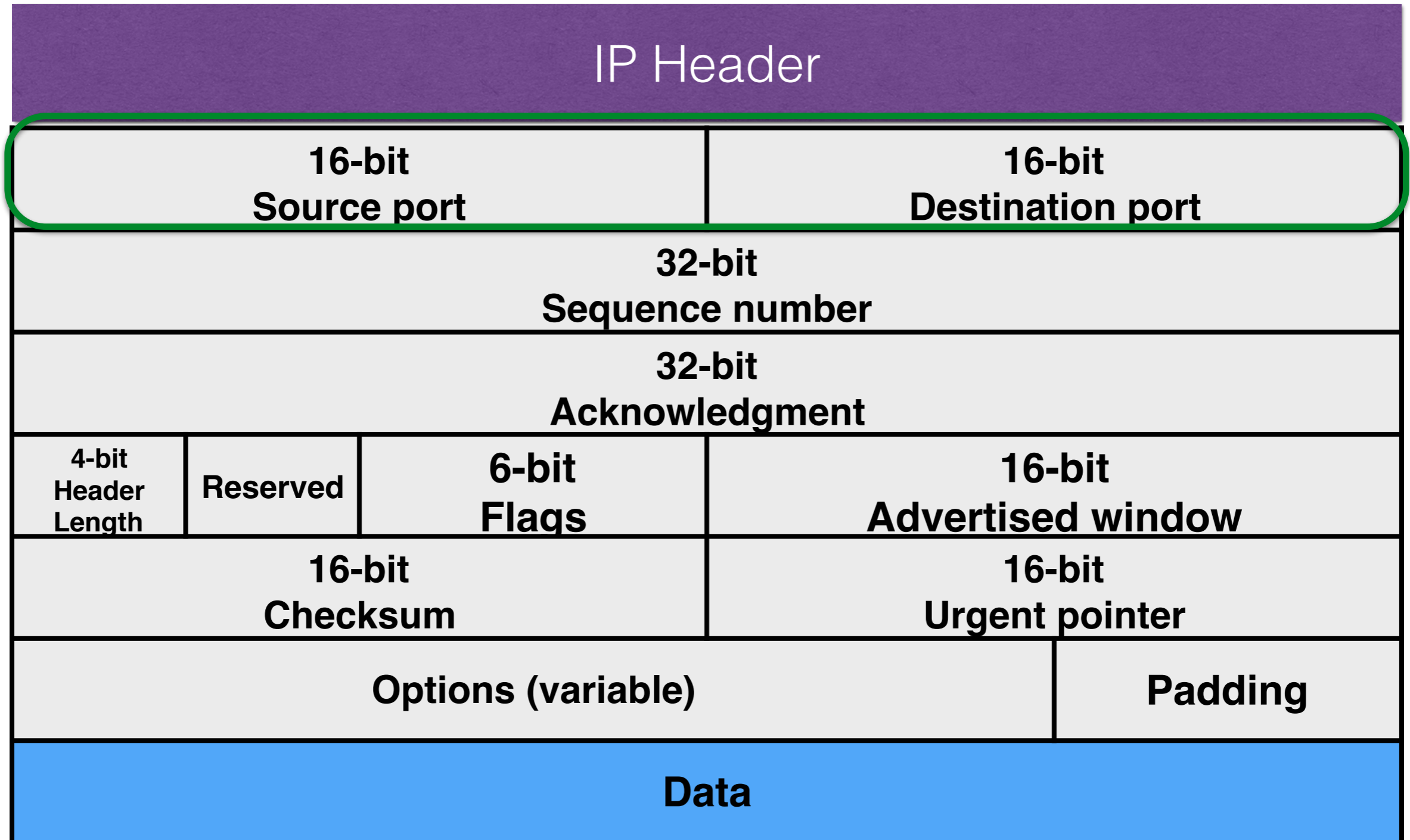
TCP's second job: don't break the network!

- Try to use as much of the network as is safe (does not adversely affect others' performance) and efficient (makes use of network capacity)
- Dynamically adapt how quickly you send based on the network path's capacity
- When an ACK doesn't come back, the network may be beyond capacity: slow down.

TCP header



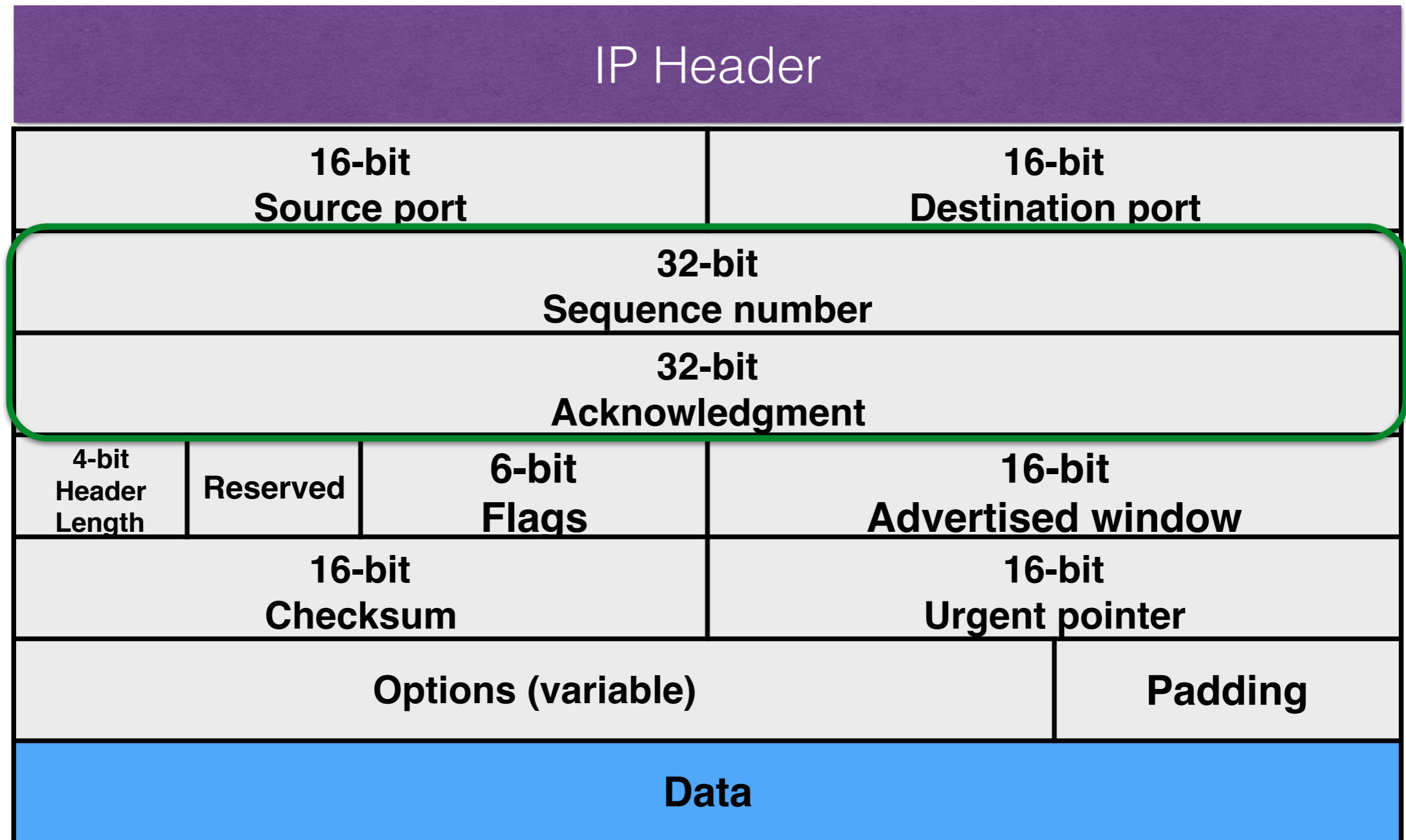
TCP header



TCP ports

- Ports are associated with **OS processes**
- Sandwiched between IP header and the application data
- {src IP/port, dst IP/port} : this 4-tuple uniquely identifies a TCP connection
- Some port numbers are well-known
 - 80 = HTTP
 - 53 = DNS

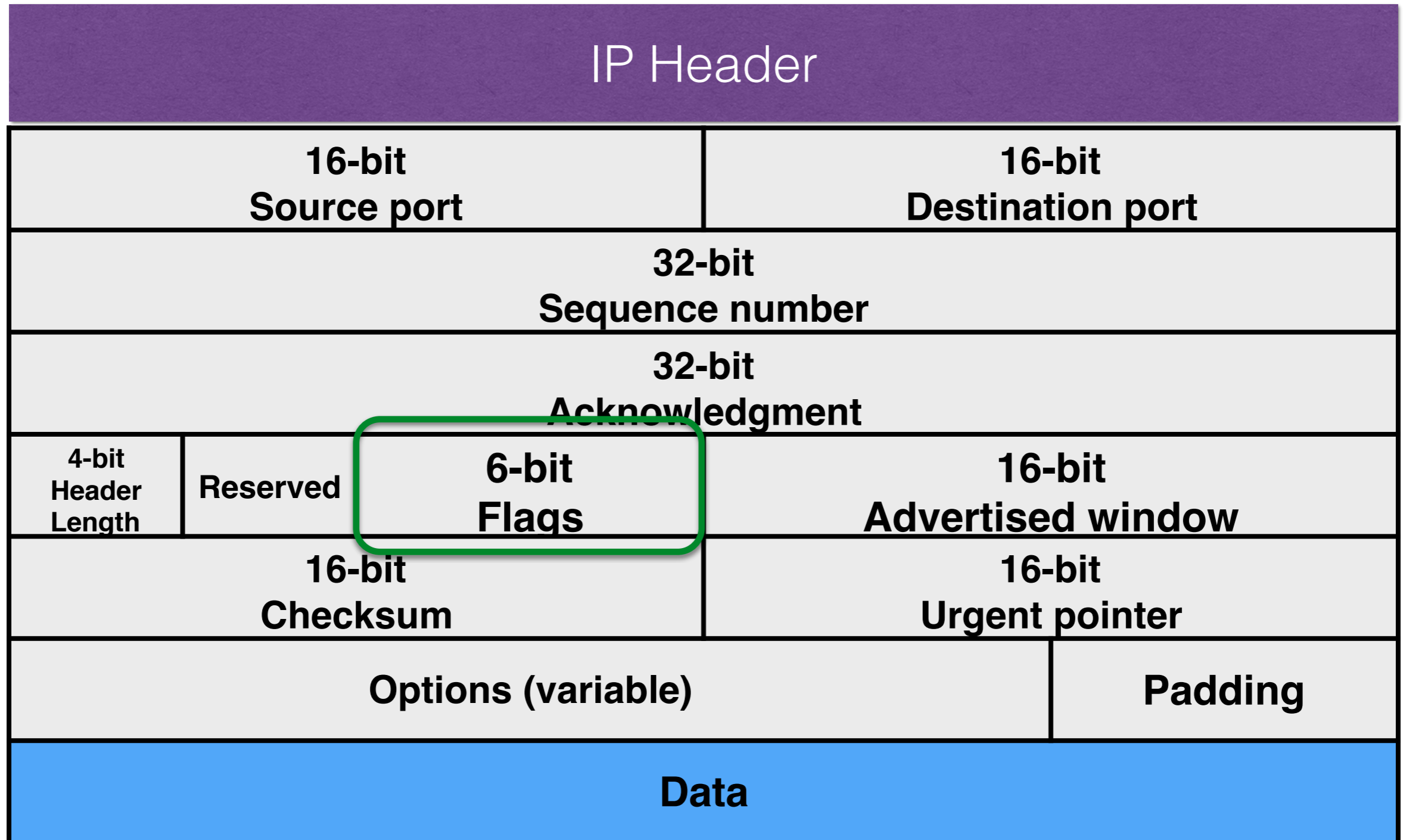
TCP header



TCP seqno

- Each byte in the byte stream has a unique “sequence number”
 - Unique for both directions
- “Sequence number” in the header = sequence number of the **first** byte in the packet’s data
- Next sequence number = previous seqno + previous packet’s data size
- “Acknowledgment” in the header = the **next** seqno you expect from the other end-host

TCP header



TCP flags

- SYN
 - Used for setting up a connection
- ACK
 - Acknowledgments, for data and “control” packets
- FIN
- RST

Setting up a connection

Three-way handshake

A

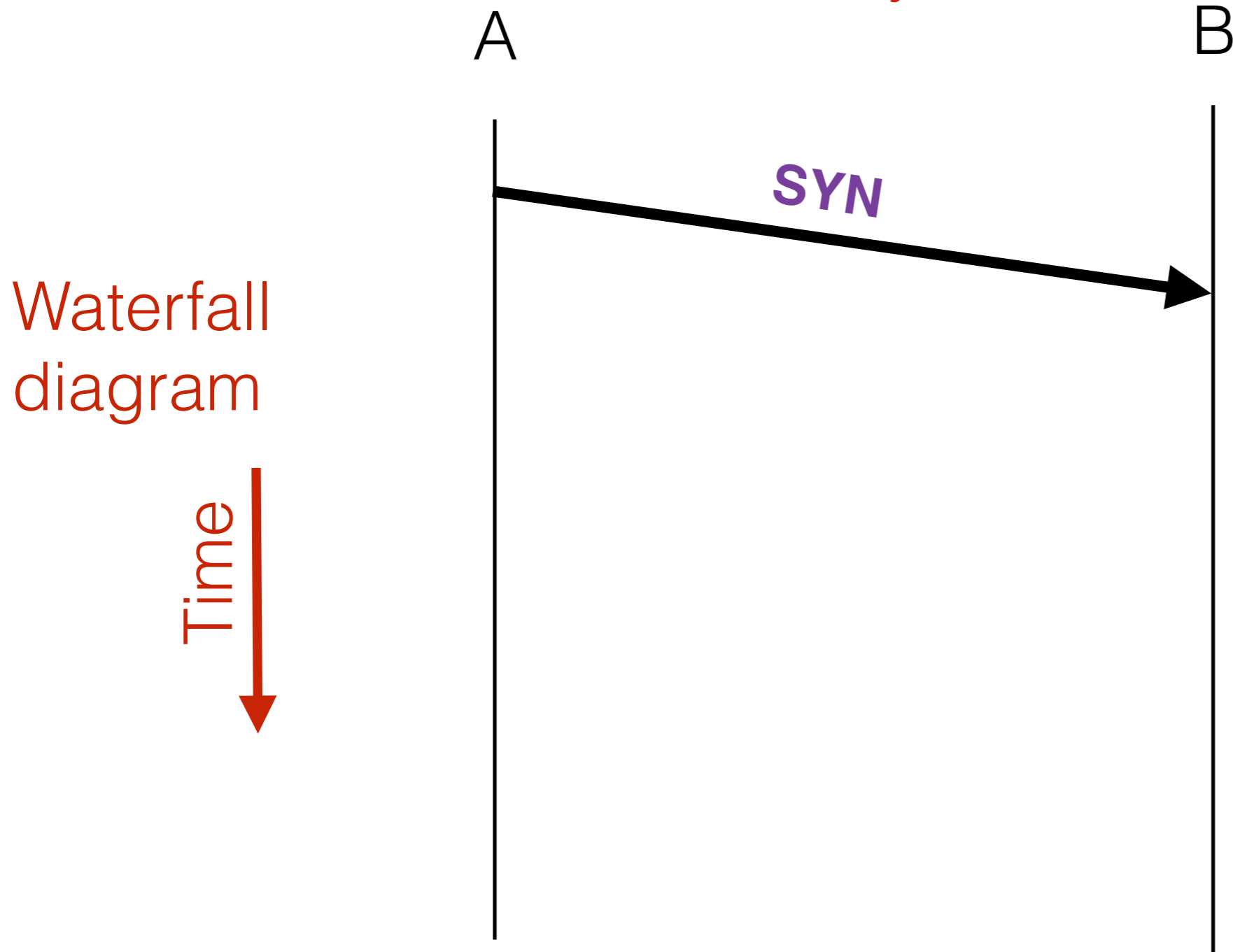
B

Waterfall
diagram



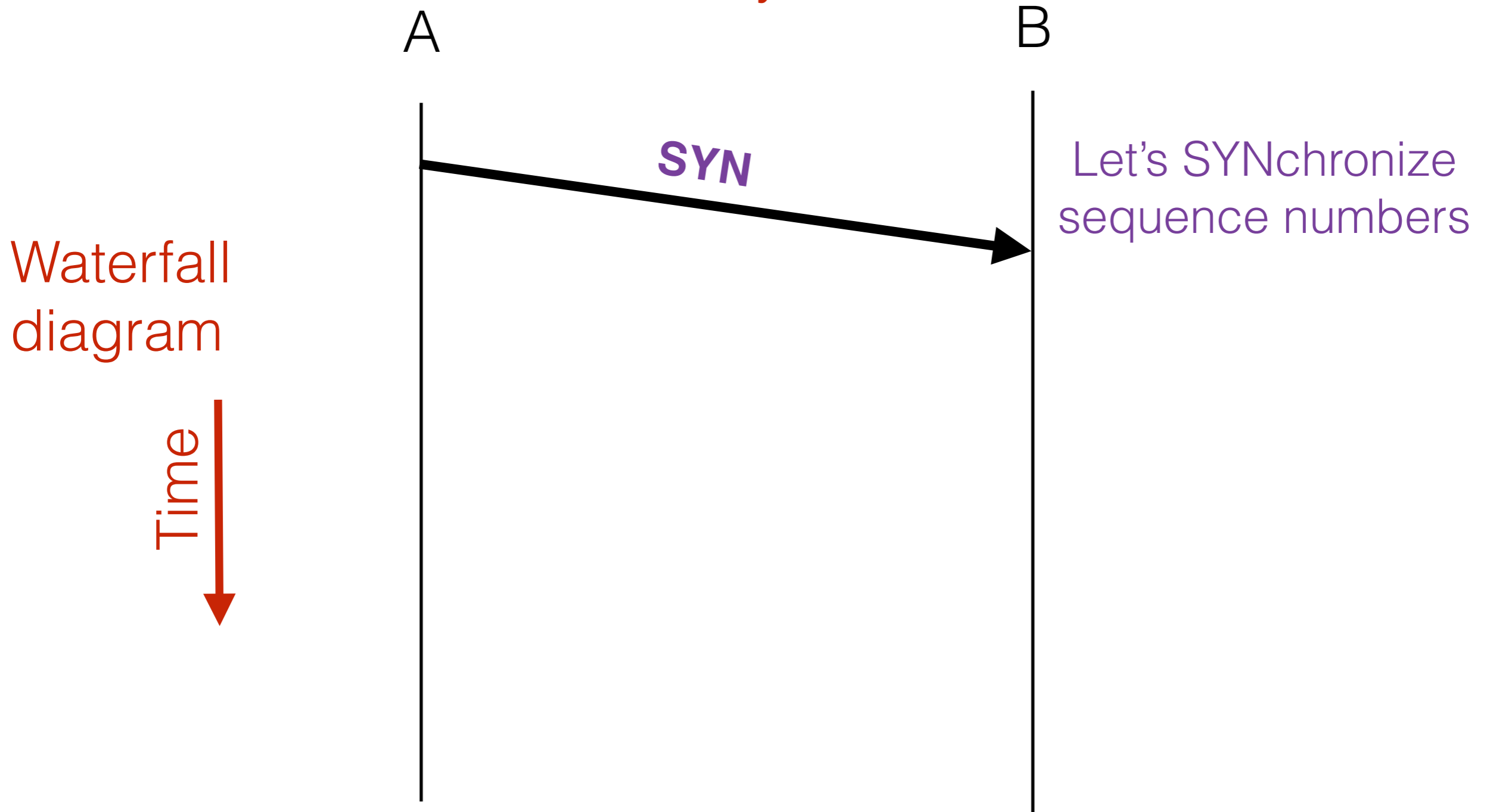
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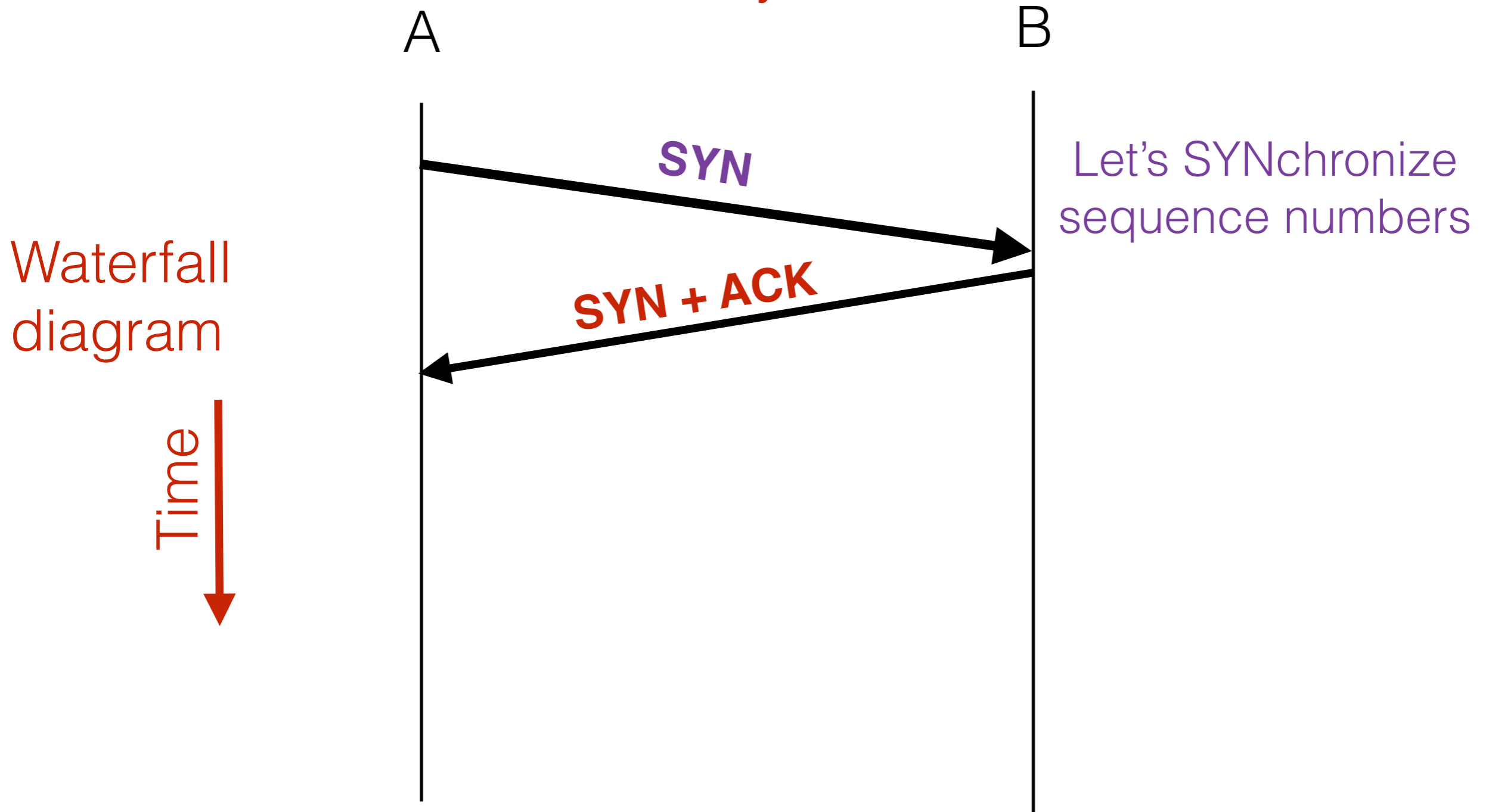
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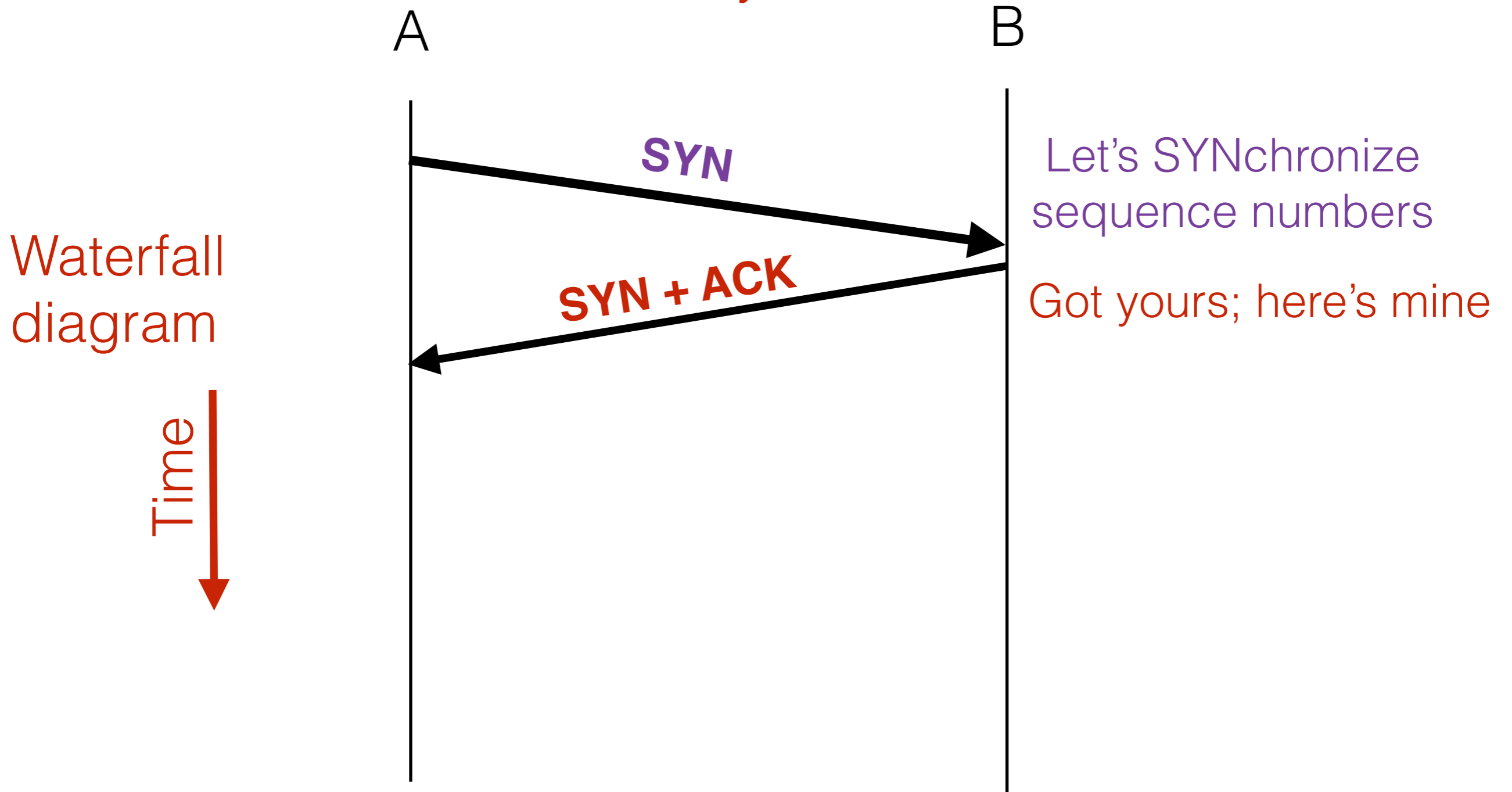
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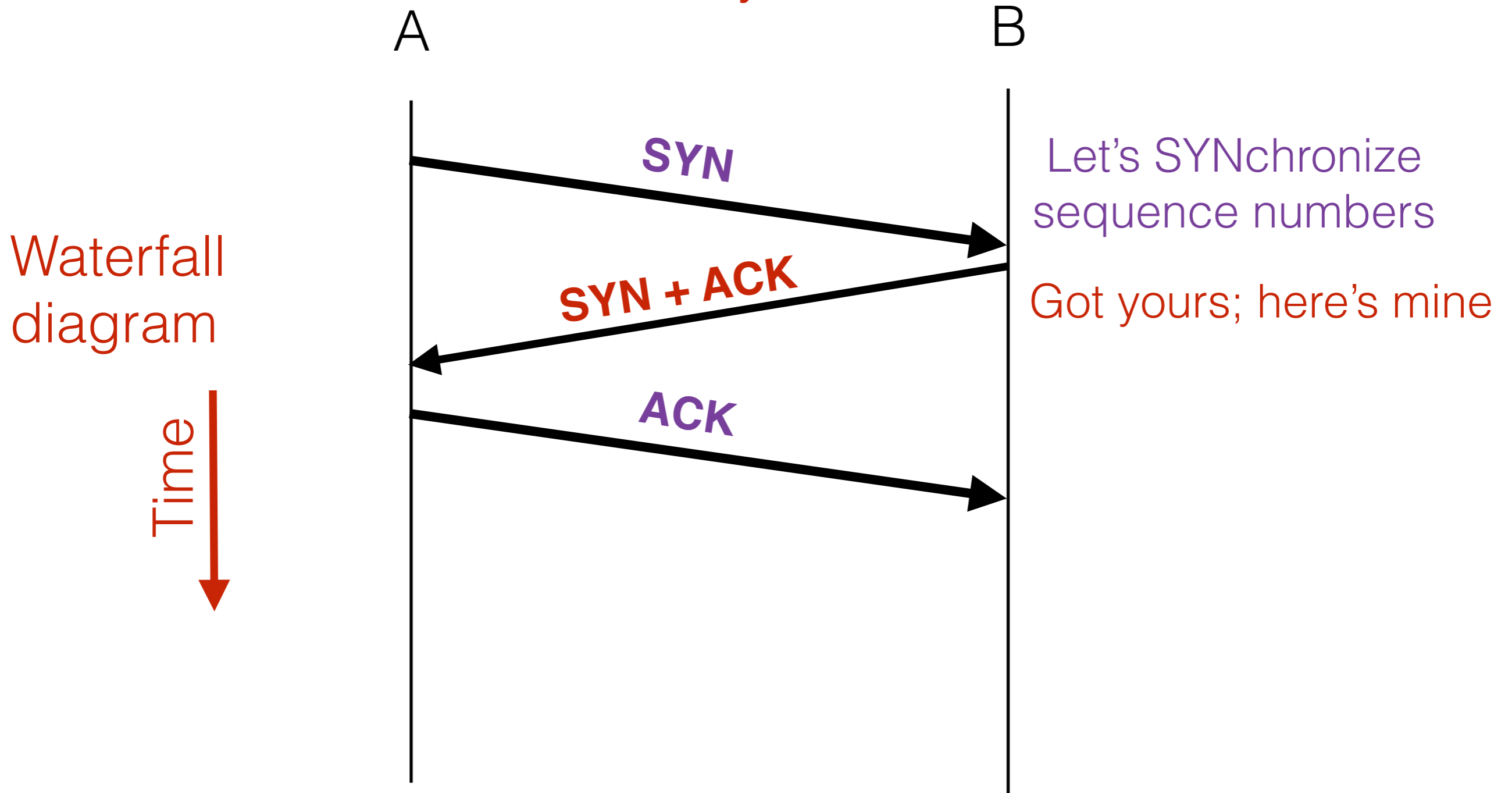
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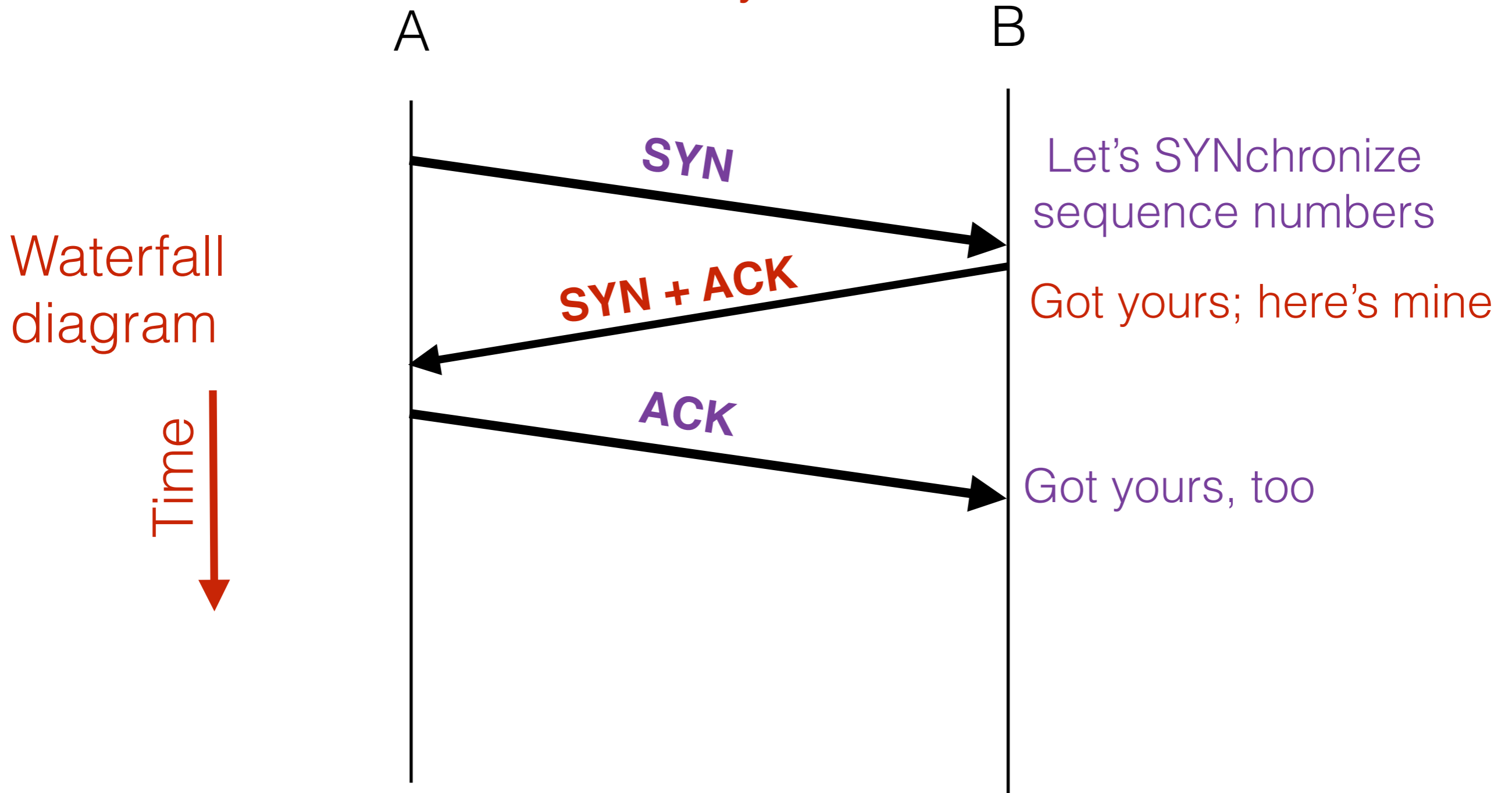
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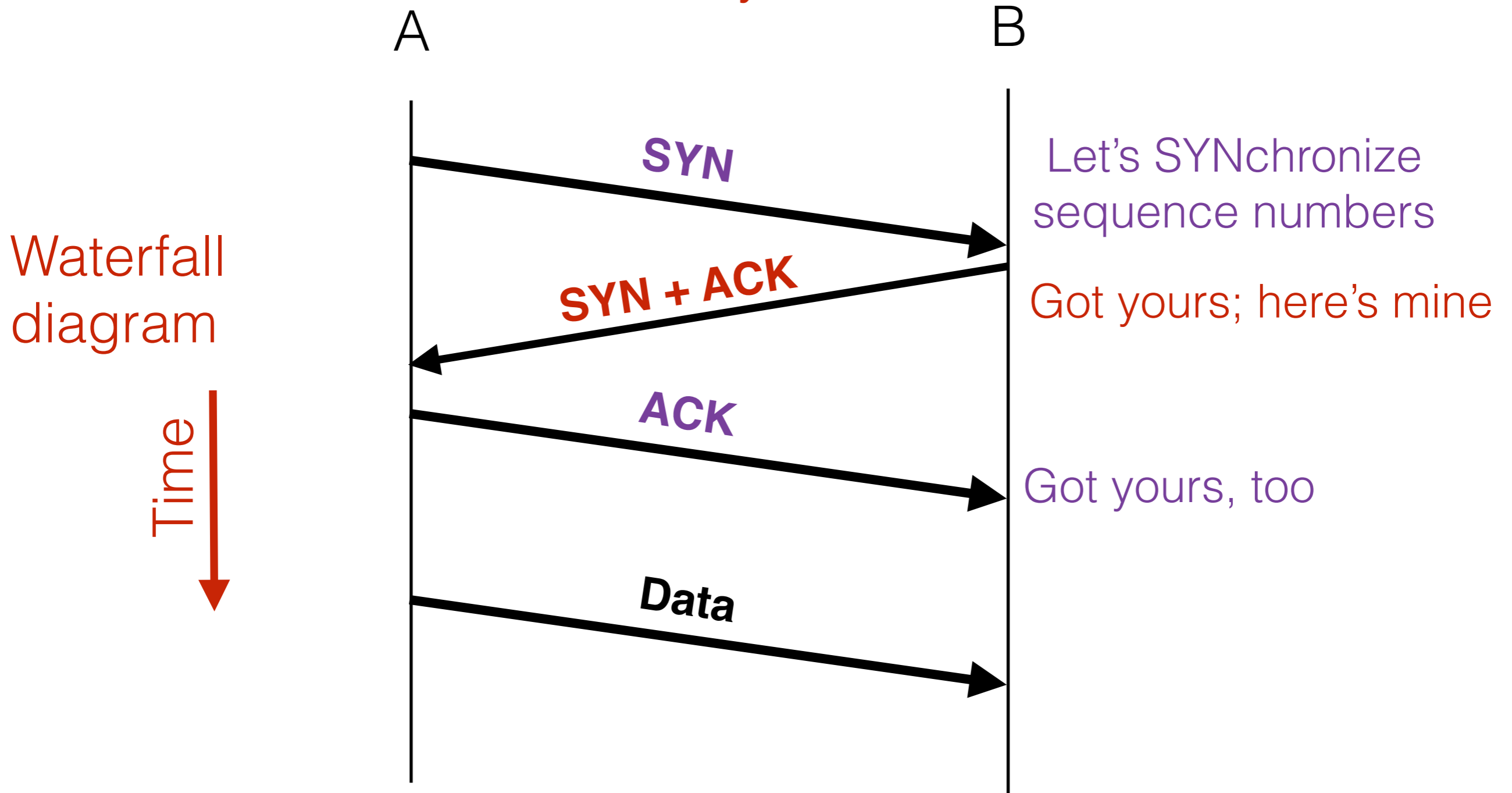
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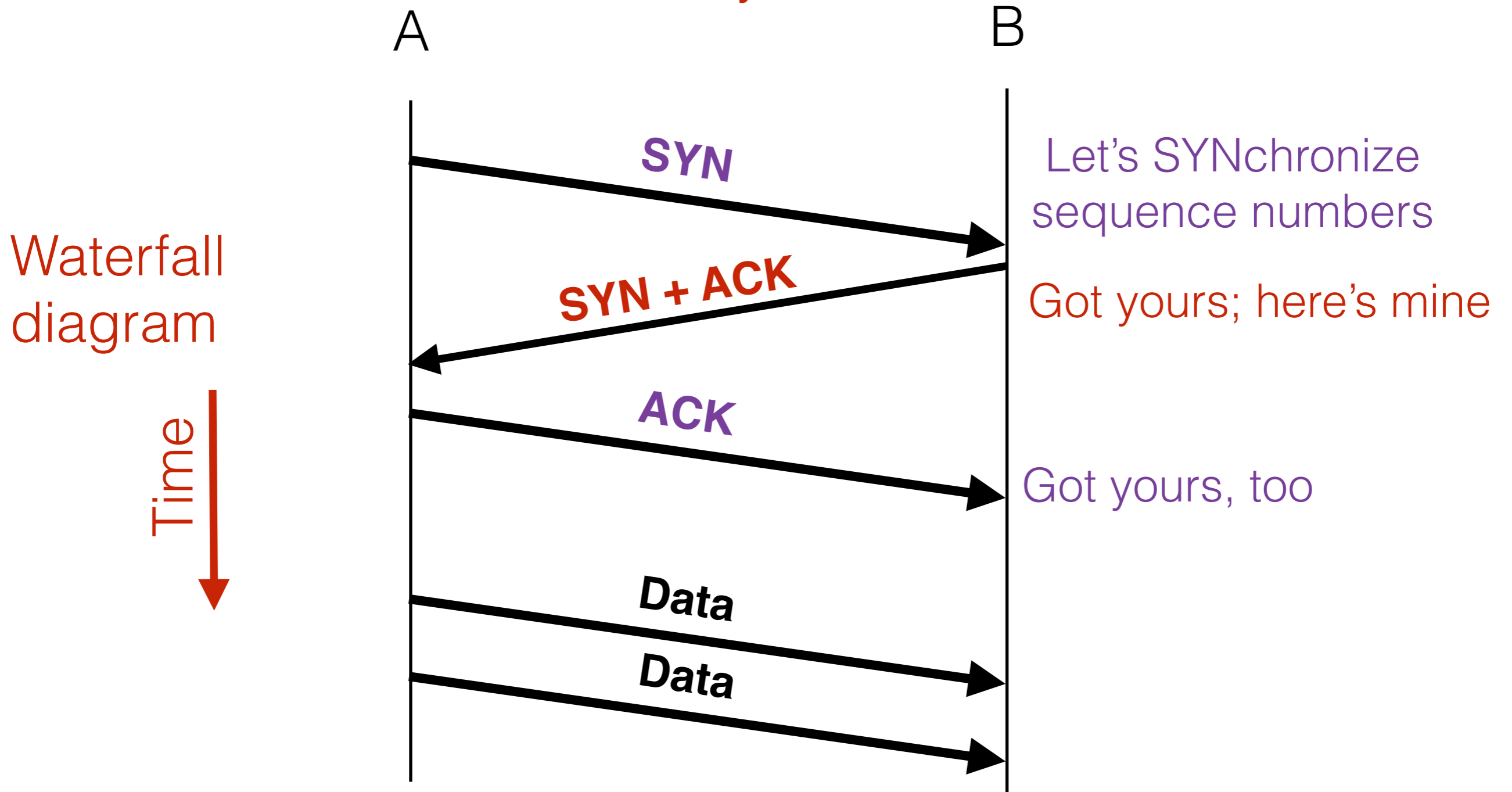
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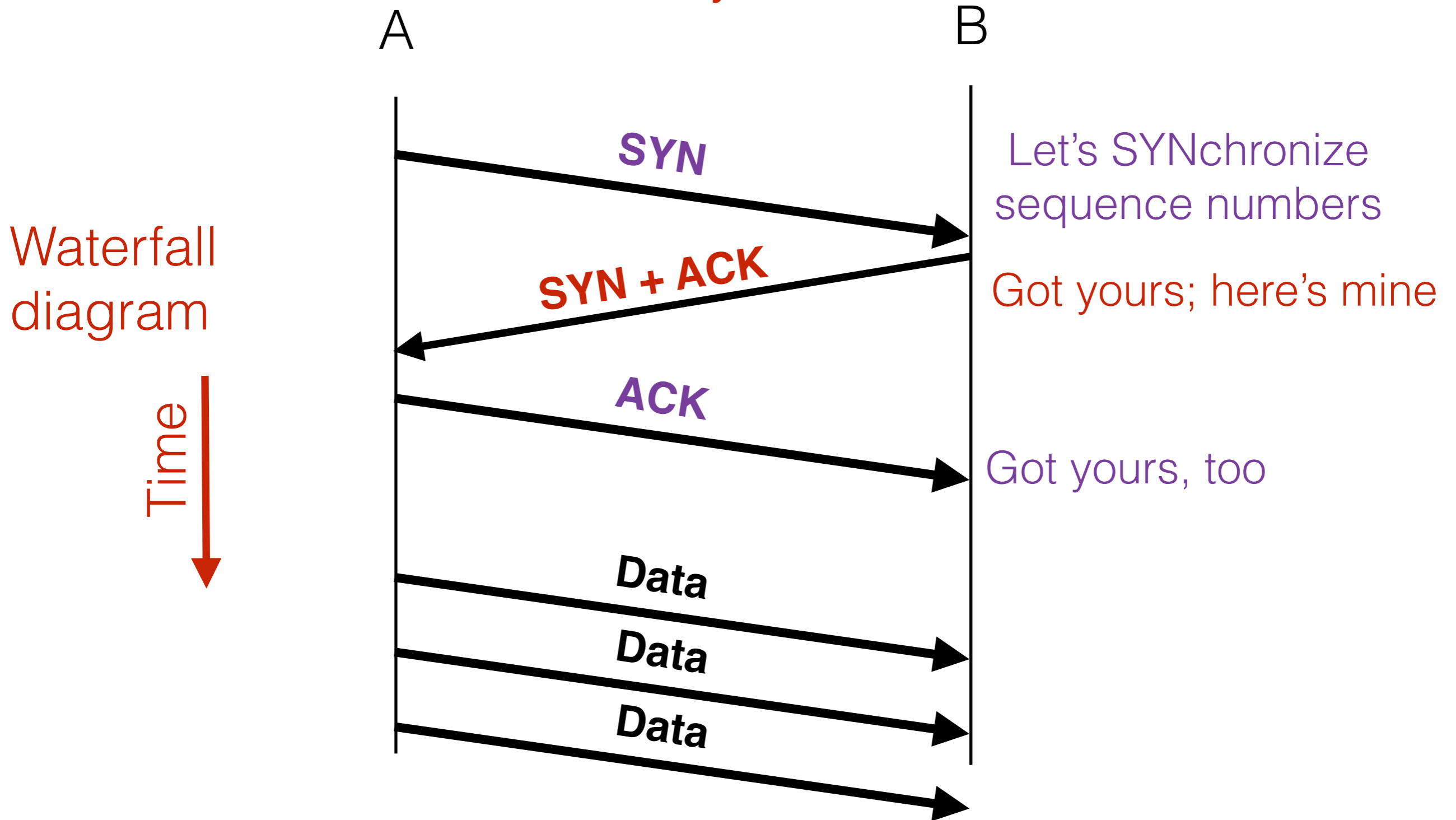
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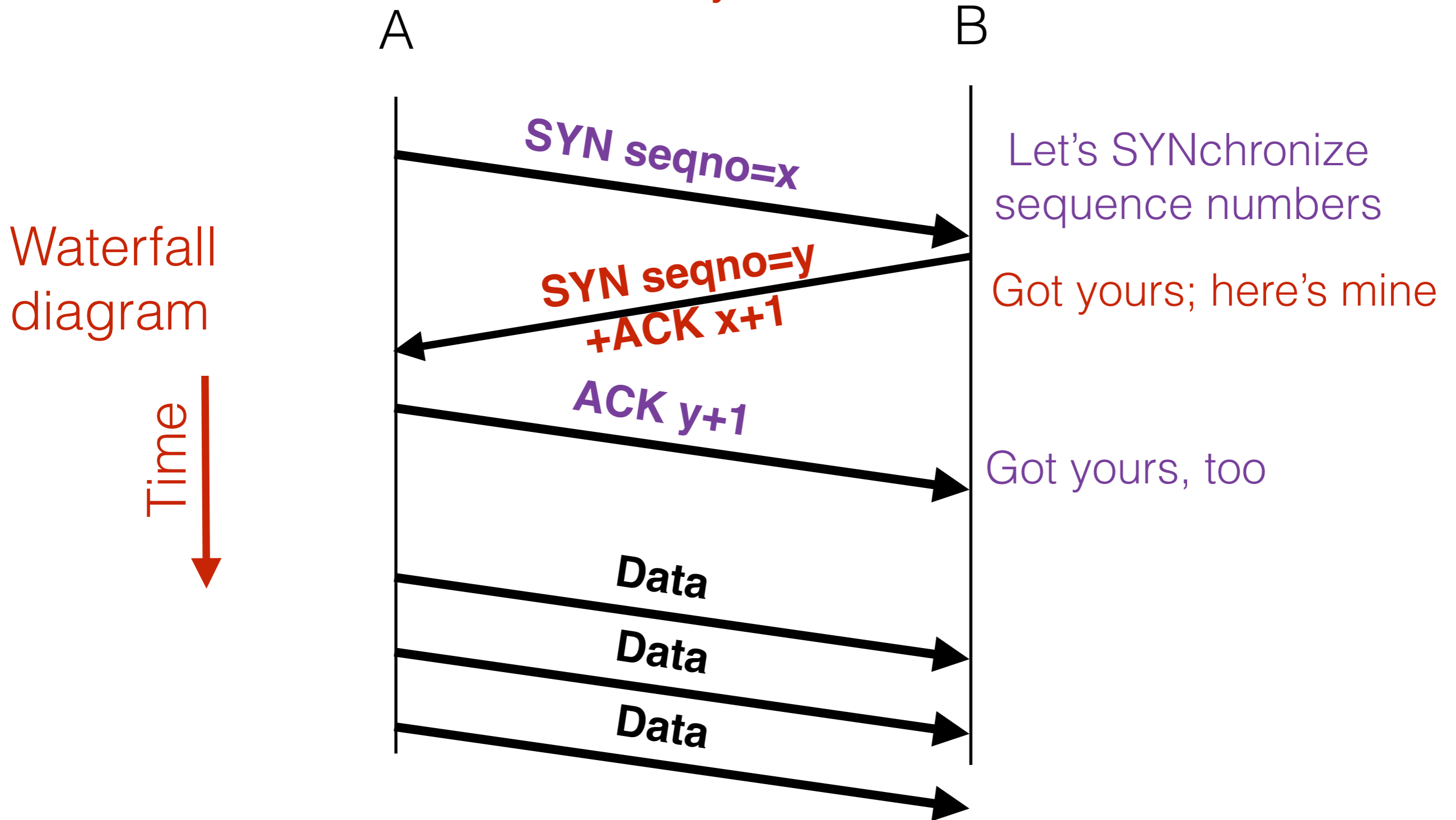
Setting up a connection

Three-way handshake



Setting up a connection

Three-way handshake



TCP flags

- SYN
- ACK
- FIN: Let's shut this down (two-way)
 - FIN
 - FIN+ACK
- RST: I'm shutting you down
 - Says "delete all your local state, because I don't know what you're talking about"

Attacks

- SYN flooding
- Injection attacks
- Opt-ack attack

SYN flooding

SYN flooding

Recall the three-way handshake:

A

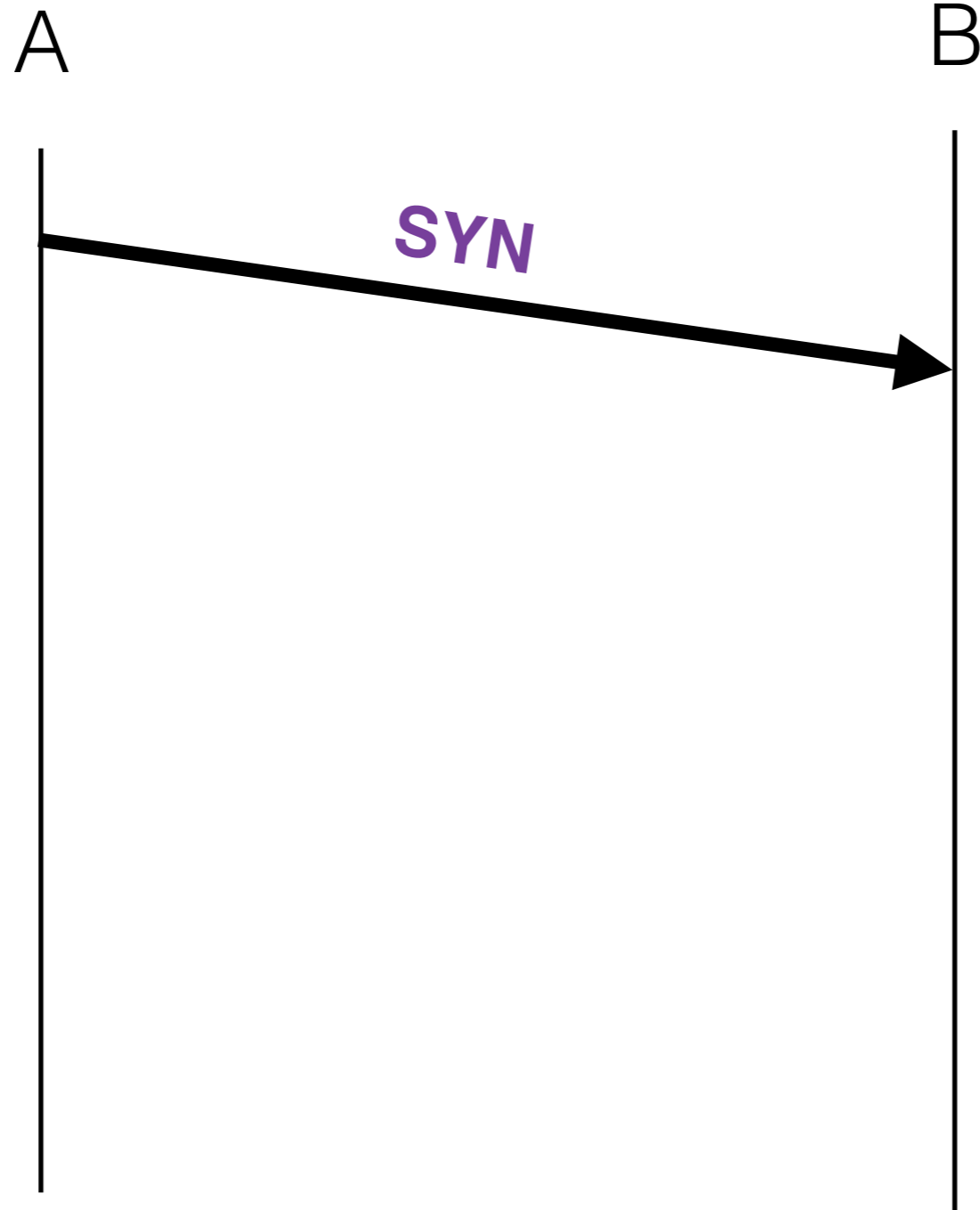
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Waterfall
diagram



SYN flooding

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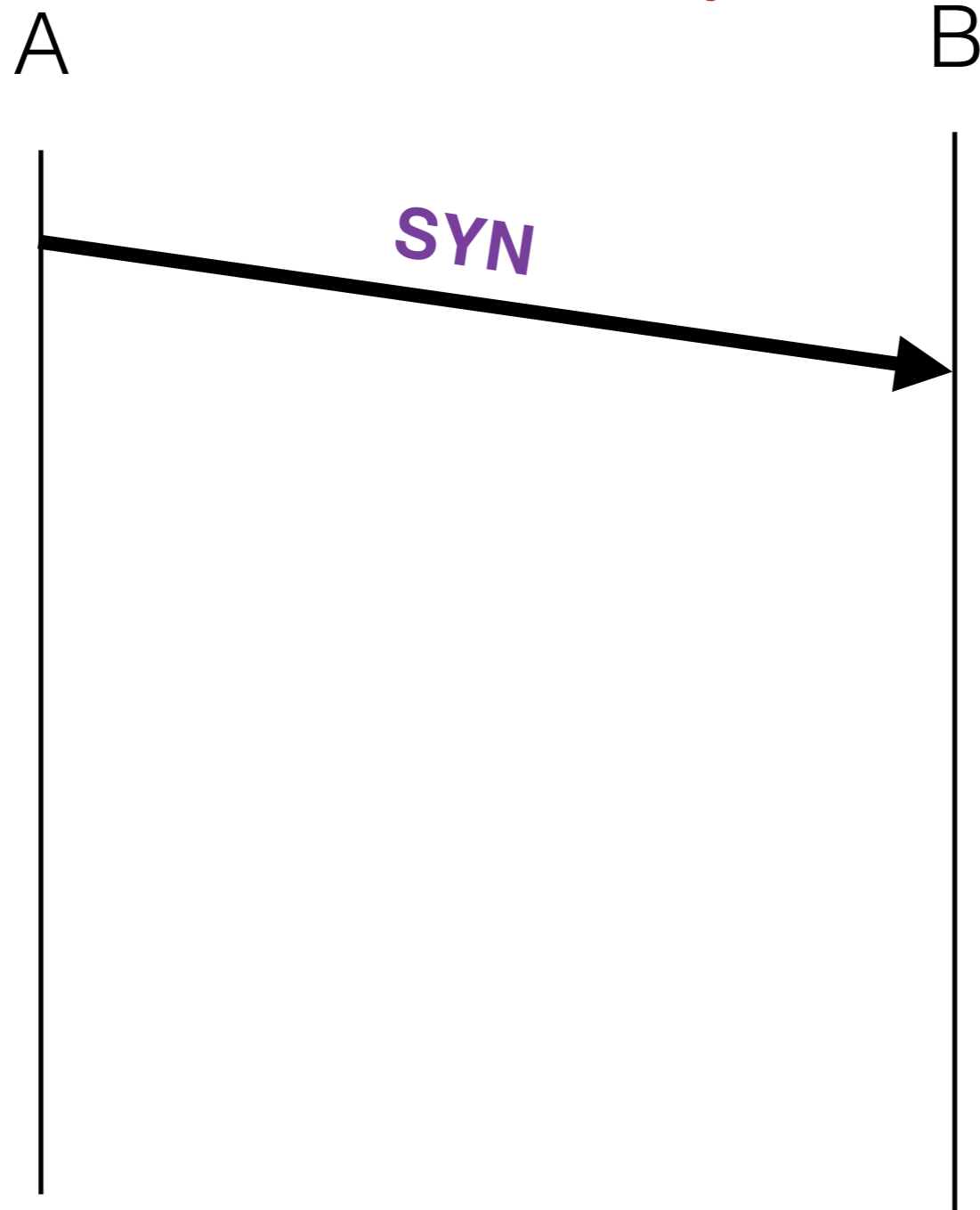


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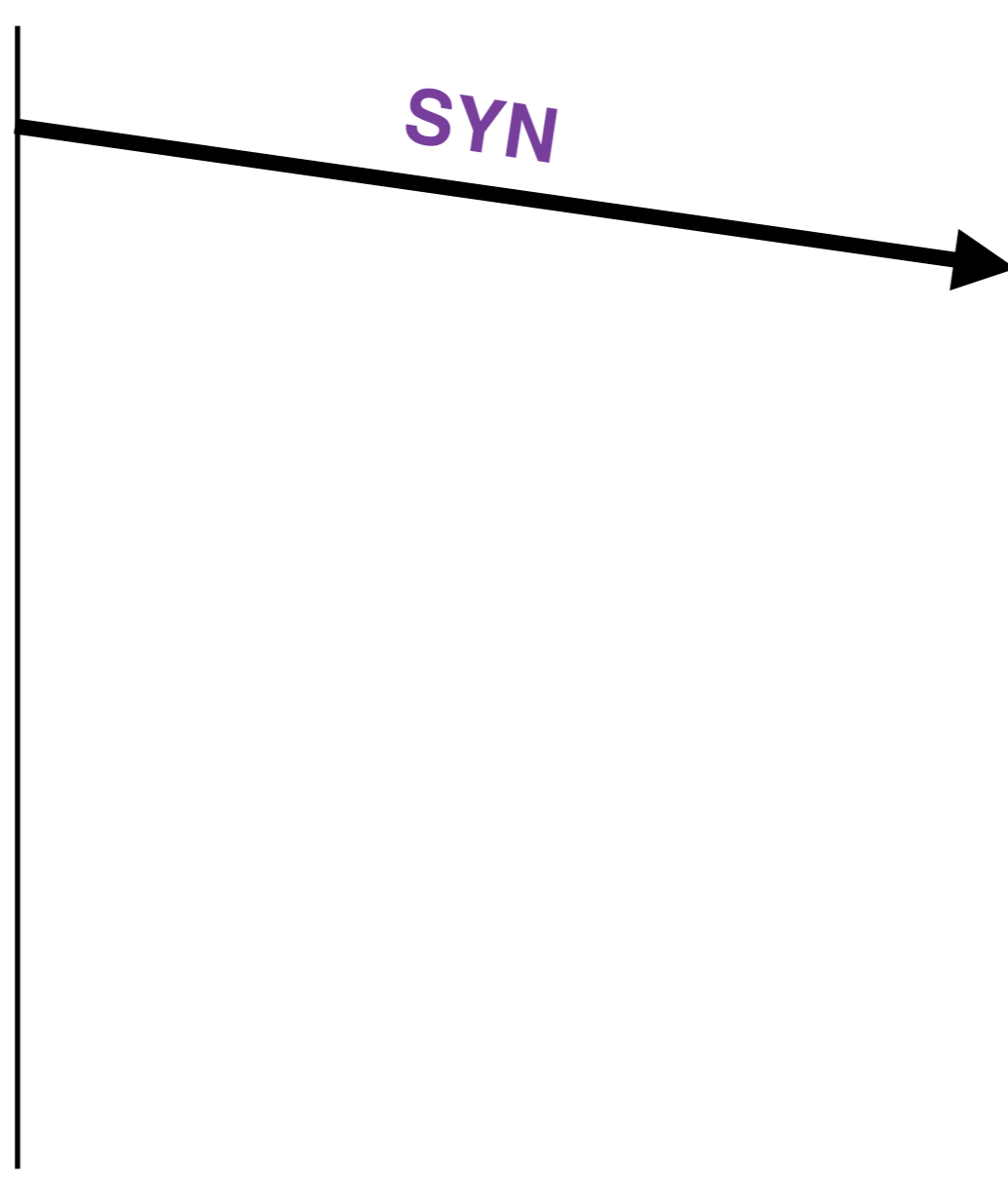
Time
↓

At this point, B
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maximum
segment size)

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IP/port,
MSS,...

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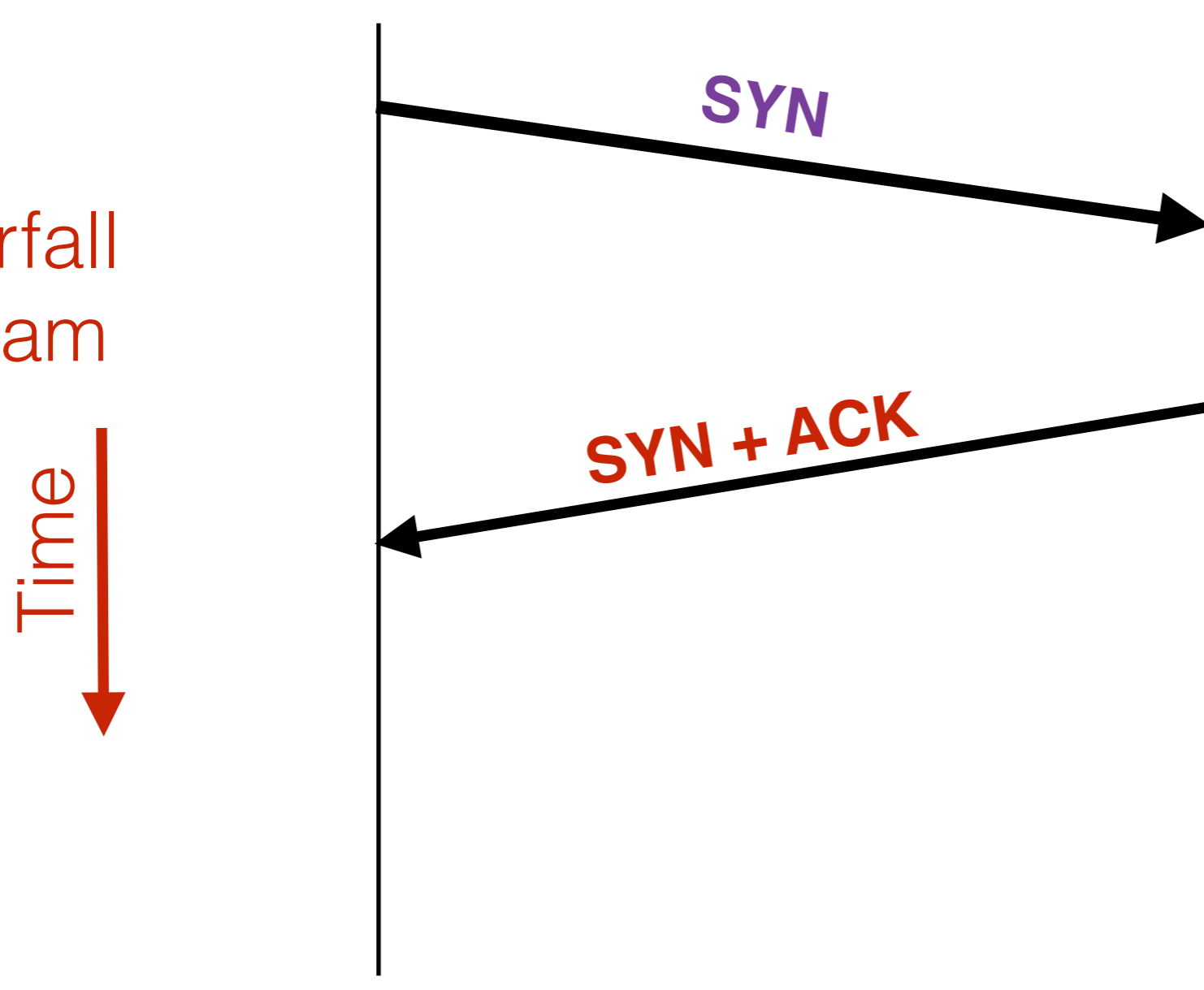
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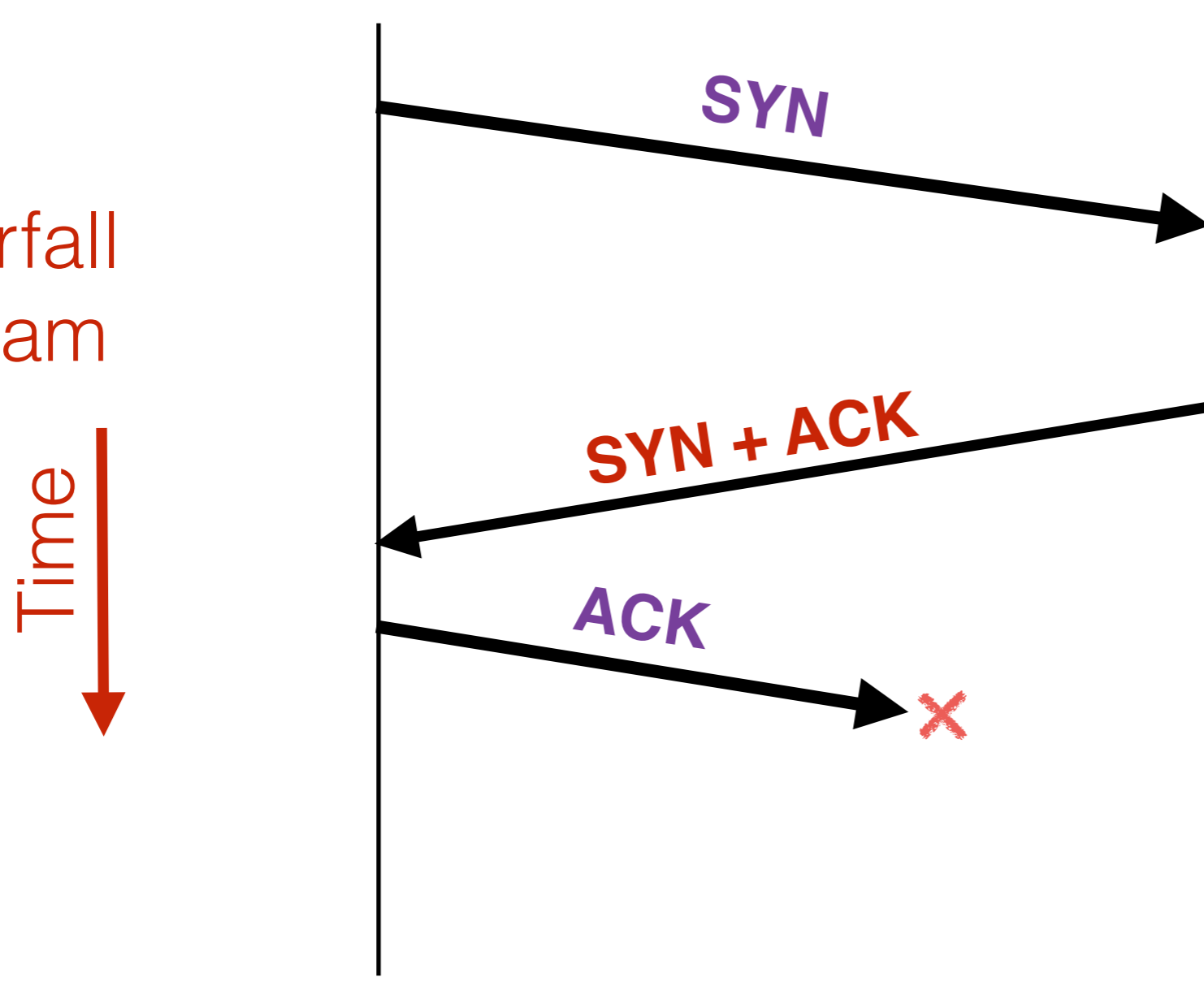
IP/port,
MSS,...

At this point, B allocates state for this new connection (incl. IP, port, maximum segment size)

SYN flooding

Recall the three-way handshake:

A B



IP/port,
MSS,...

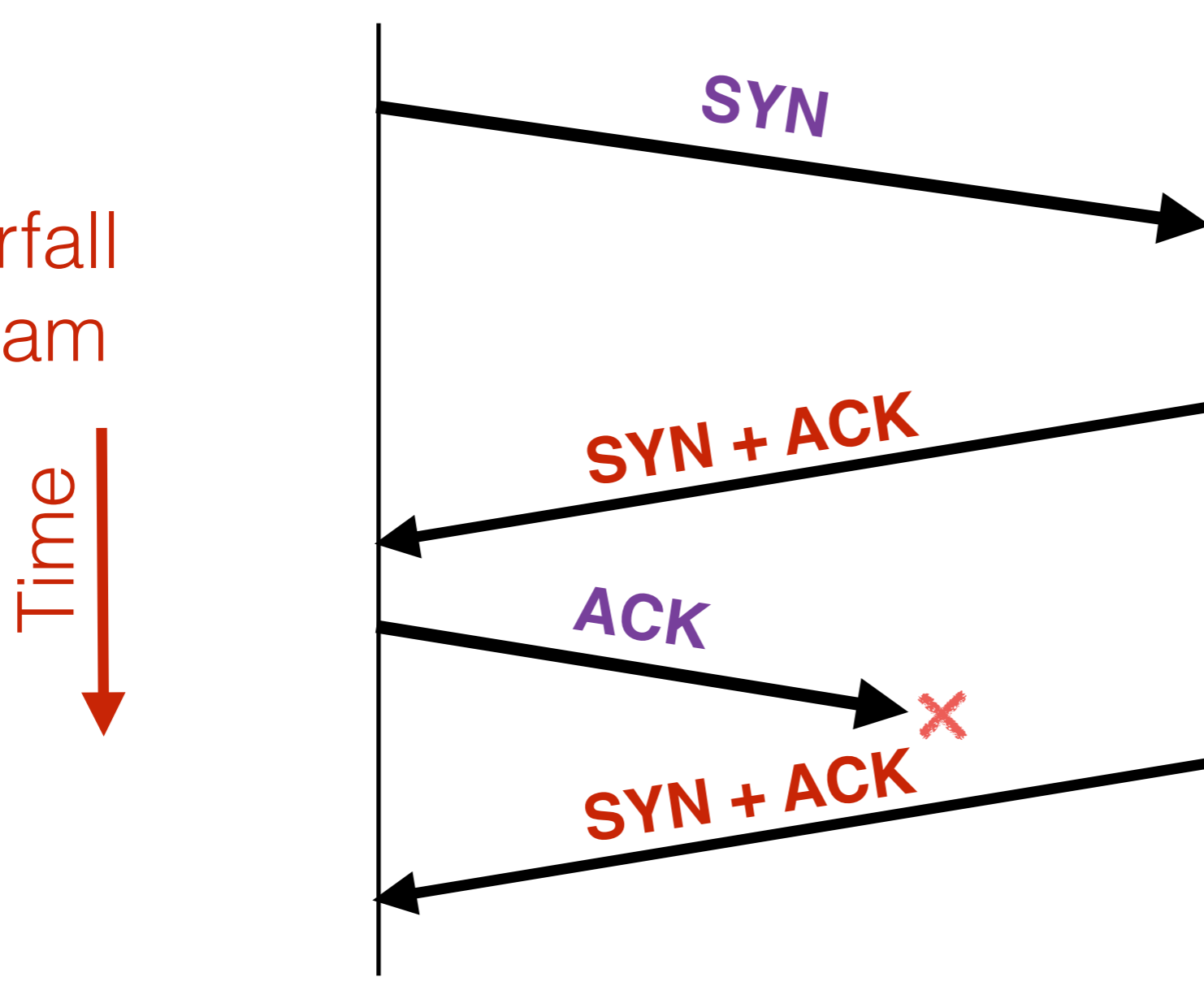
At this point, B allocates state for this new connection (incl. IP, port, maximum segment size)

Waterfall
diagram

SYN flooding

Recall the three-way handshake:

A B



Waterfall diagram

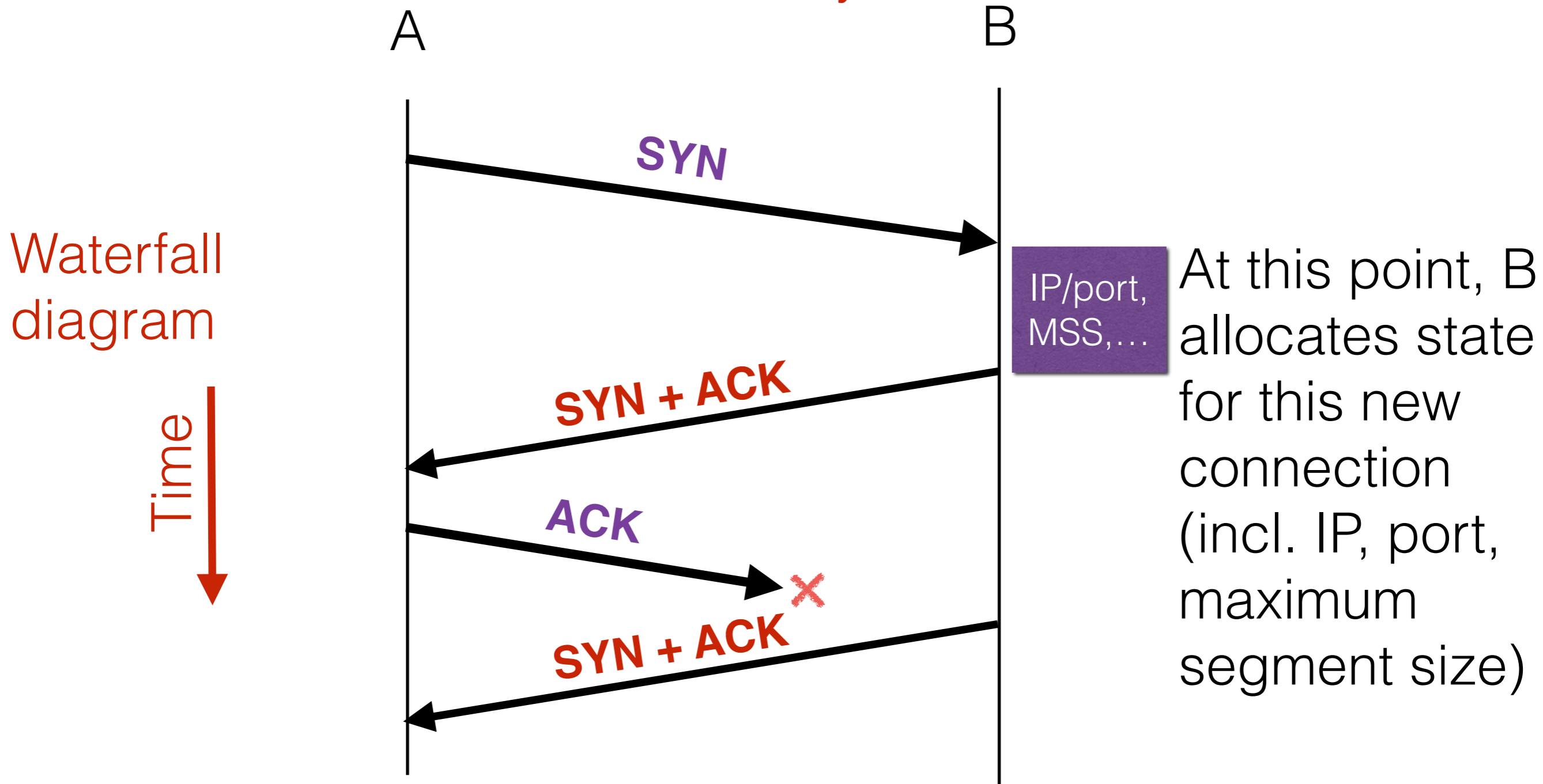
Time

IP/port,
MSS,...

At this point, B allocates state for this new connection (incl. IP, port, maximum segment size)

SYN flooding

Recall the three-way handshake:



B will hold onto this **local state** and retransmit SYN+ACK's until it hears back or times out (up to 63 sec).

SYN flooding

The attack

A

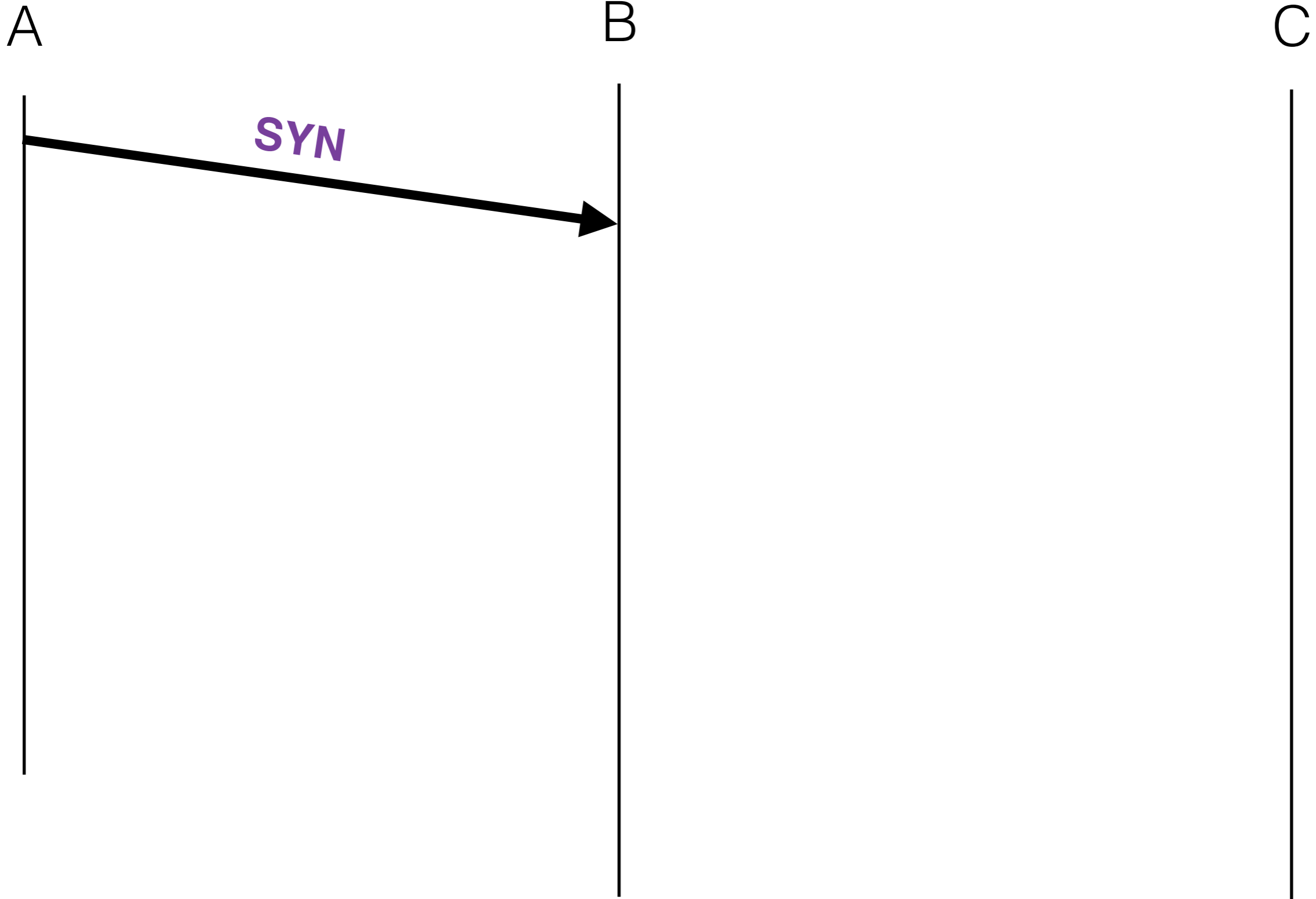
B

C



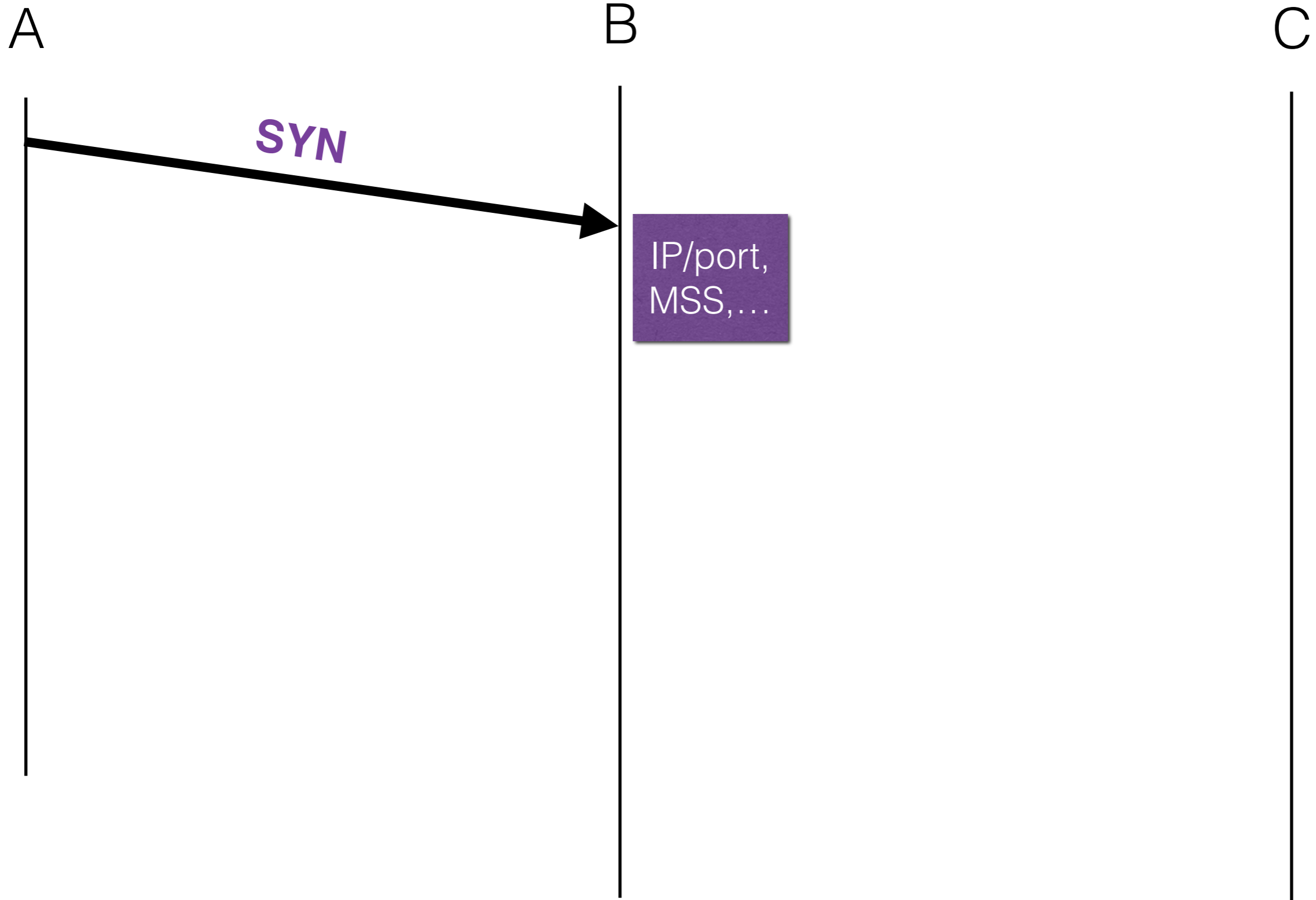
SYN flooding

The attack



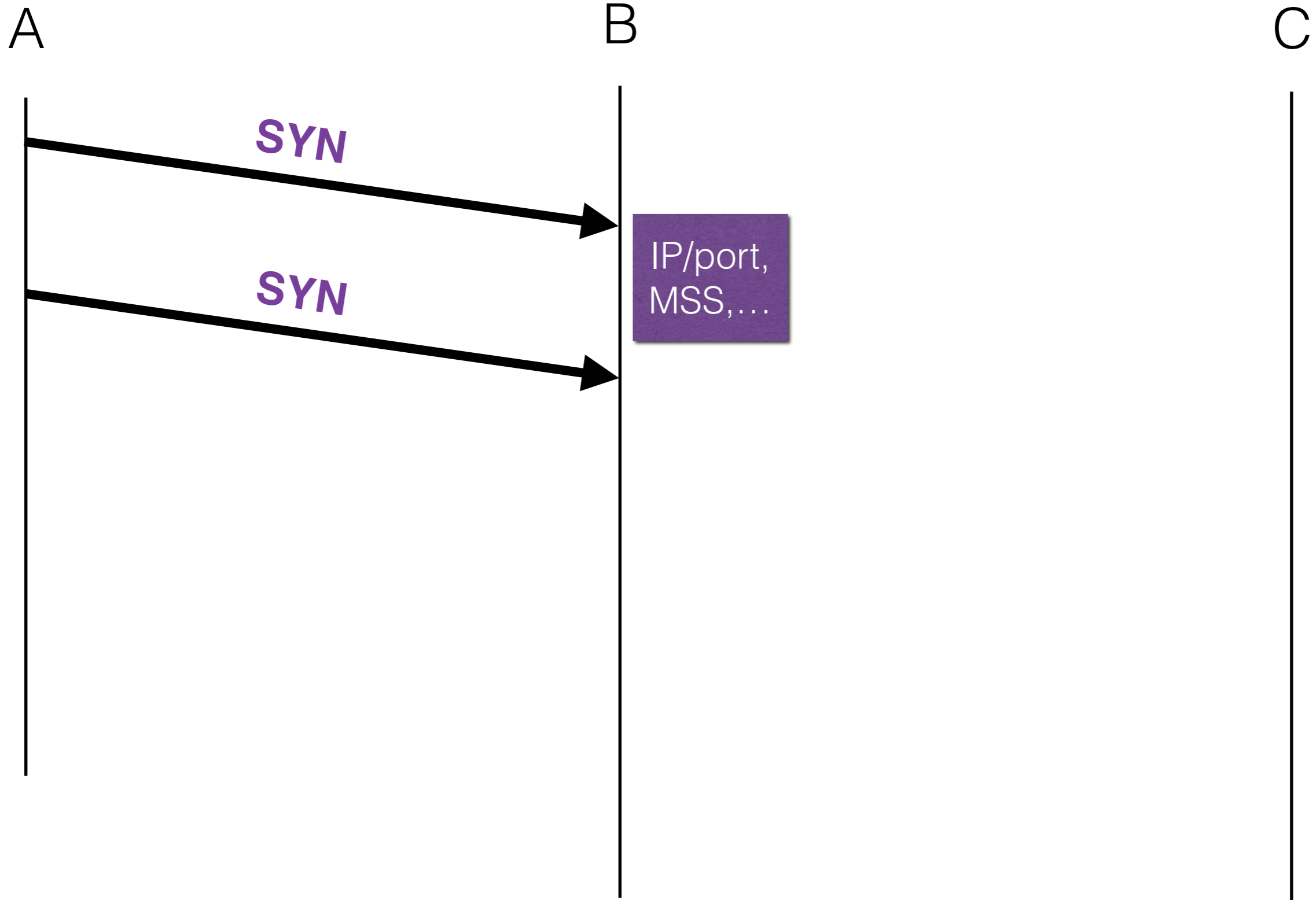
SYN flooding

The attack



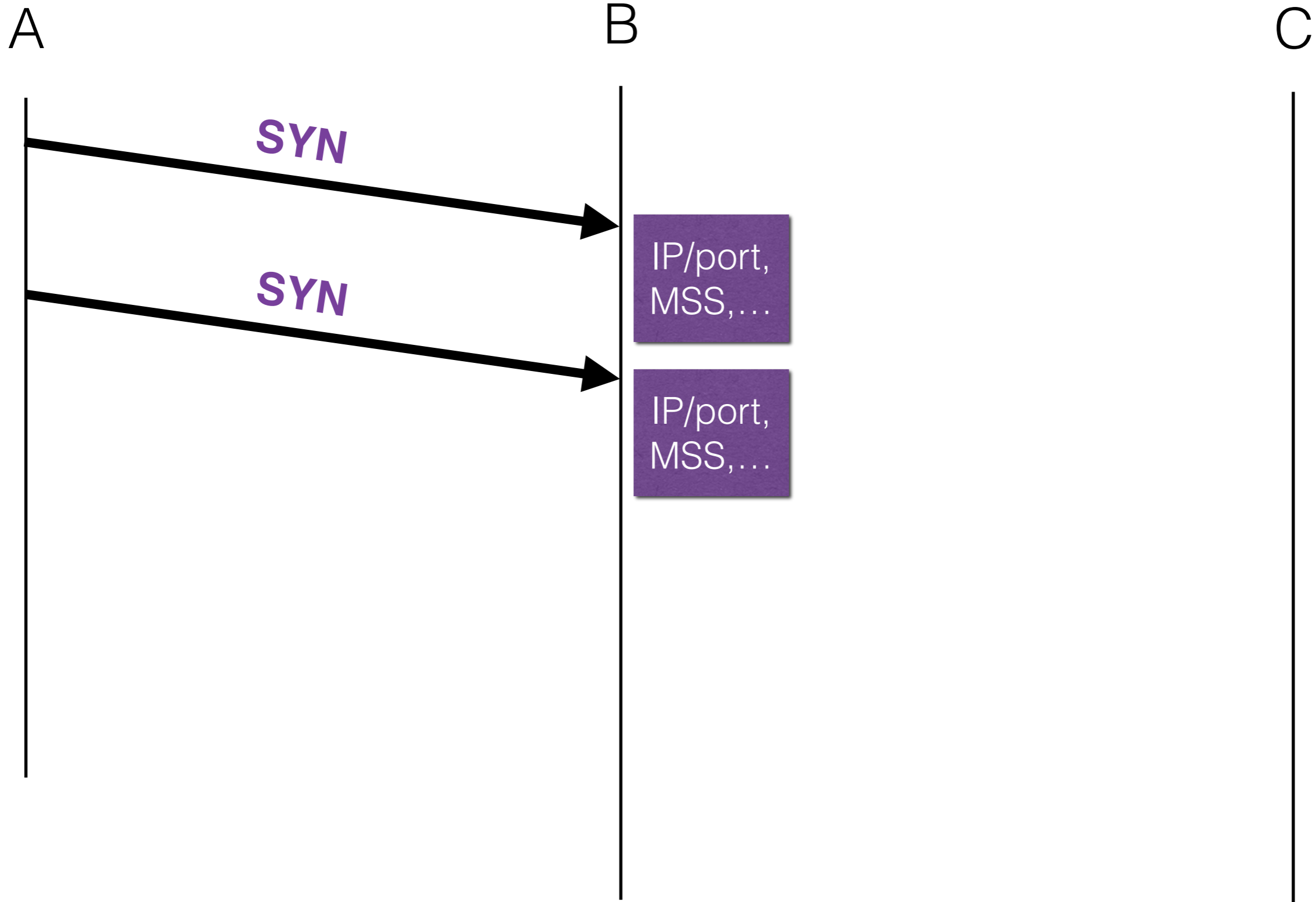
SYN flooding

The attack



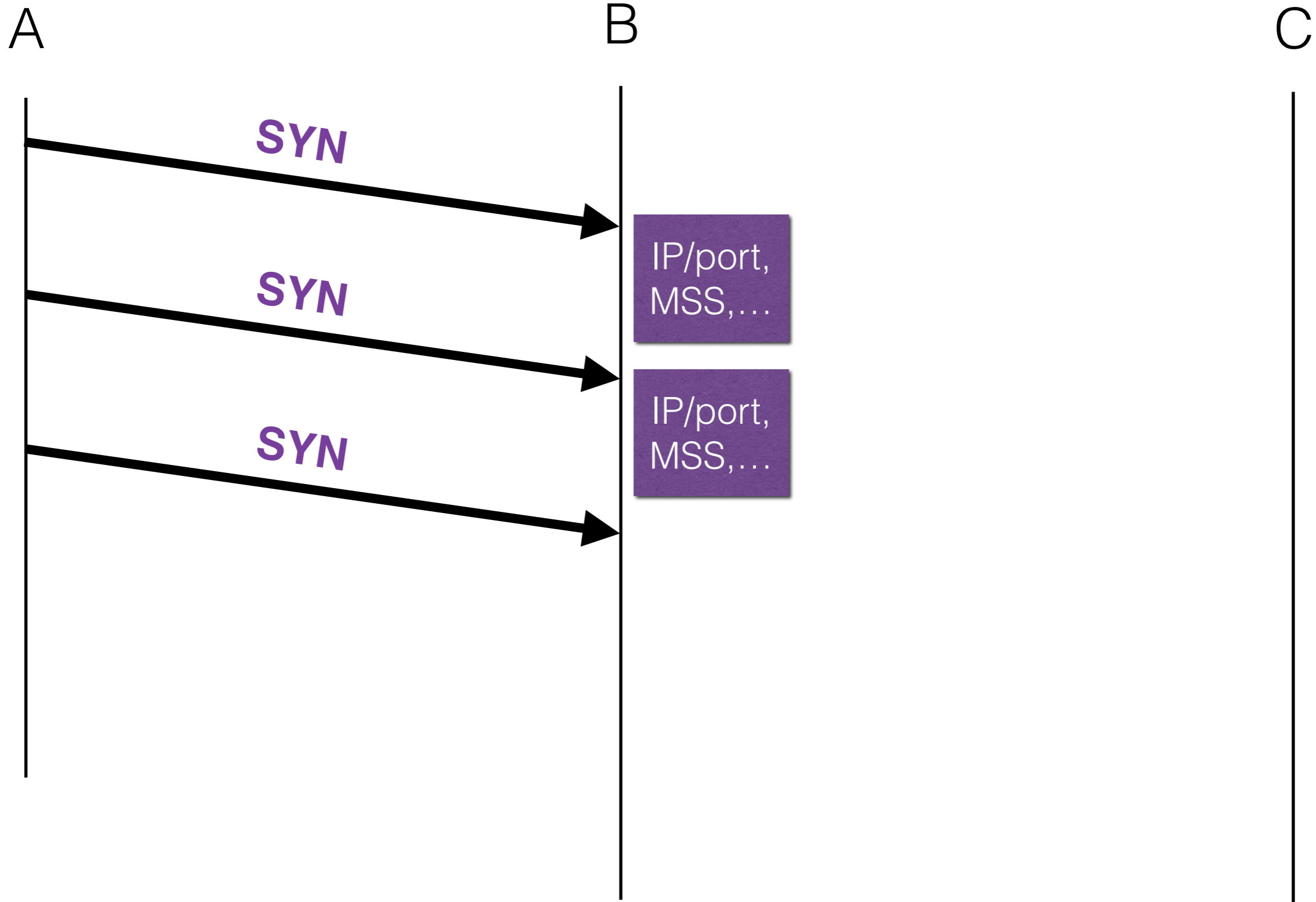
SYN flooding

The attack



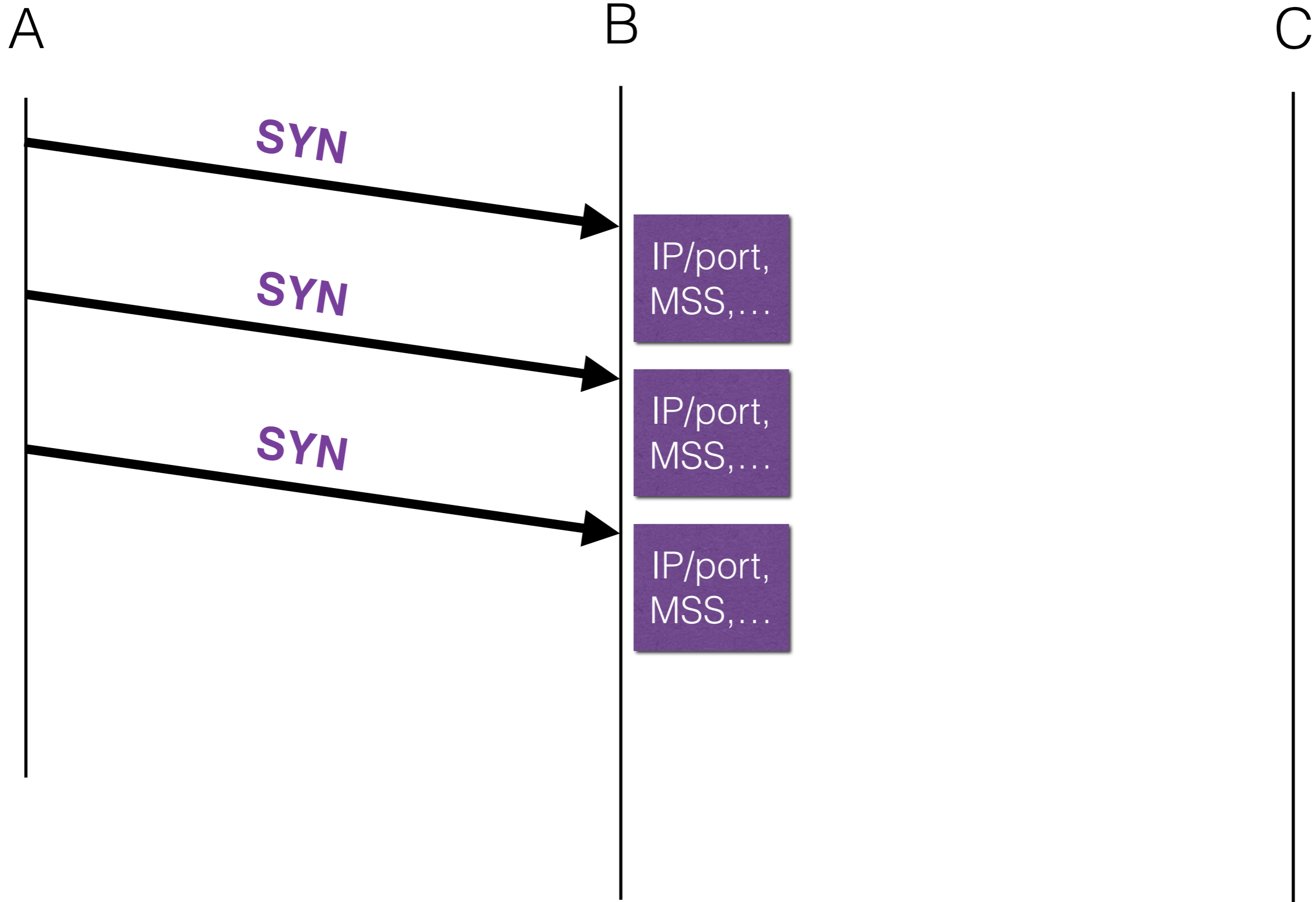
SYN flooding

The attack



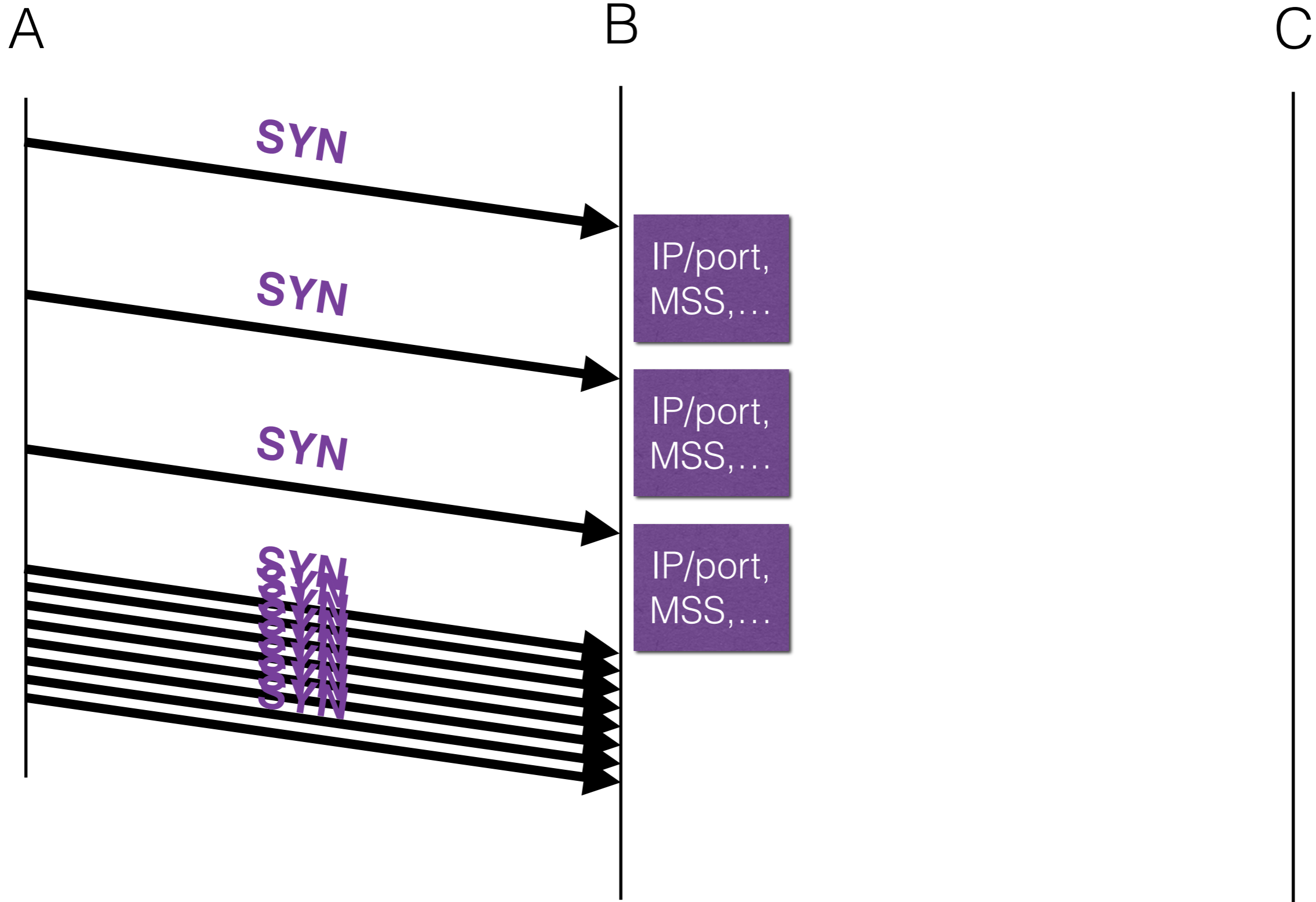
SYN flooding

The attack



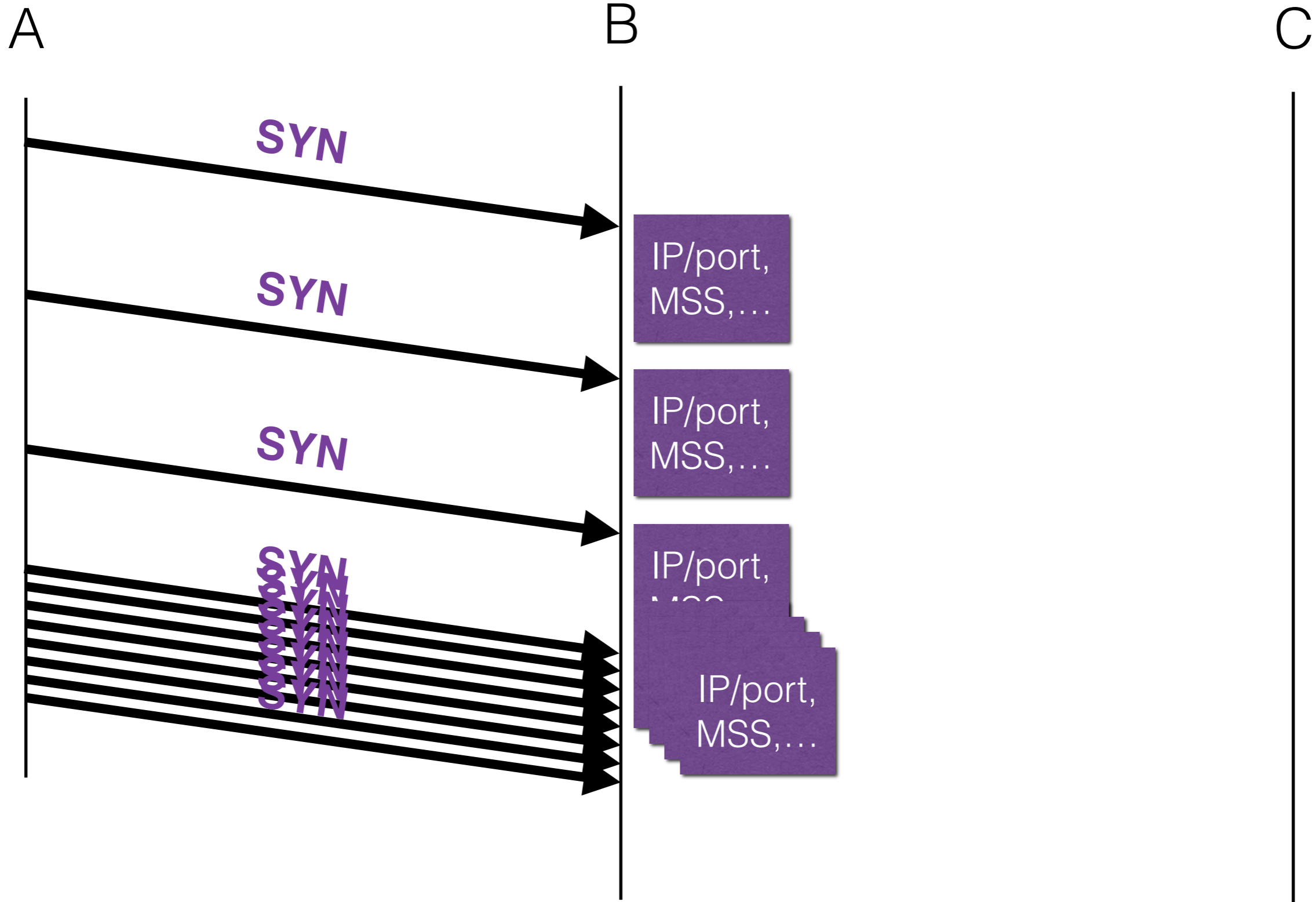
SYN flooding

The attack



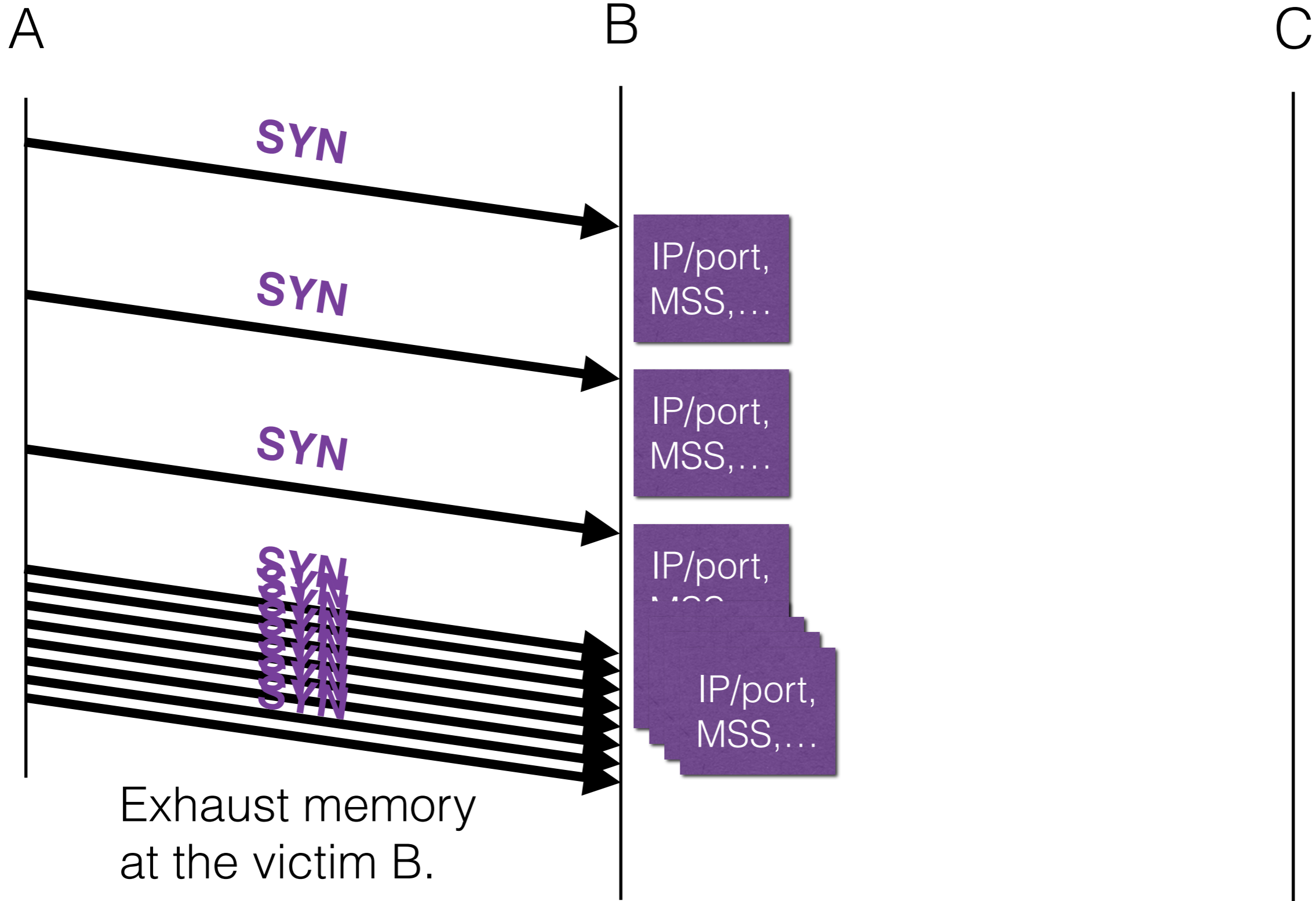
SYN flooding

The attack



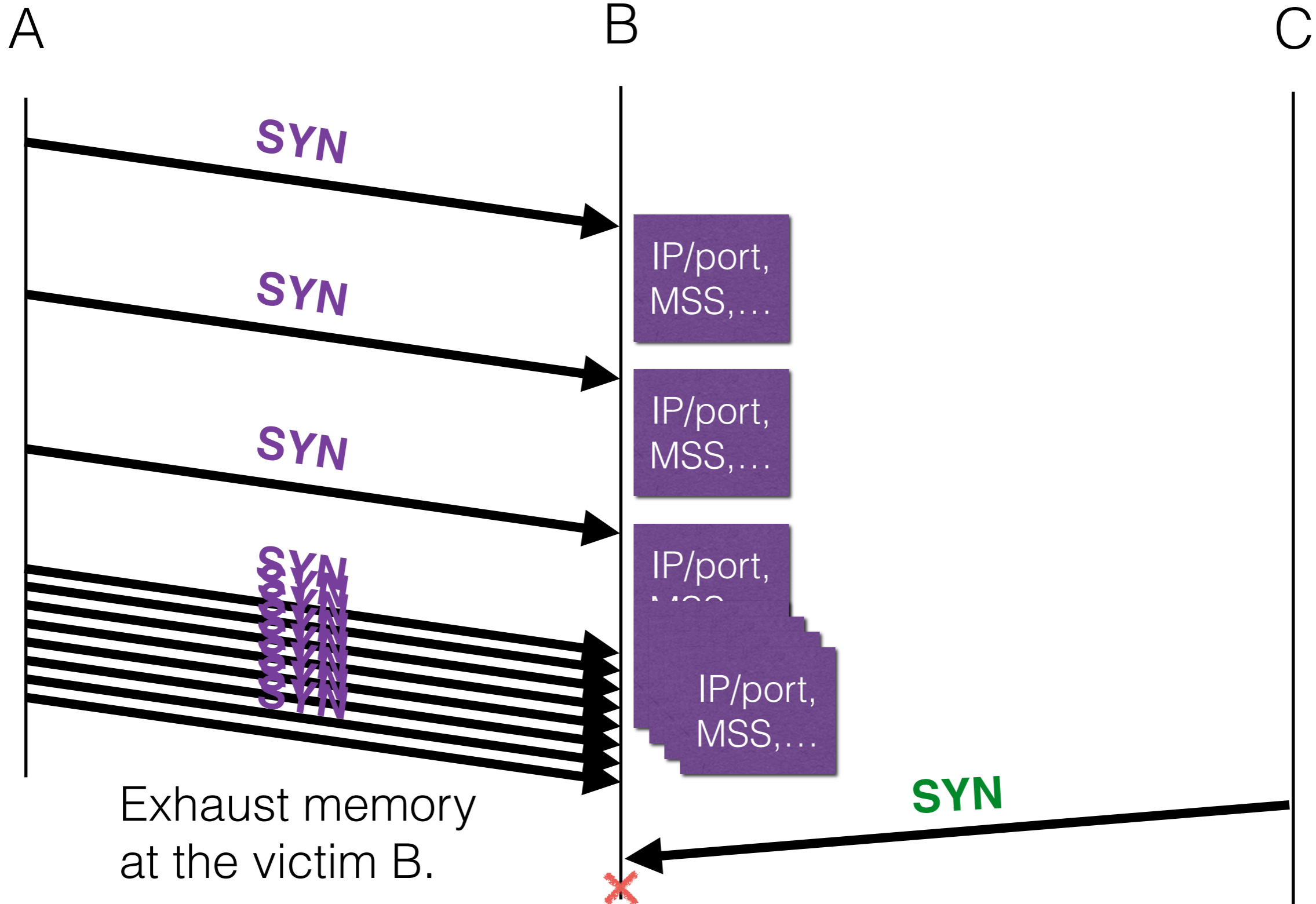
SYN flooding

The attack



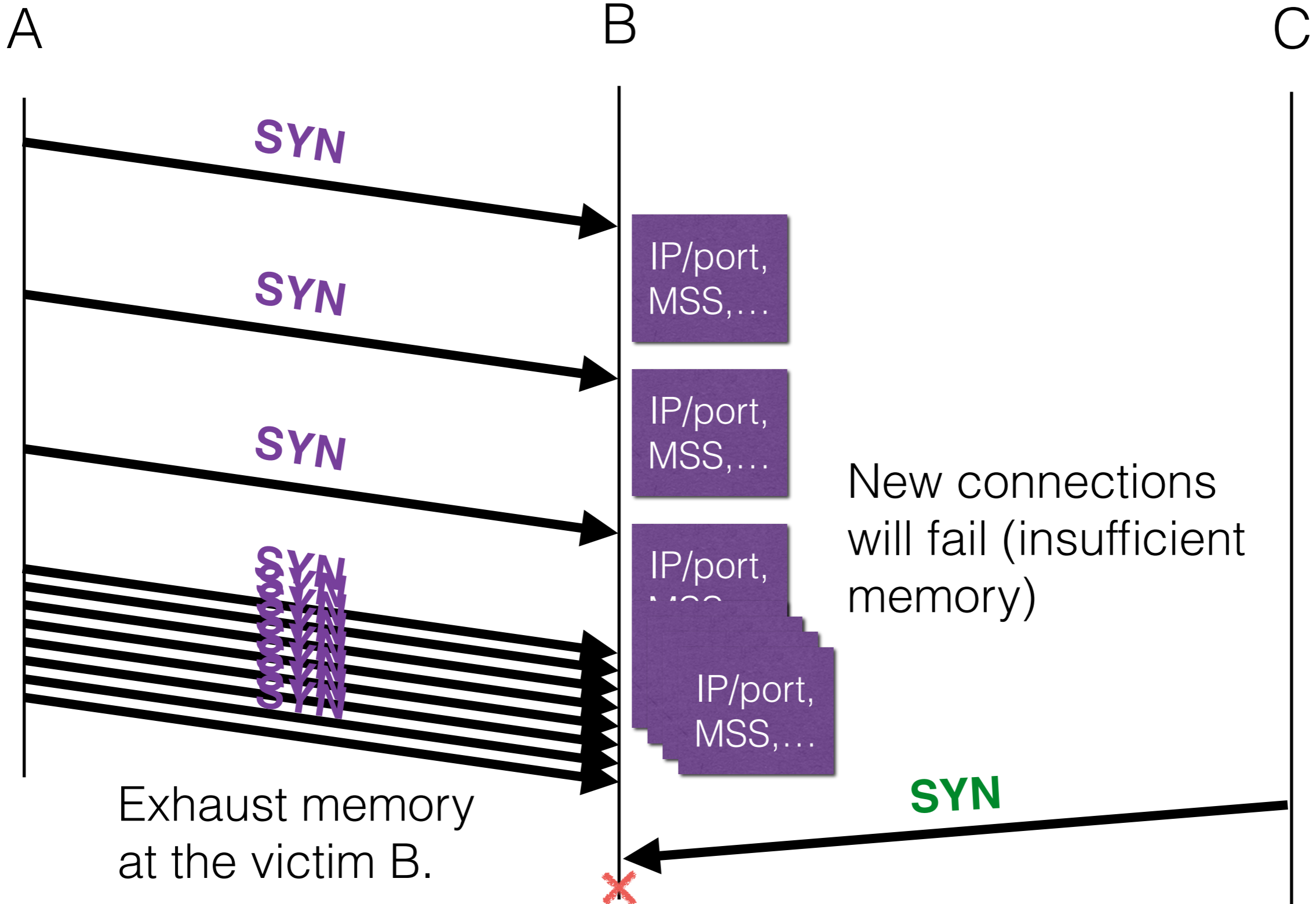
SYN flooding

The attack



SYN flooding

The attack



SYN flooding details

- Easy to detect many incomplete handshakes from a single IP address
- *Spoof* the source IP address
 - It's just a field in a header: set it to whatever you like
- Problem: the host who really owns that spoofed IP address may respond to the SYN+ACK with a RST, deleting the local state at the victim
- Ideally, spoof an IP address of a host you know won't respond

SYN cookies

The defense

A



B

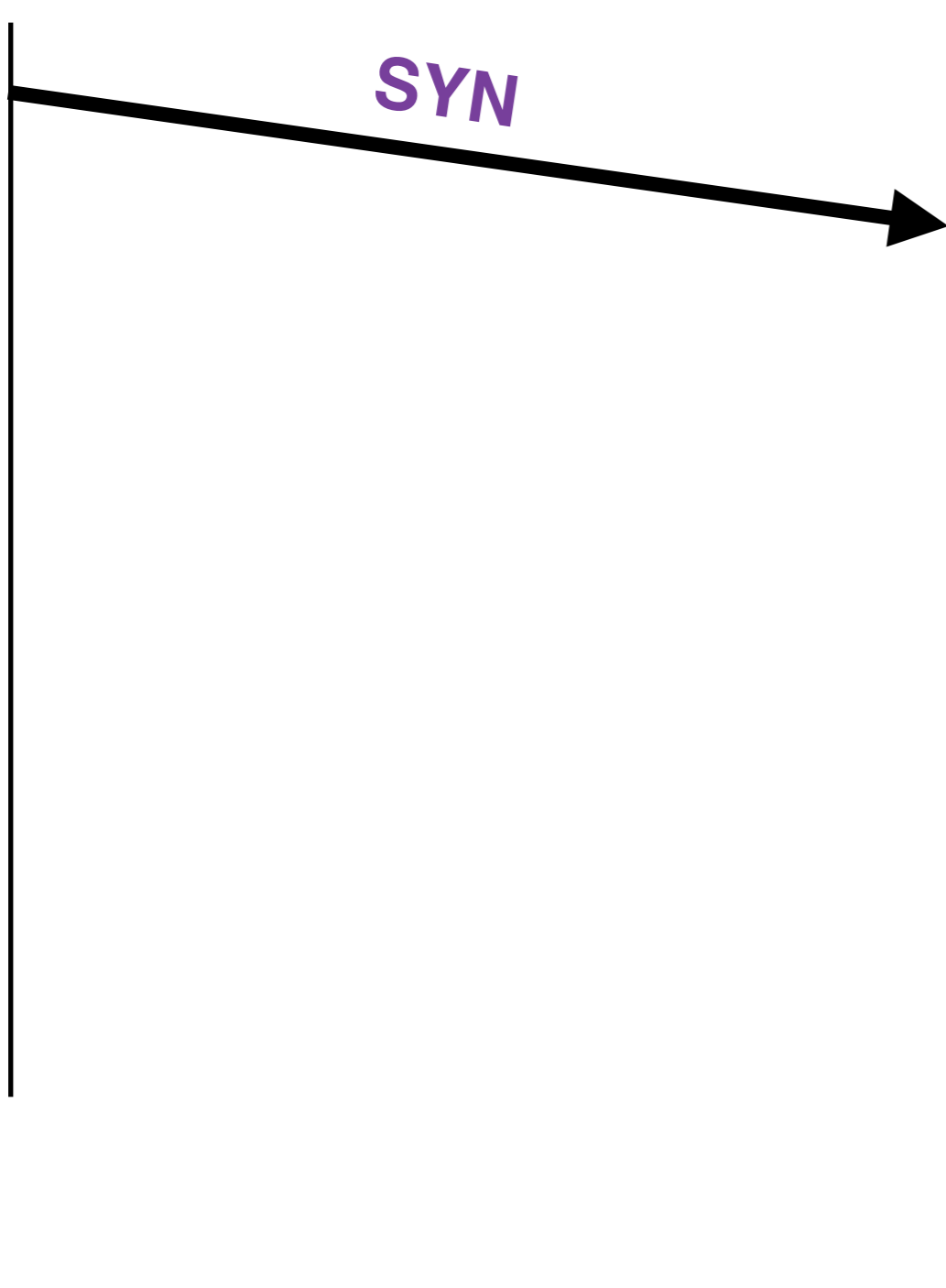


SYN cookies

The defense

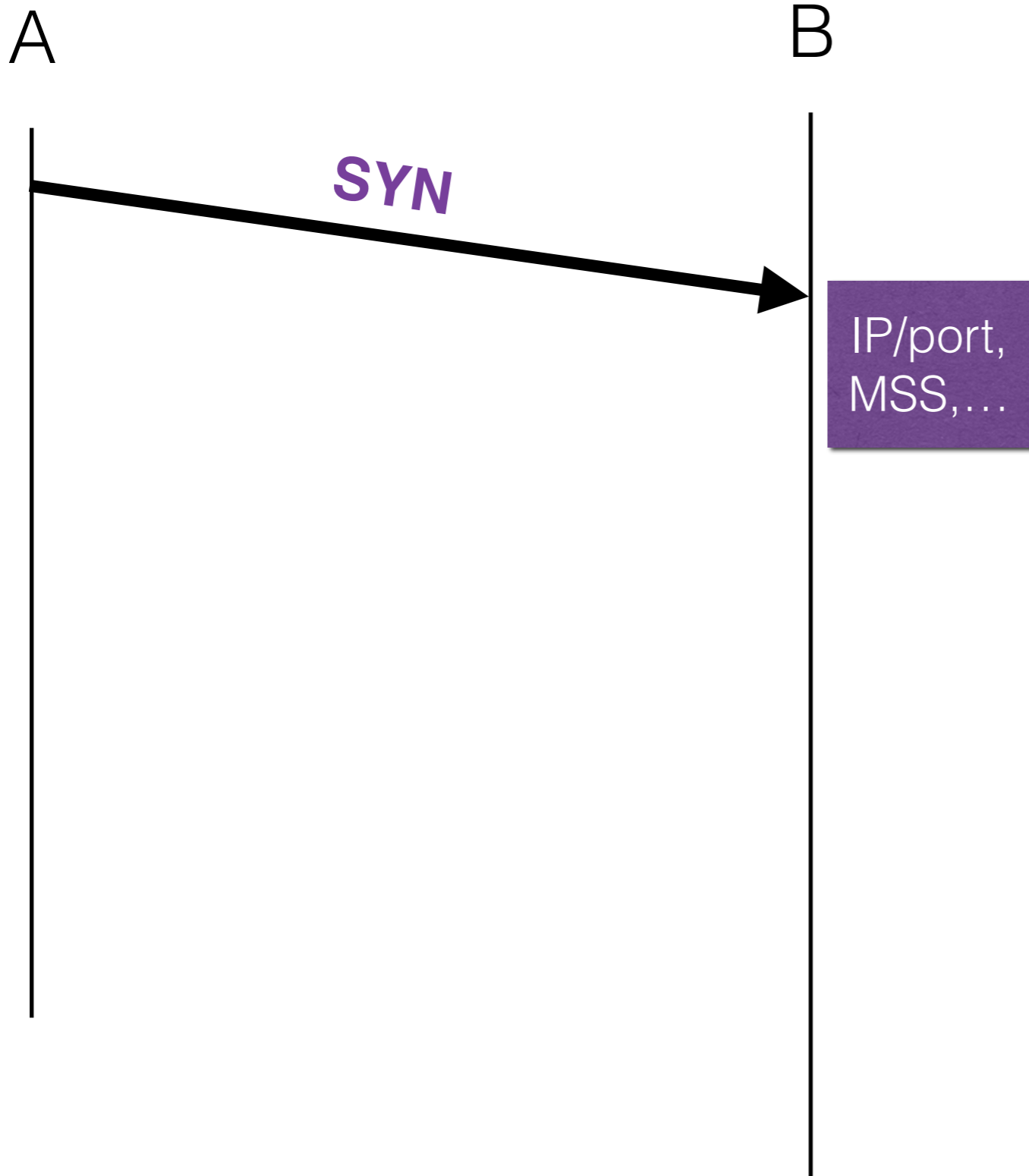
A

B



SYN cookies

The defense



SYN cookies

The defense

A

B

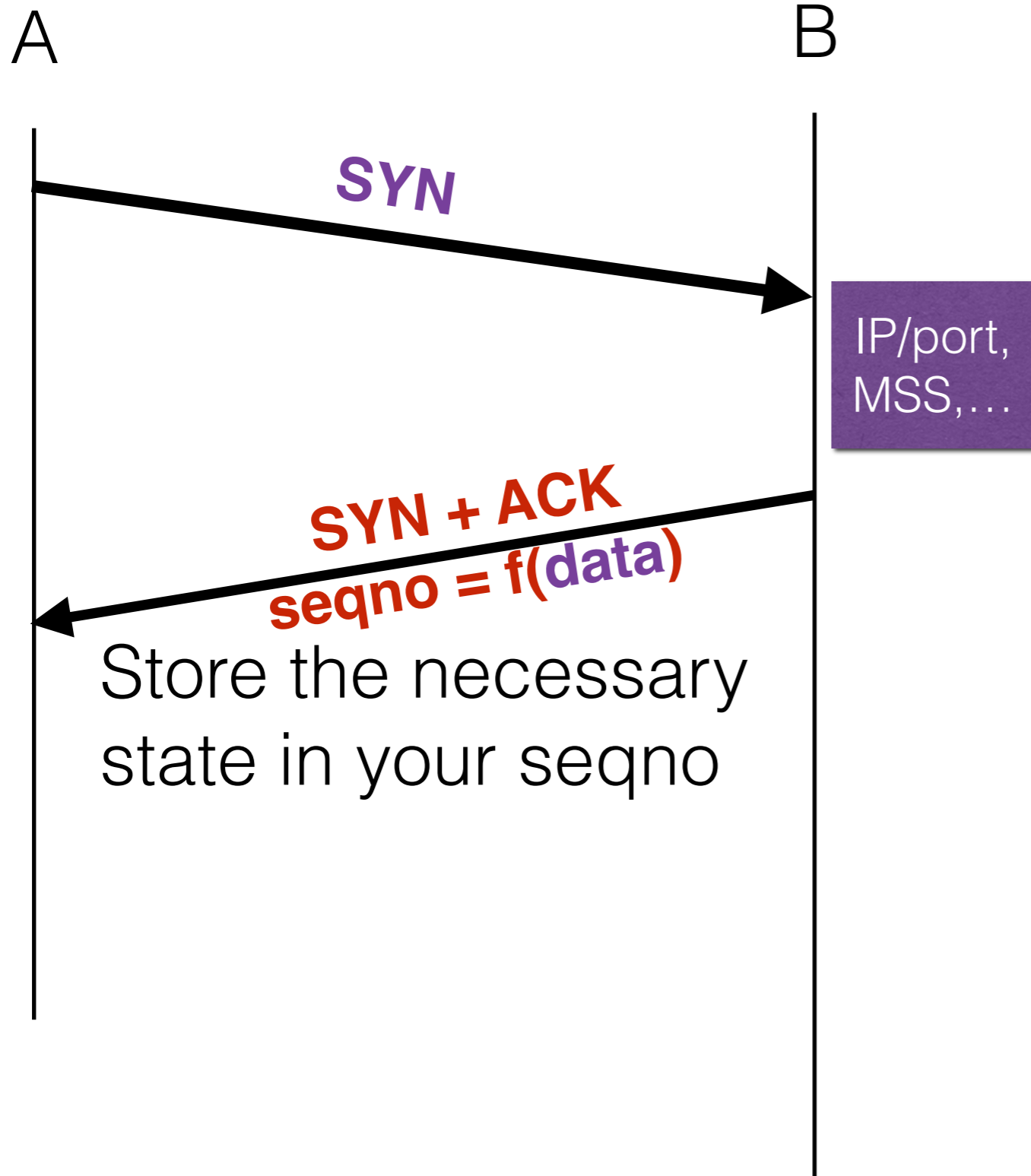
SYN

IP/port,
MSS,...

Rather than store this **data**,
send it to the host who
is initiating the
connection and have
him return it to you

SYN cookies

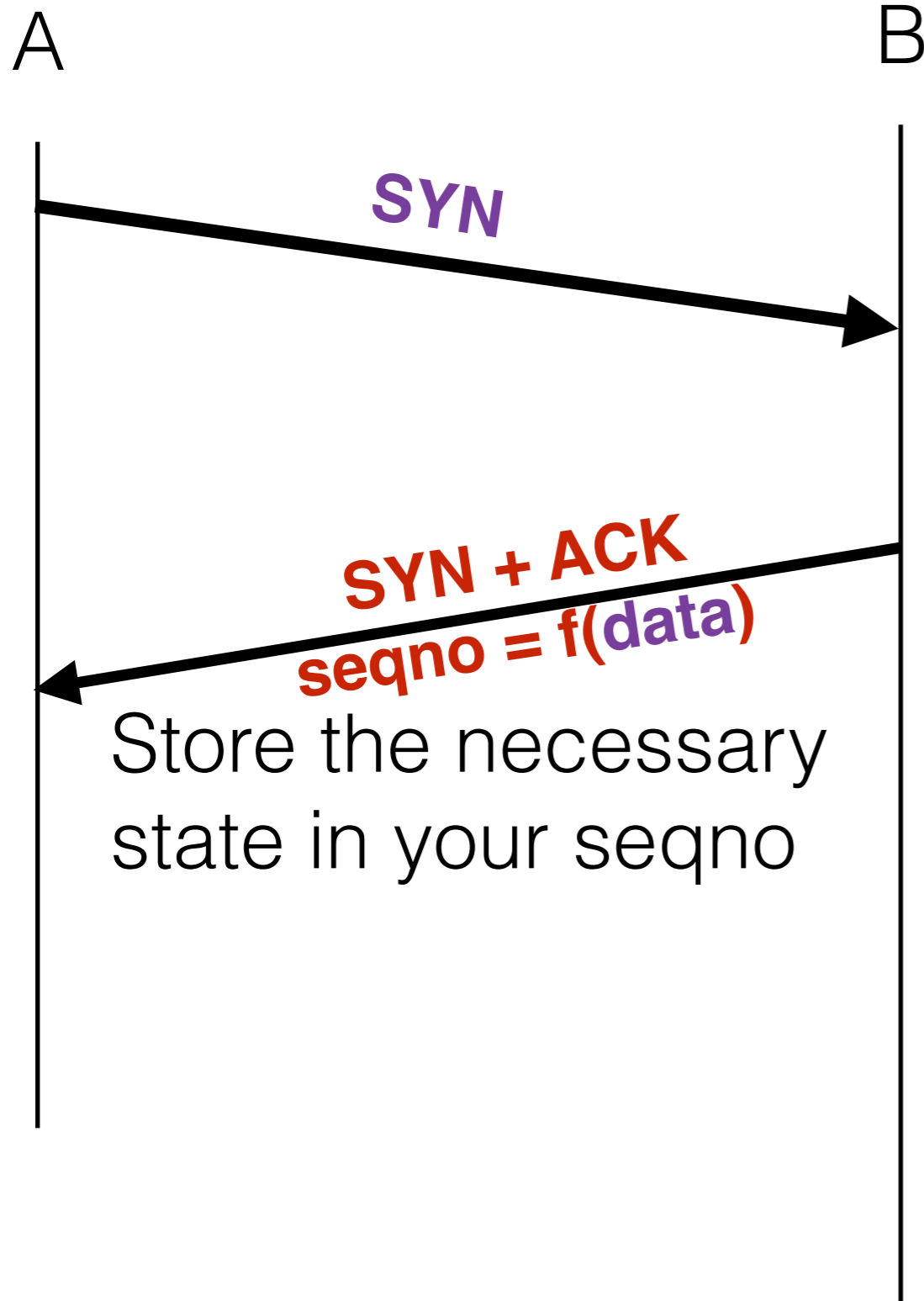
The defense



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SYN cookies

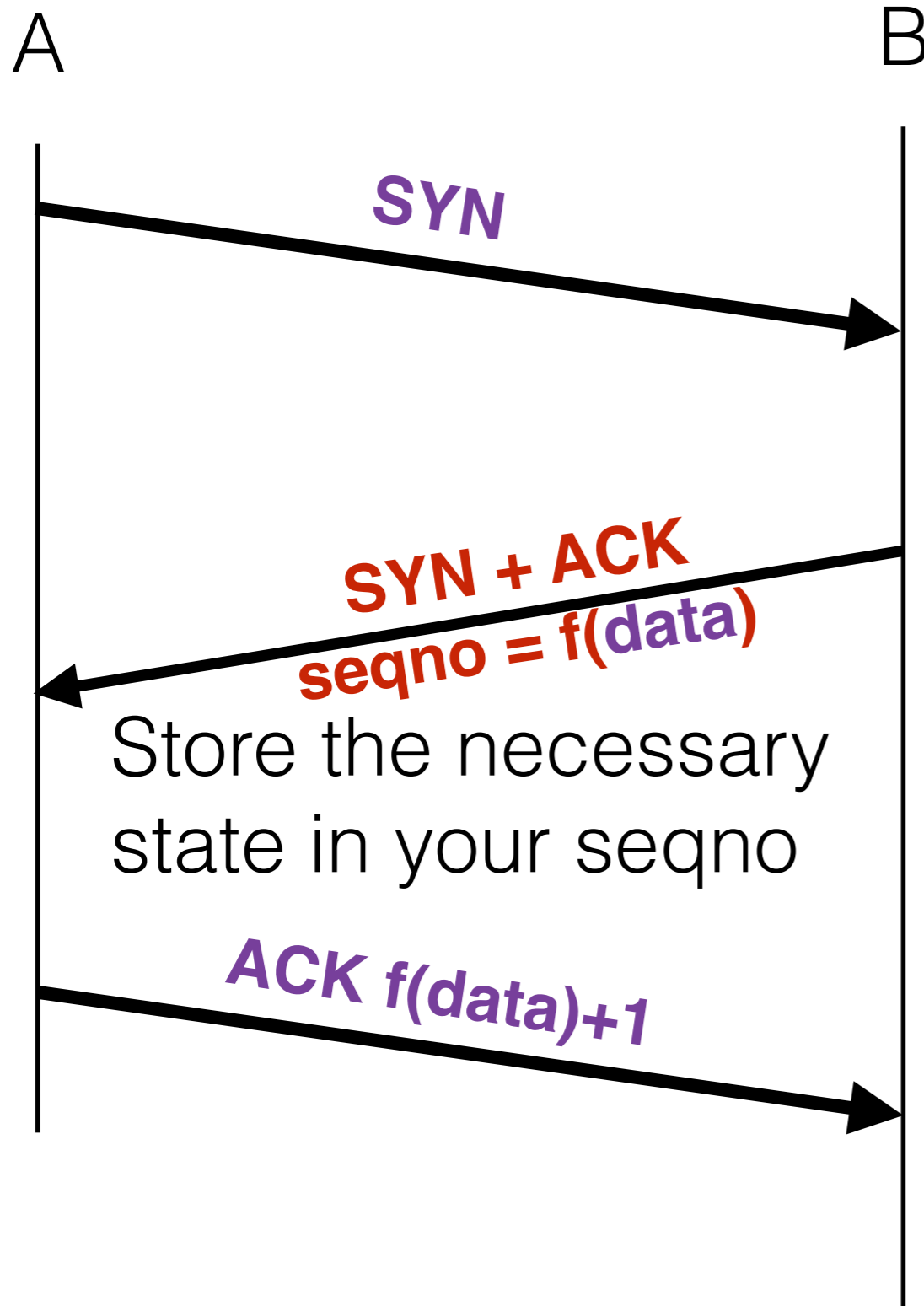
The defense



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SYN cookies

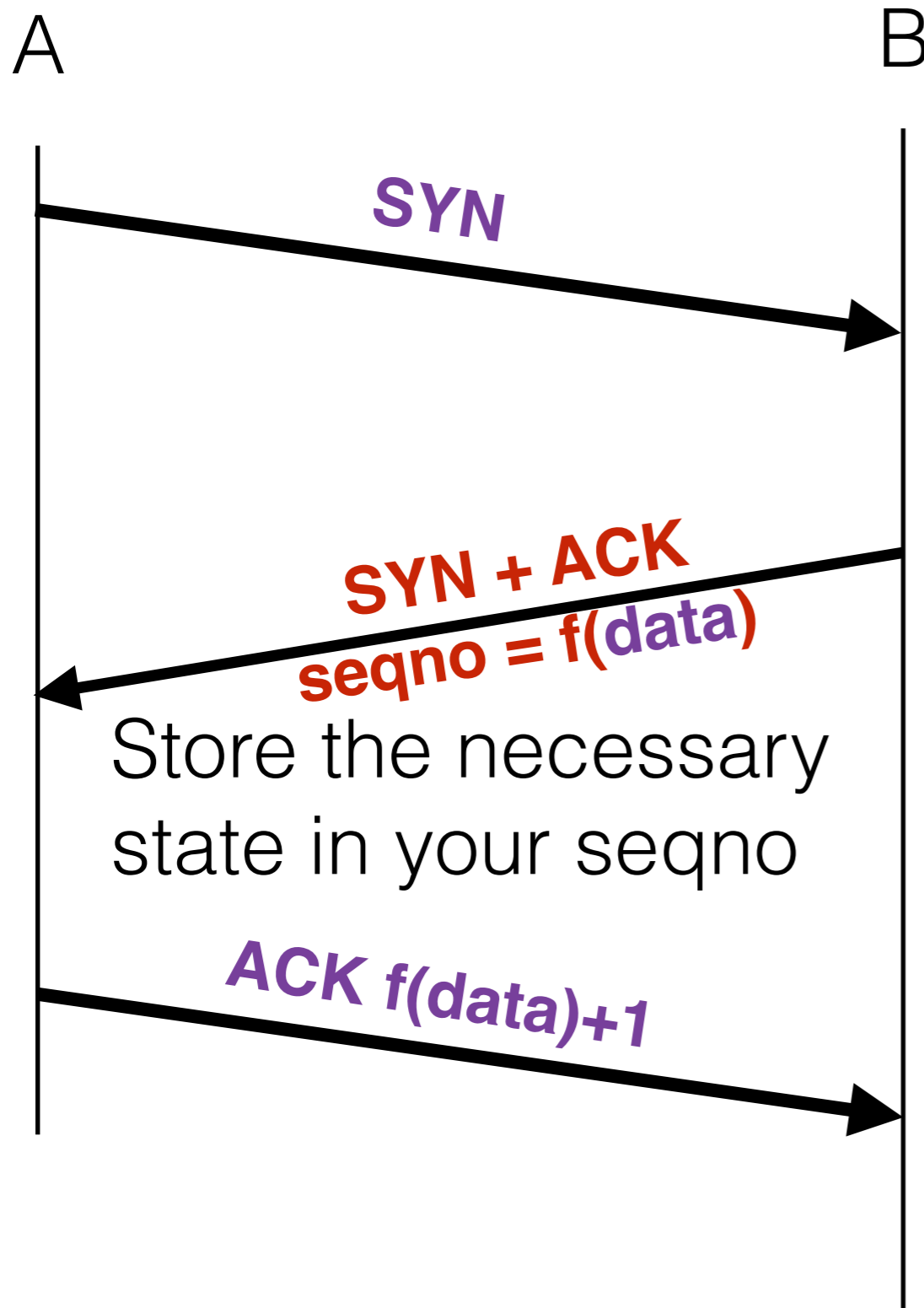
The defense



Rather than store this **data**, send it to the host who is initiating the connection and have him return it to you

SYN cookies

The defense

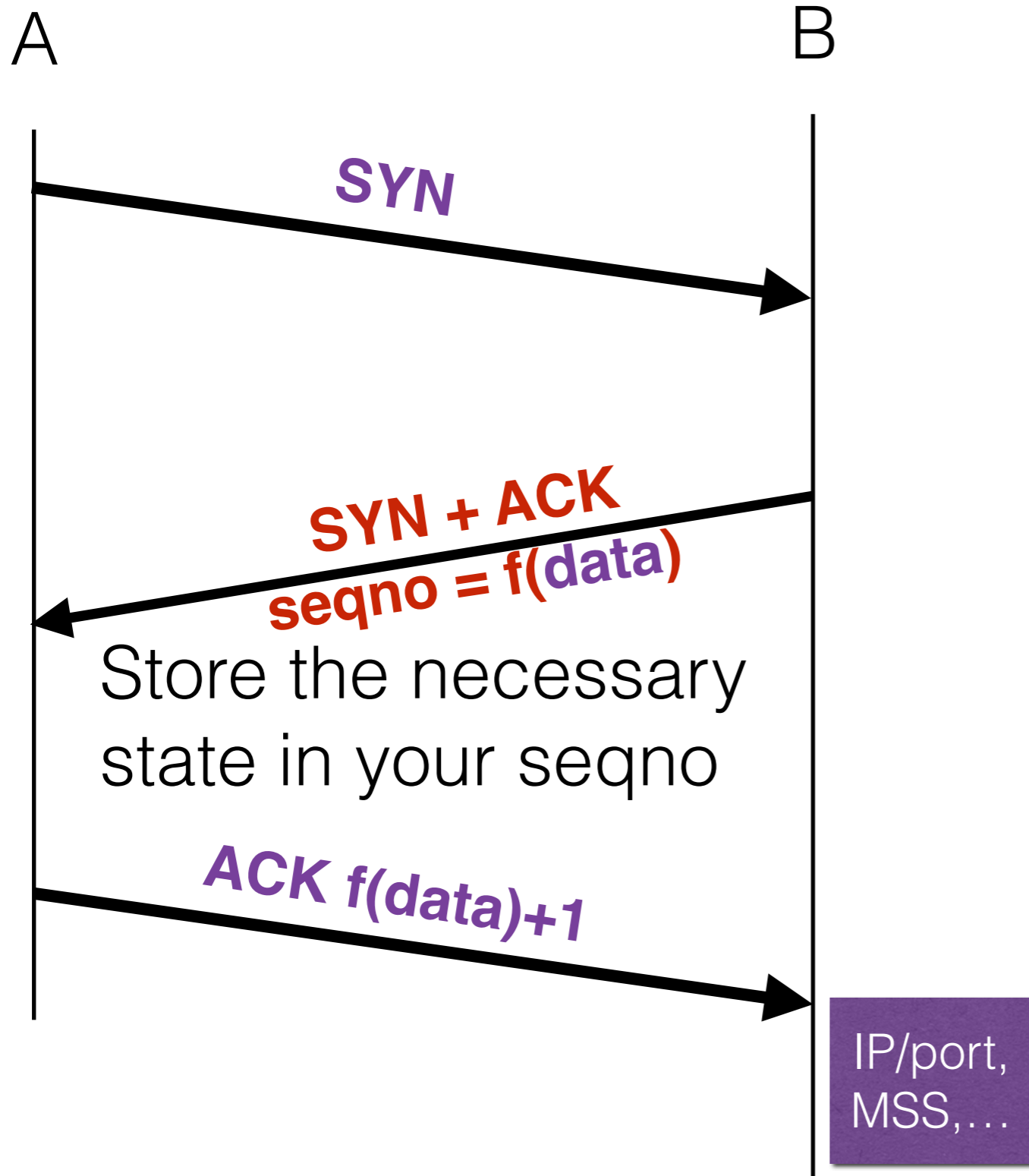


Rather than store this **data**, send it to the host who is initiating the connection and have him return it to you

Check that $f(\text{data})$ is valid for this connection. Only at that point do you allocate state.

SYN cookies

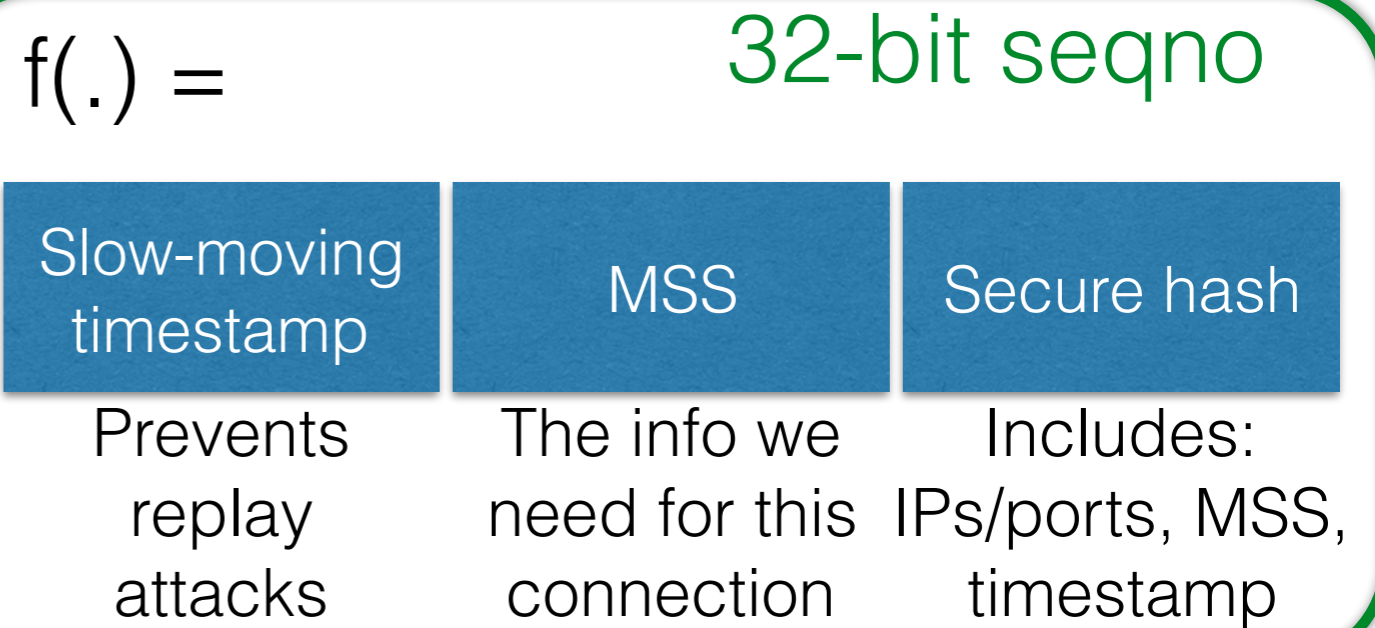
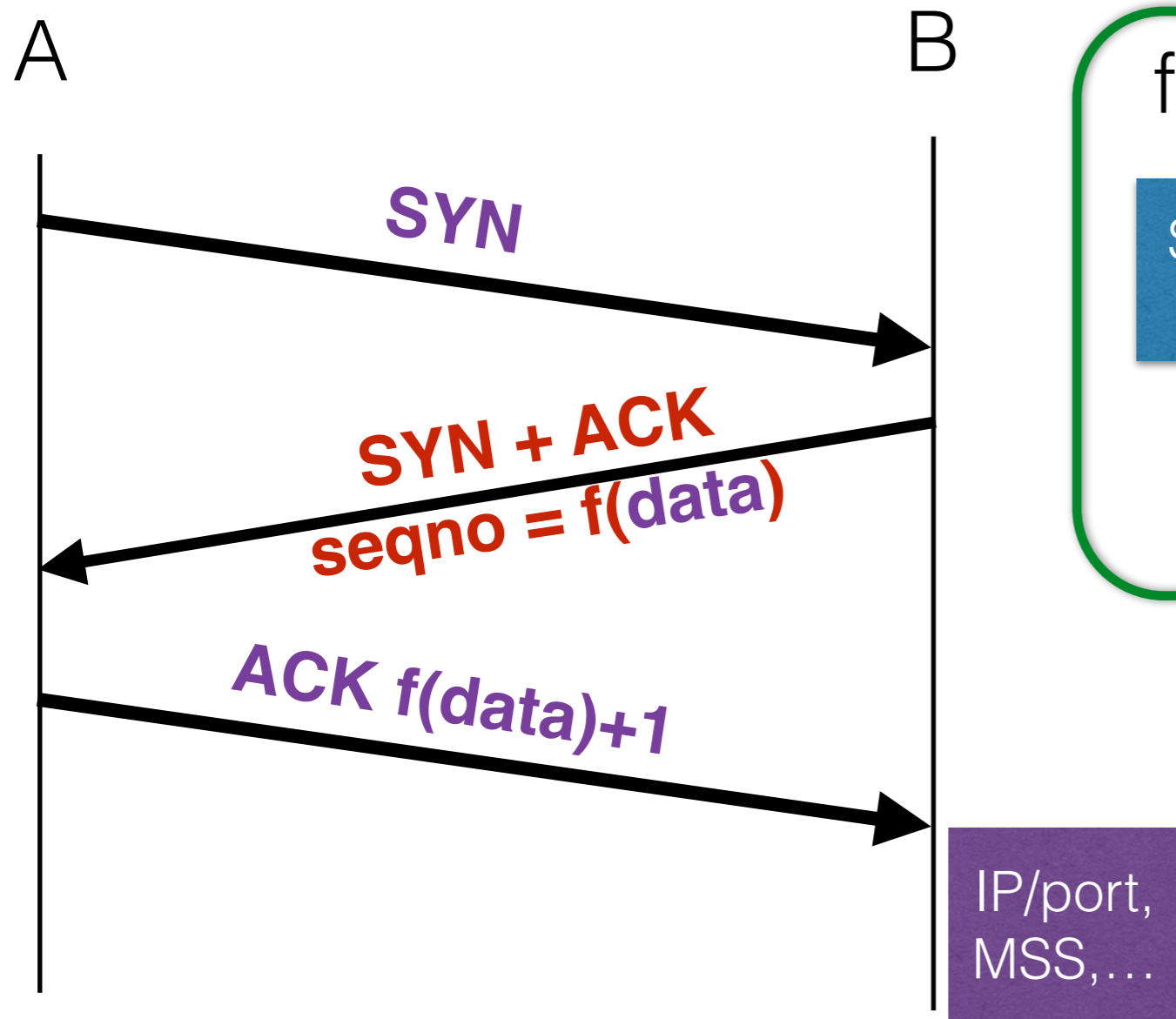
The defense



Rather than store this **data**, send it to the host who is initiating the connection and have him return it to you

Check that $f(\text{data})$ is valid for this connection. Only at that point do you allocate state.

SYN cookie format



The secure hash makes it difficult for the attacker to guess what $f()$ will be, and therefore the attacker cannot guess a correct ACK if he spoofs.

Injection attacks

- Suppose you are on the path between src and dst; what can you do?
 - Trivial to inject packets with the correct sequence number
- What if you are not on the path?
 - Need to guess the sequence number
 - Is this difficult to do?

Initial sequence numbers

- Initial sequence numbers used to be deterministic
- What havoc can we wreak?
 - Send RSTs
 - Inject data packets into an existing connection (TCP veto attacks)
 - *Initiate and use an entire connection without ever hearing the other end*

Mitnick attack

X-terminal
server

Server that X-
term trusts

Any connection initiated
from this IP address is
allowed access to the
X-terminal server

Attacker

Mitnick attack

X-terminal
server

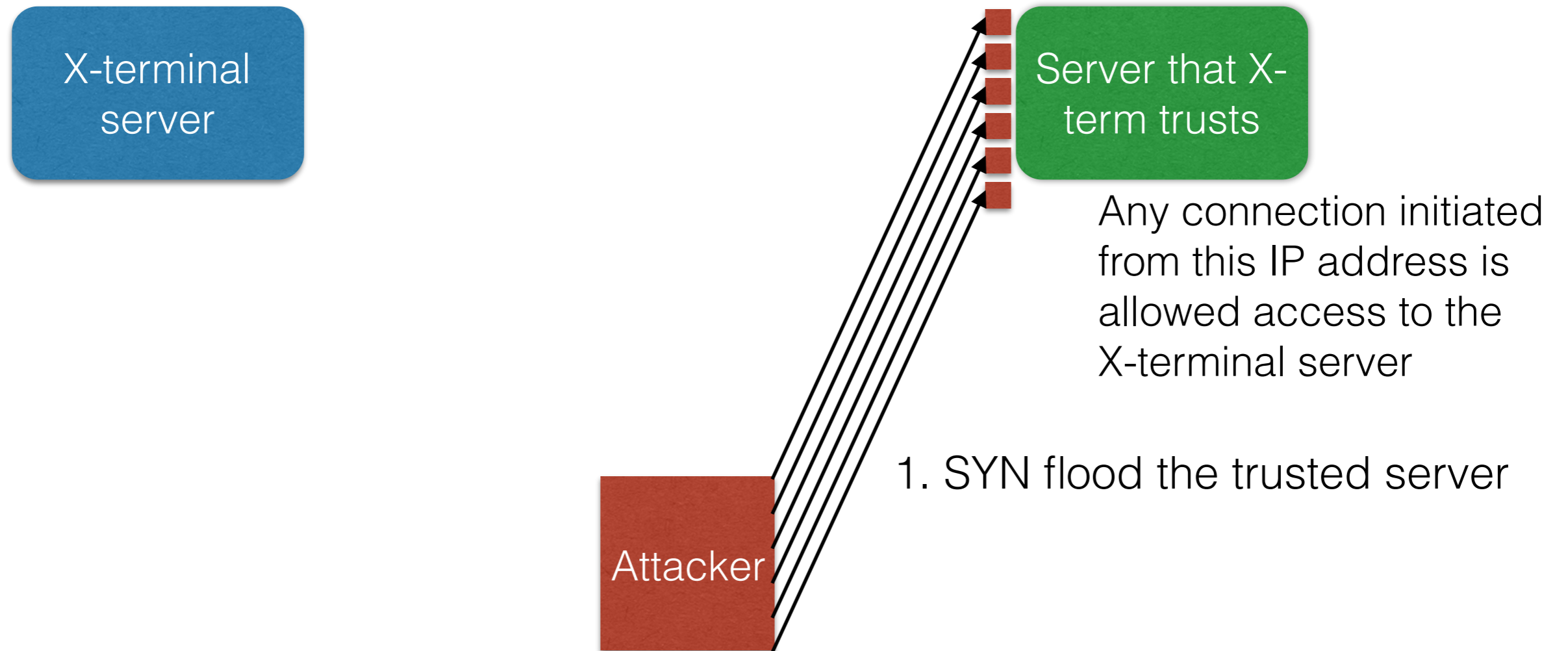
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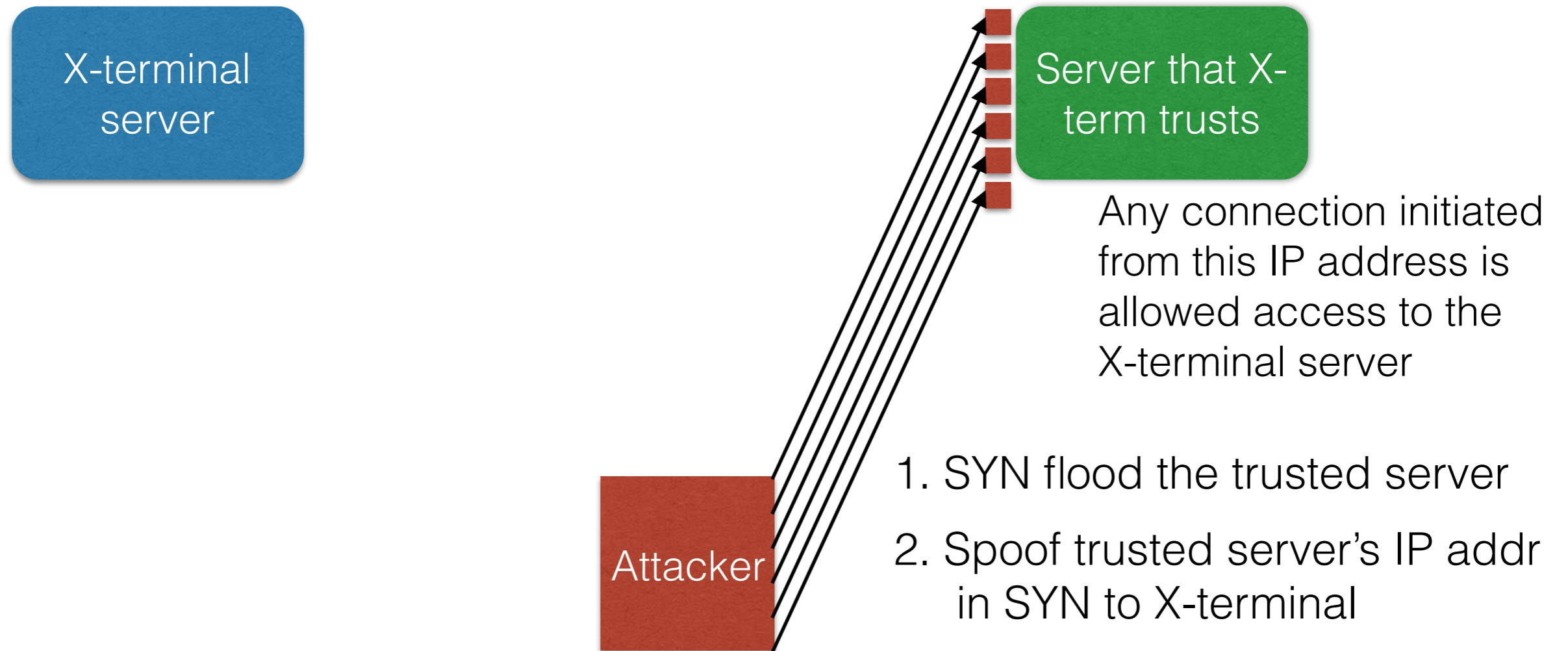
Attacker

1. SYN flood the trusted server

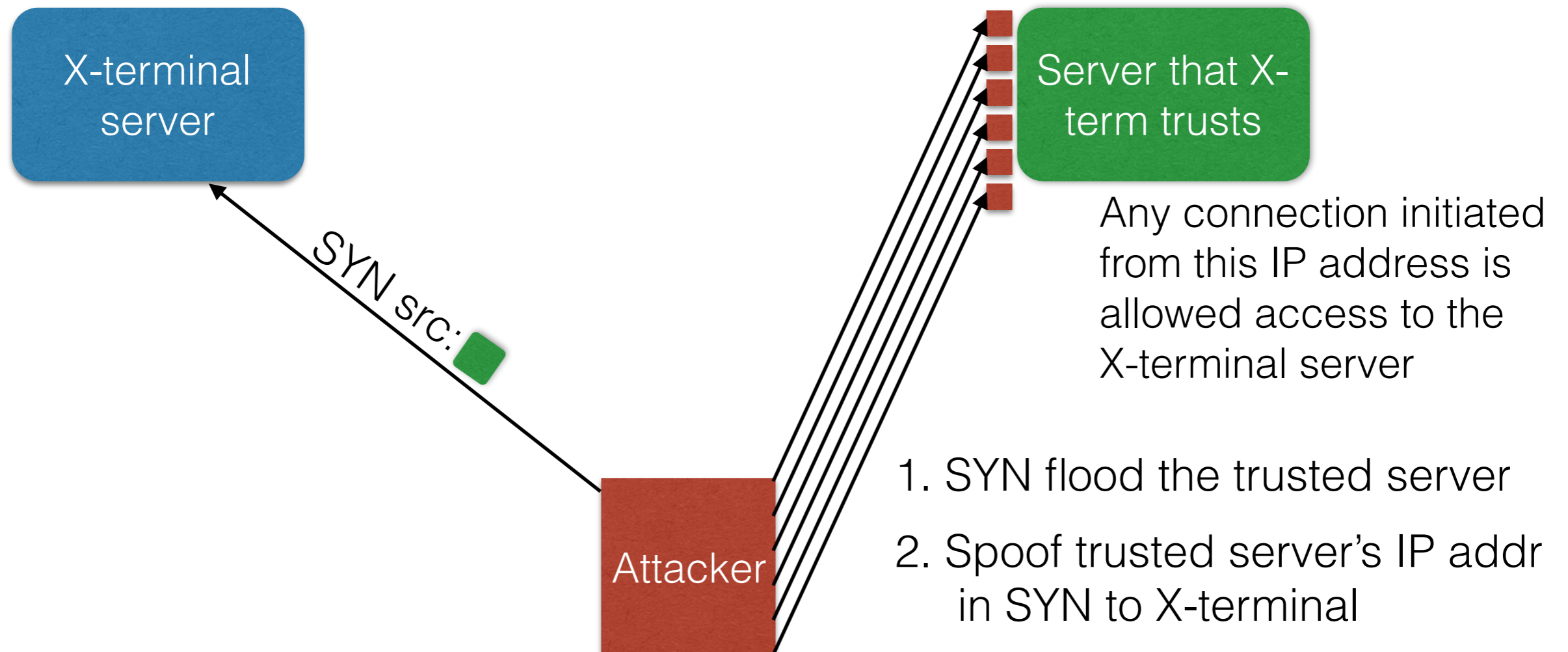
Mitnick attack



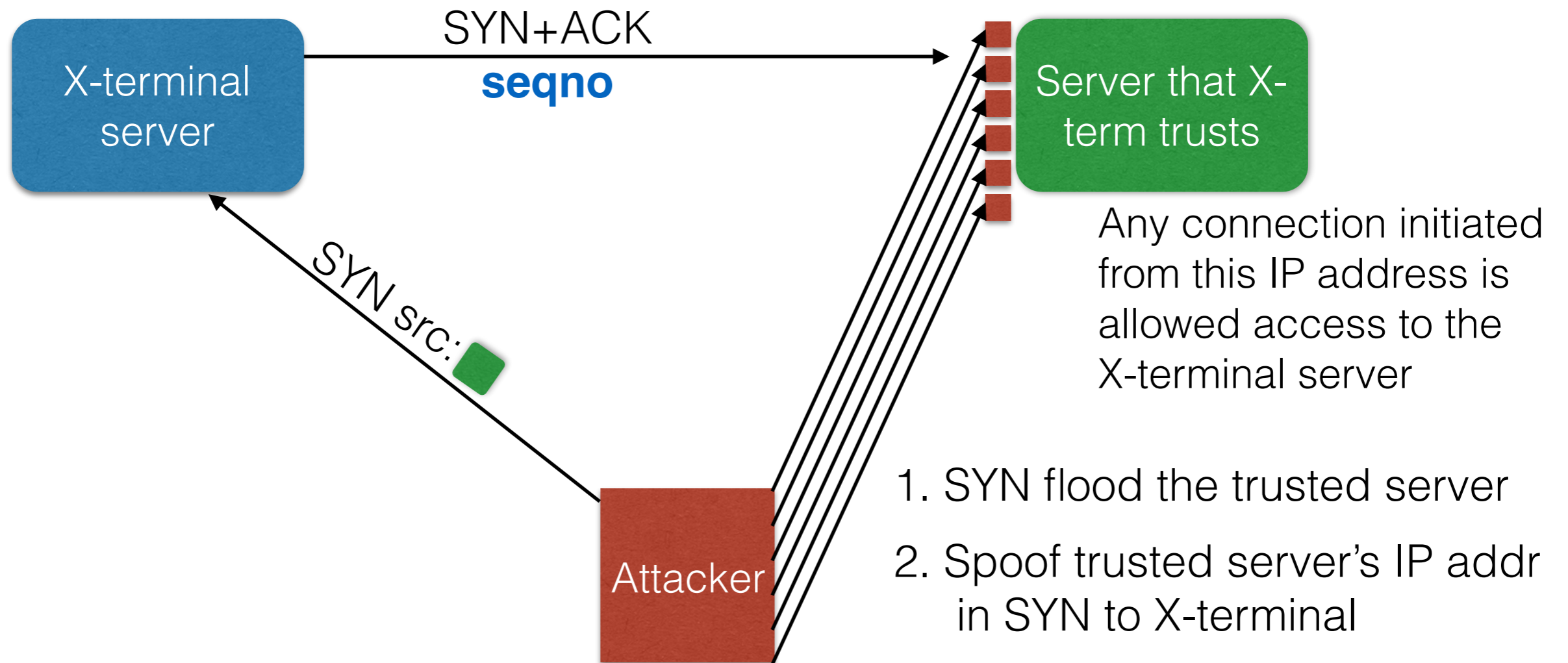
Mitnick attack



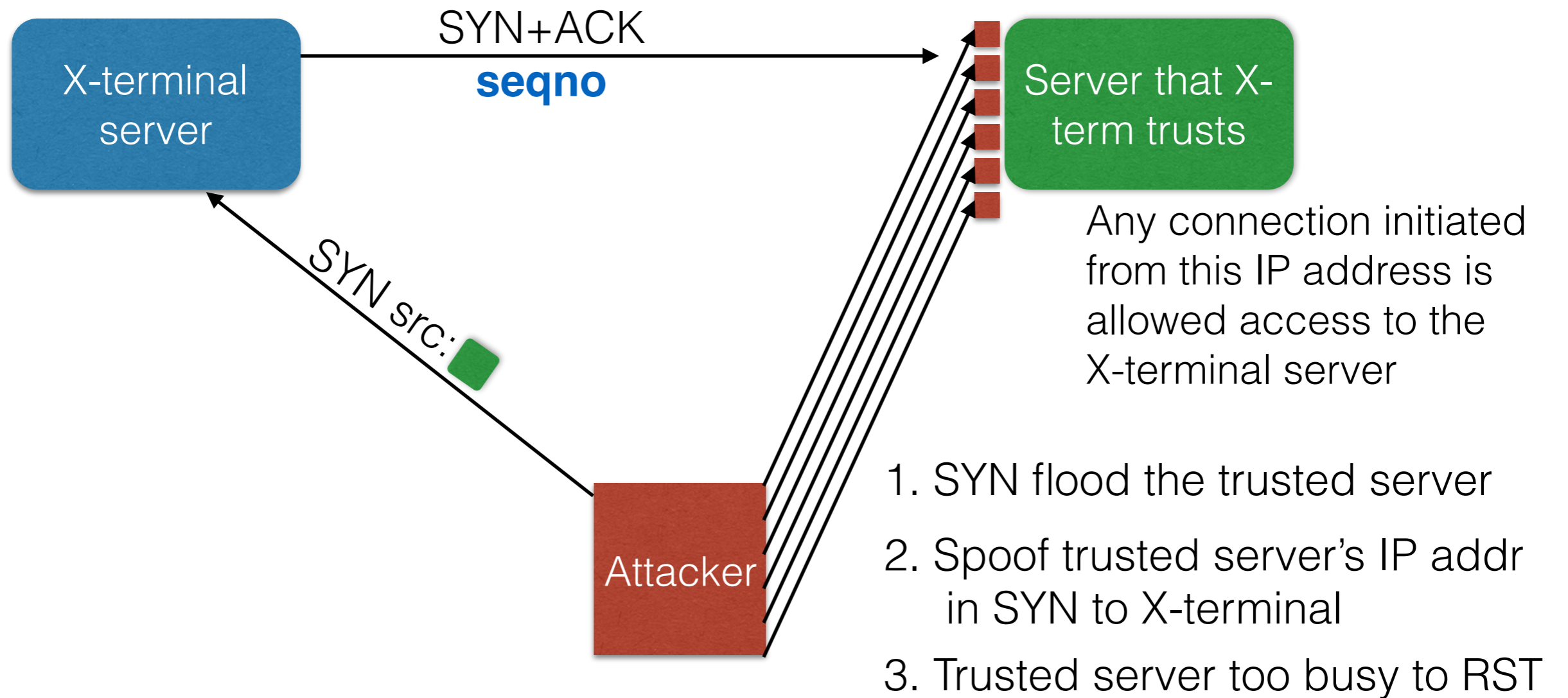
Mitnick attack



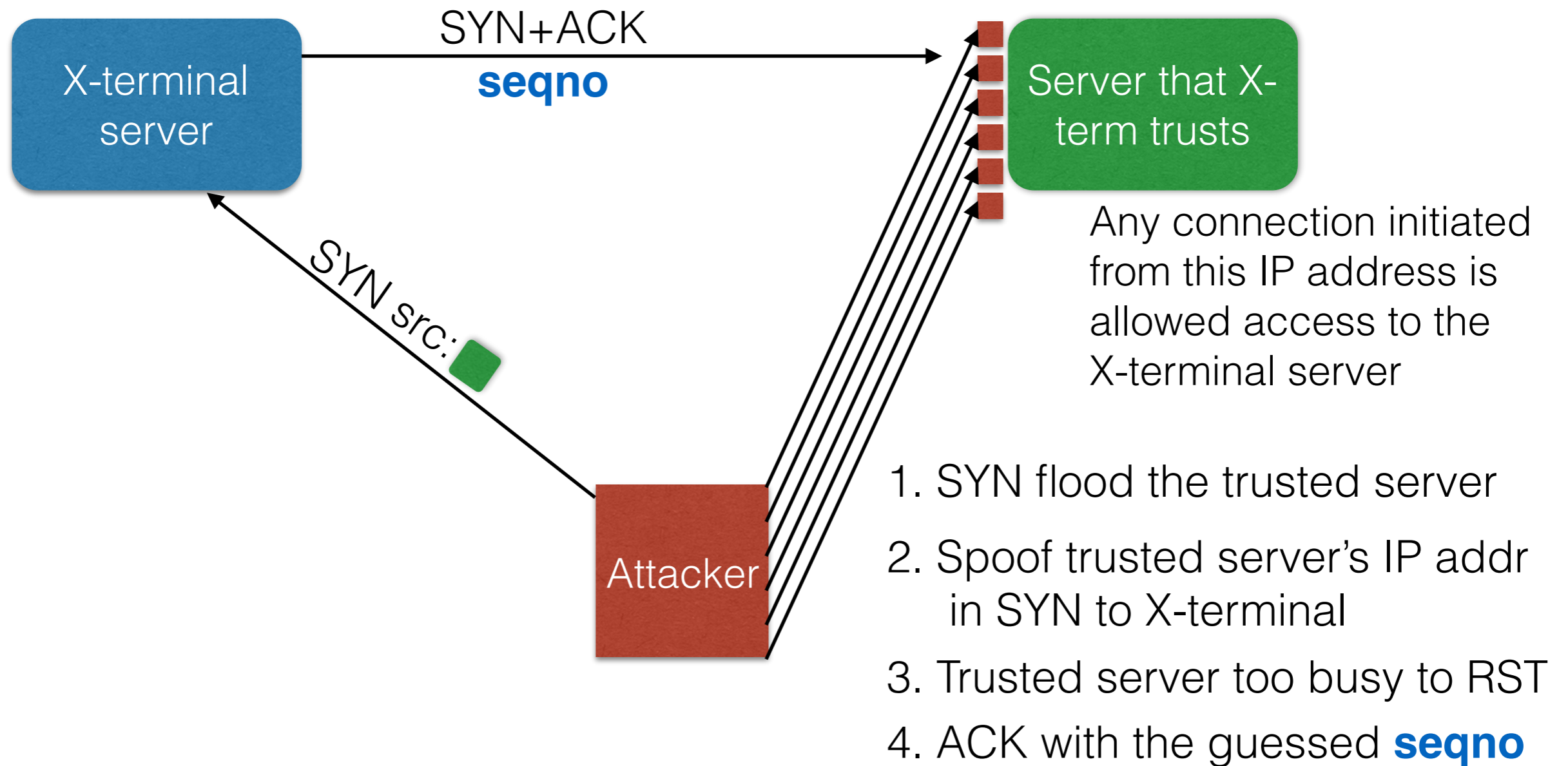
Mitnick attack



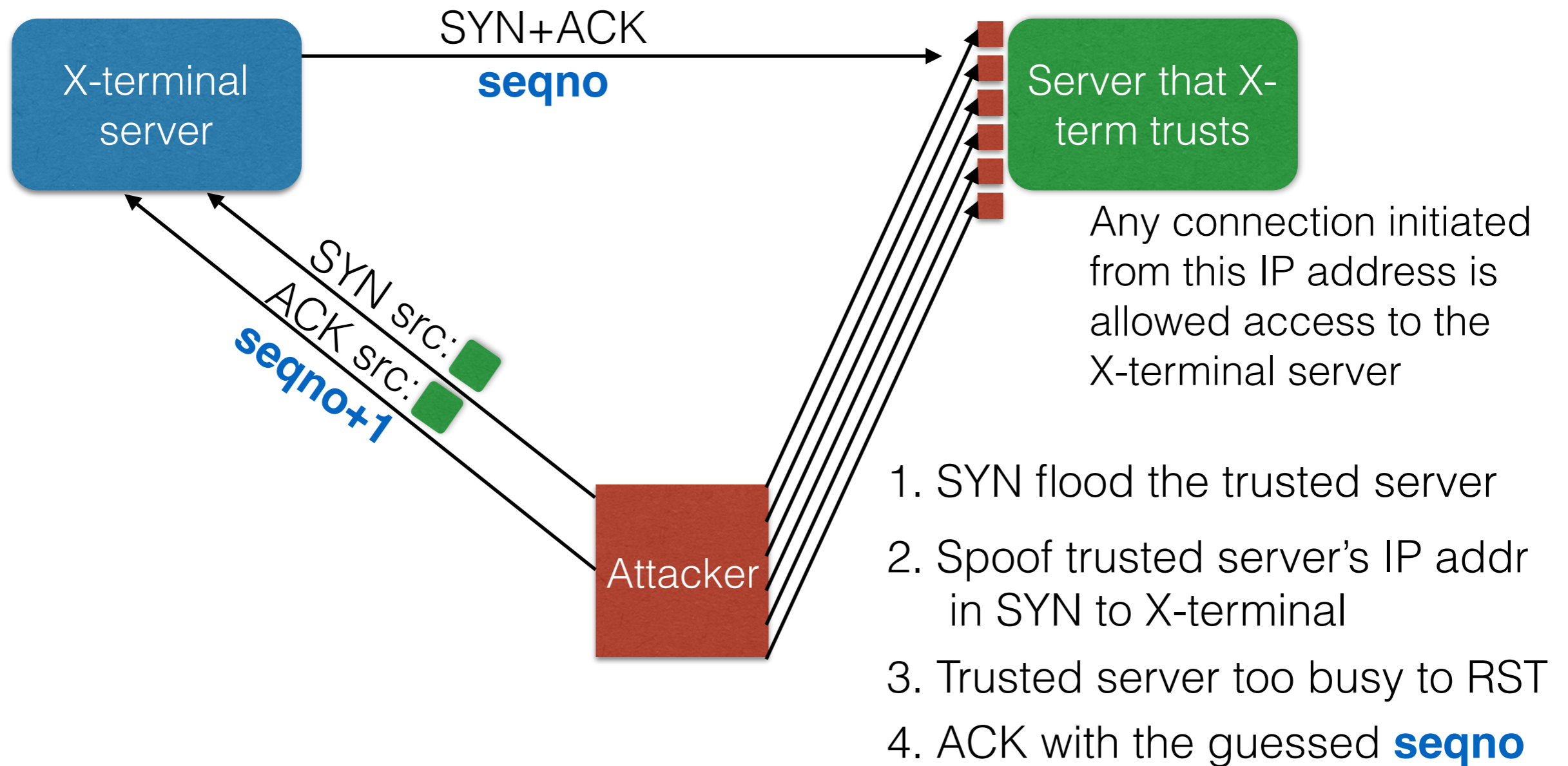
Mitnick attack



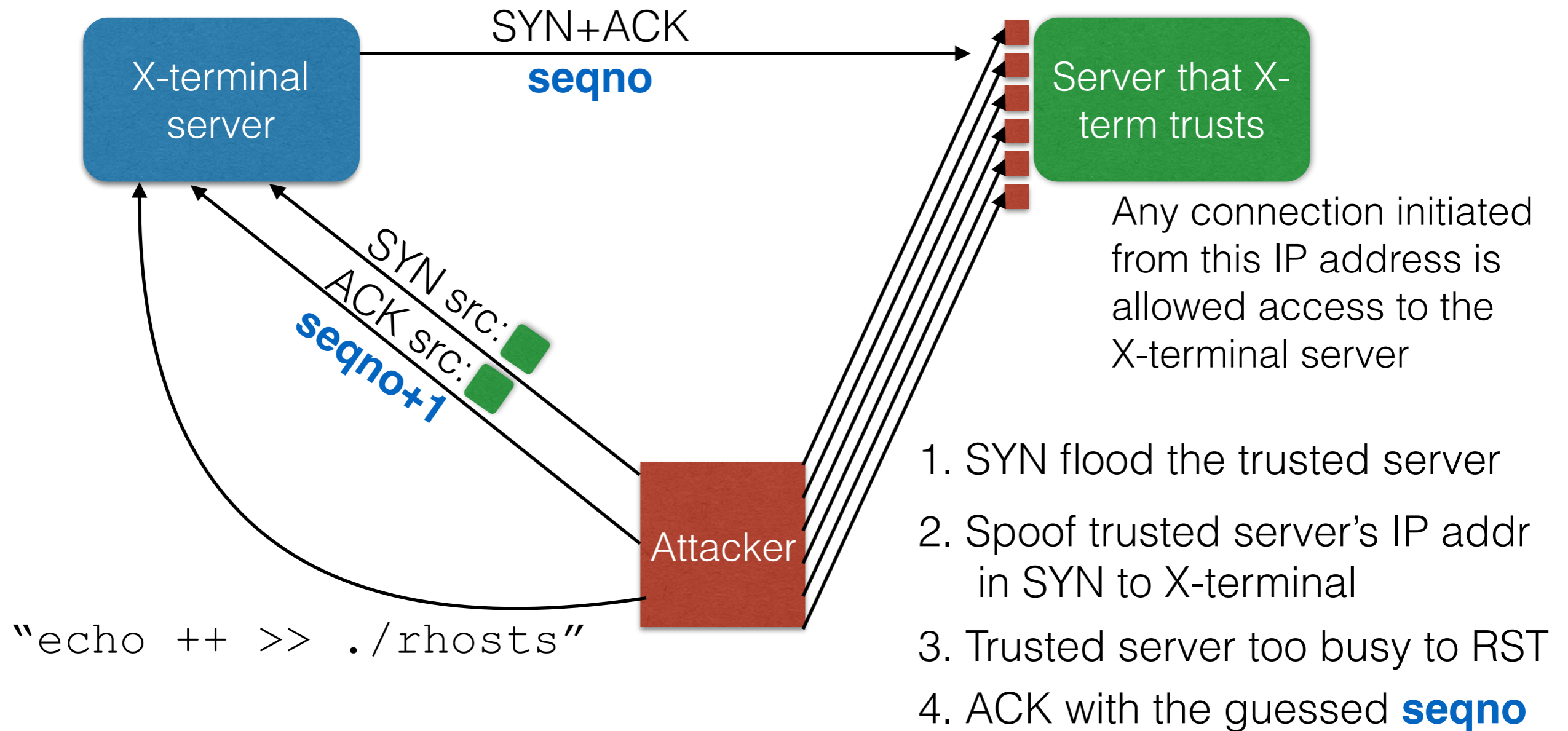
Mitnick attack



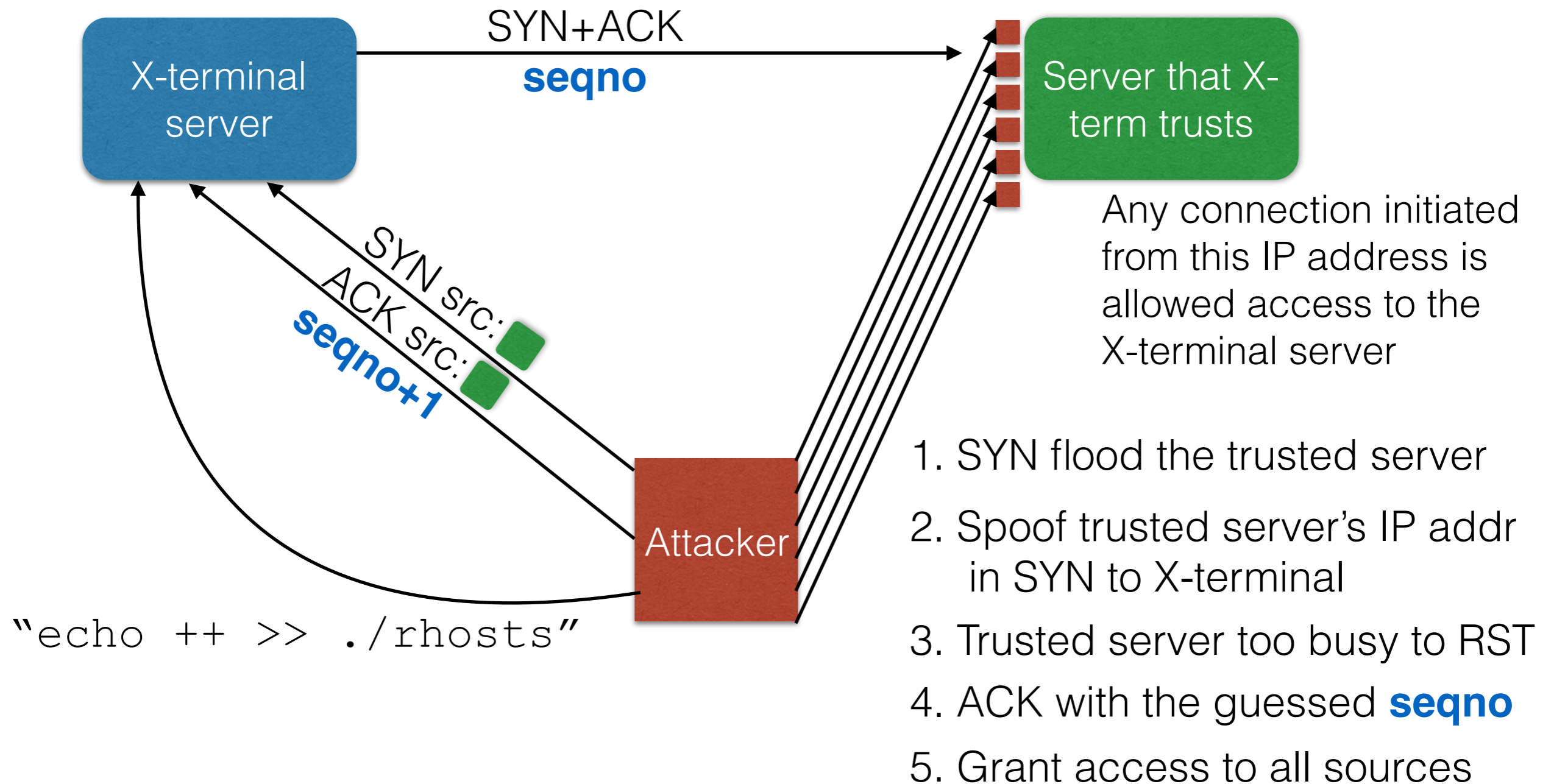
Mitnick attack



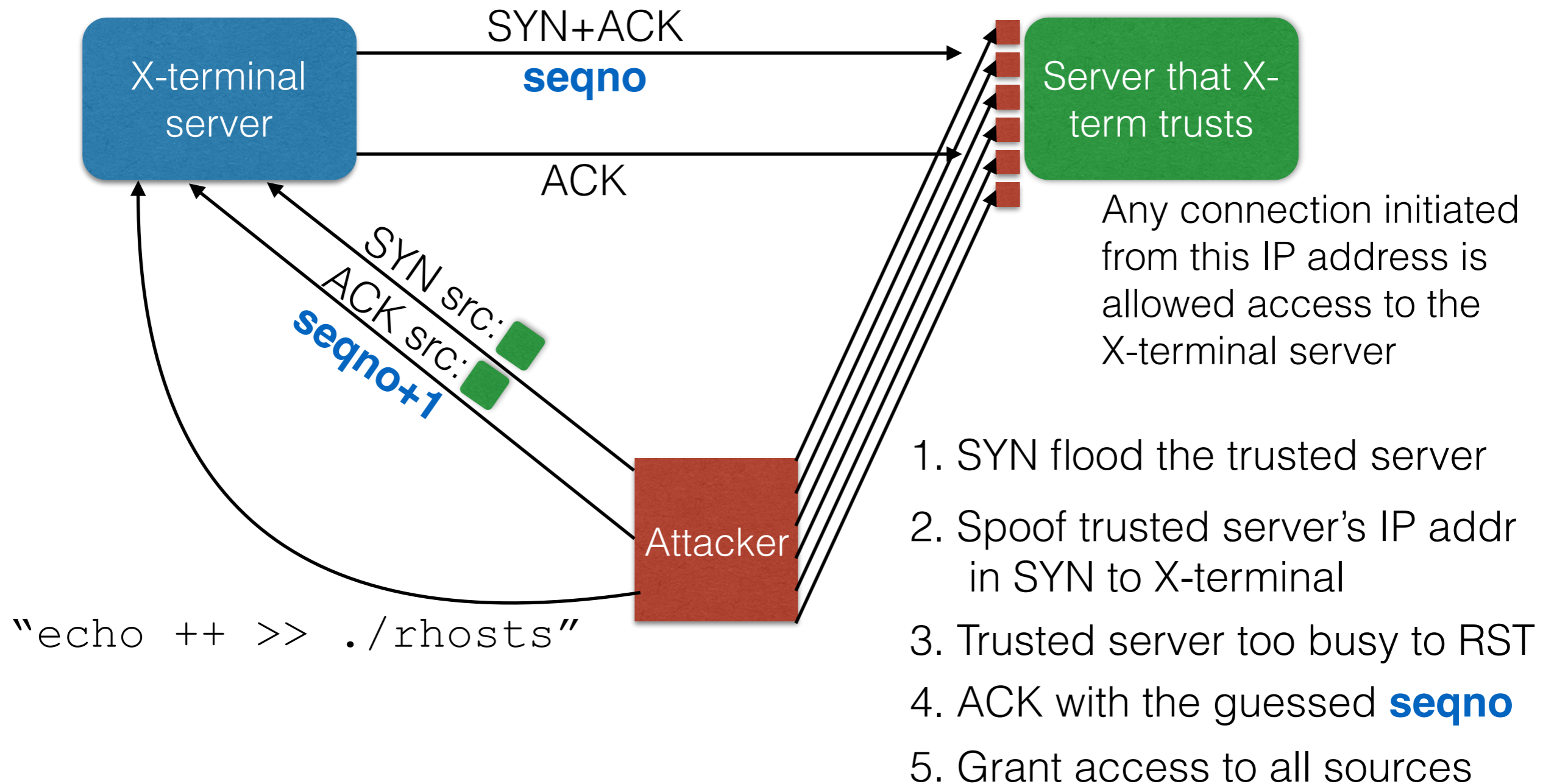
Mitnick attack



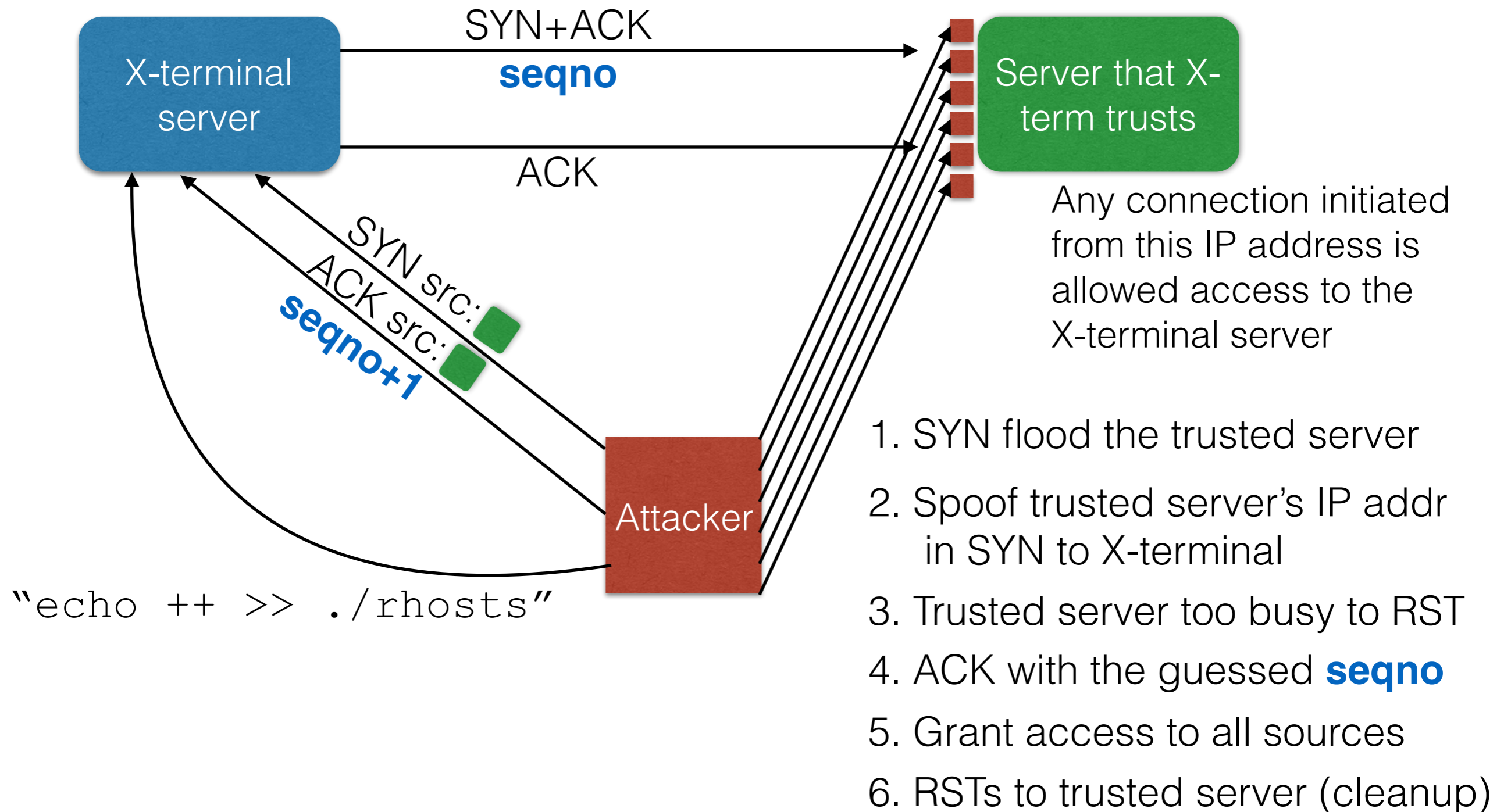
Mitnick attack



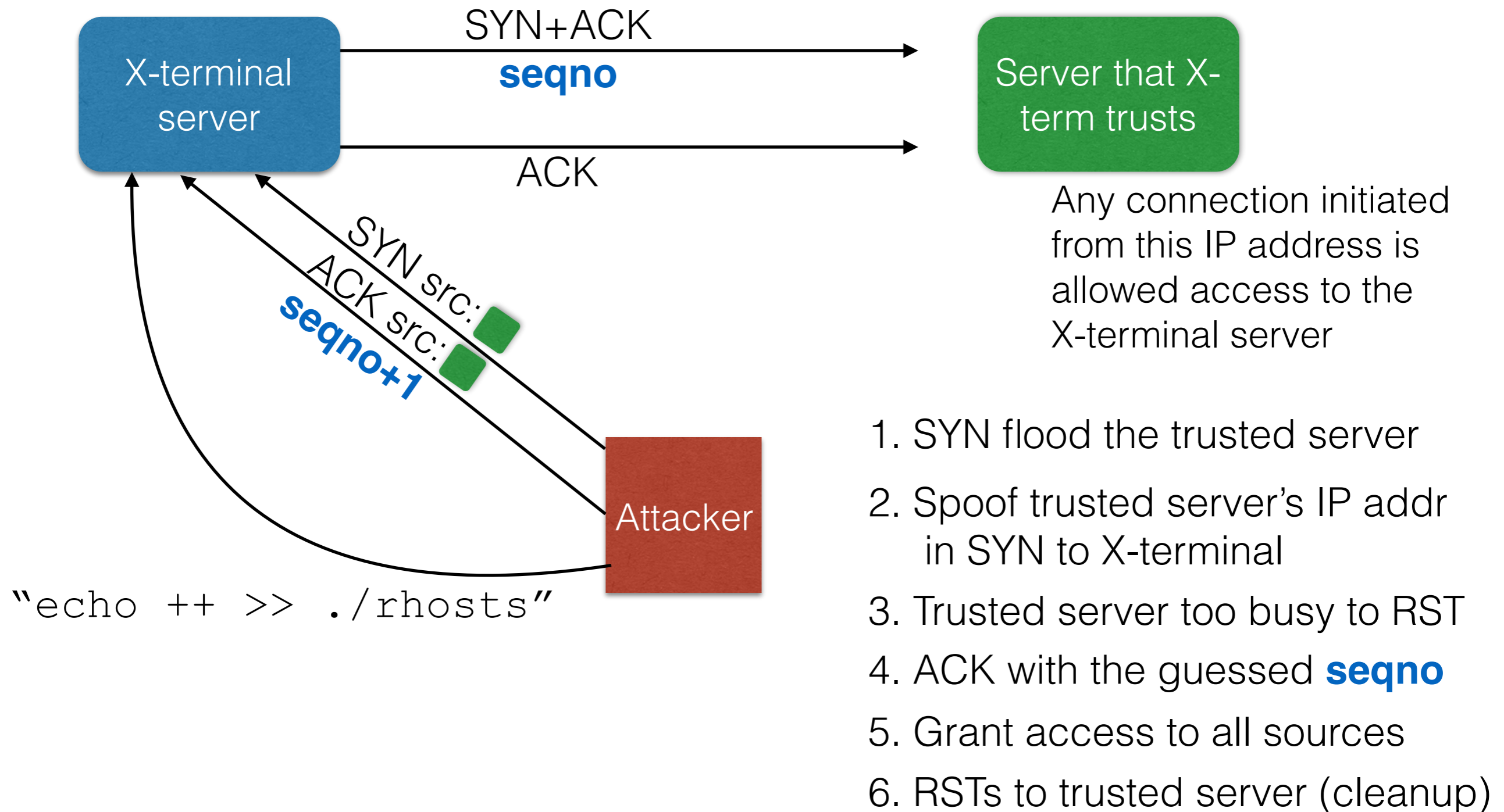
Mitnick attack



Mitnick attack



Mitnick attack



Defenses

- Initial sequence number must be difficult to predict!

Opt-ack attack

A



B



TCP uses ACKs not only for reliability, but also for **congestion control:**

the more ACKs come back, the faster I can send

Opt-ack attack

A



B

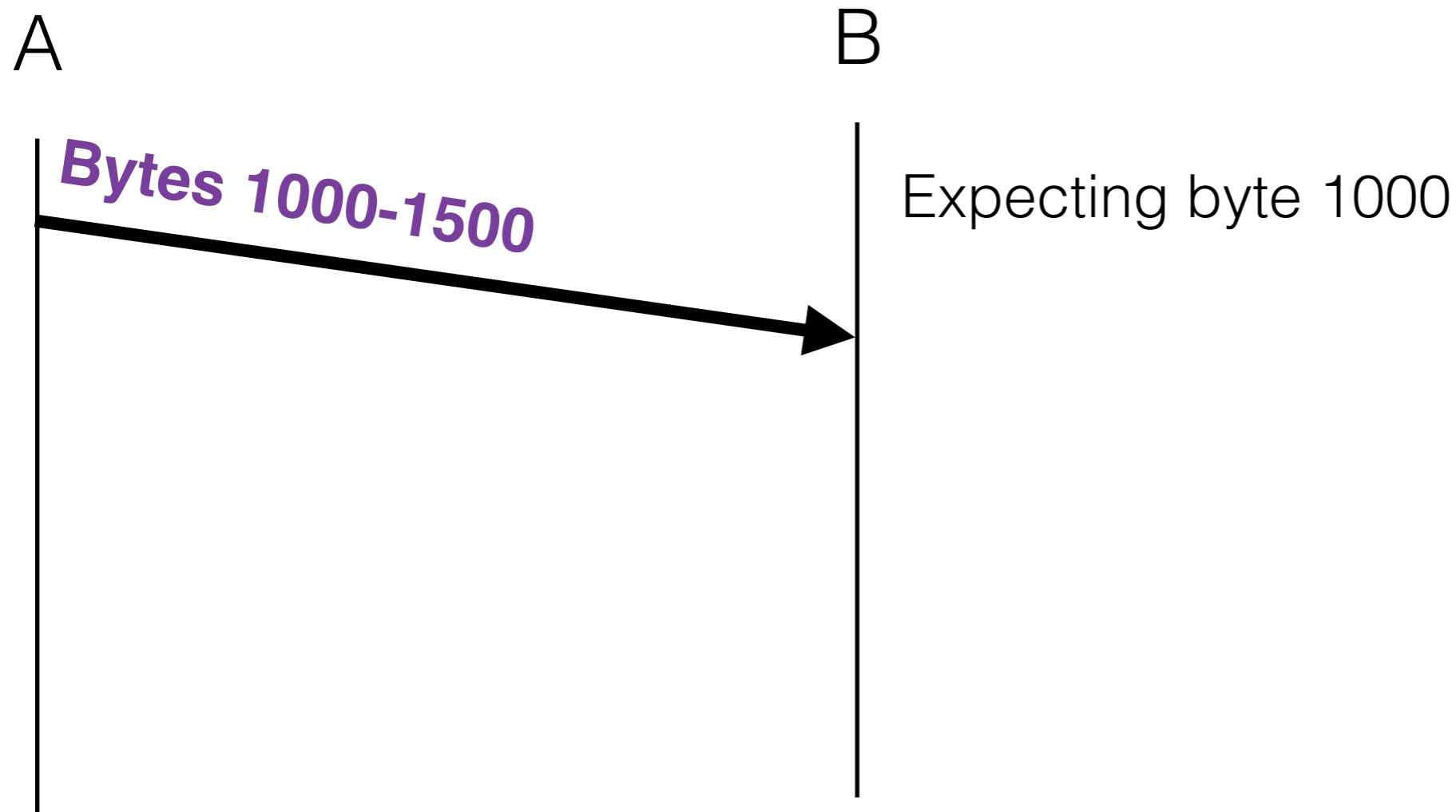


Expecting byte 1000

TCP uses ACKs not only for reliability, but also for **congestion control:**

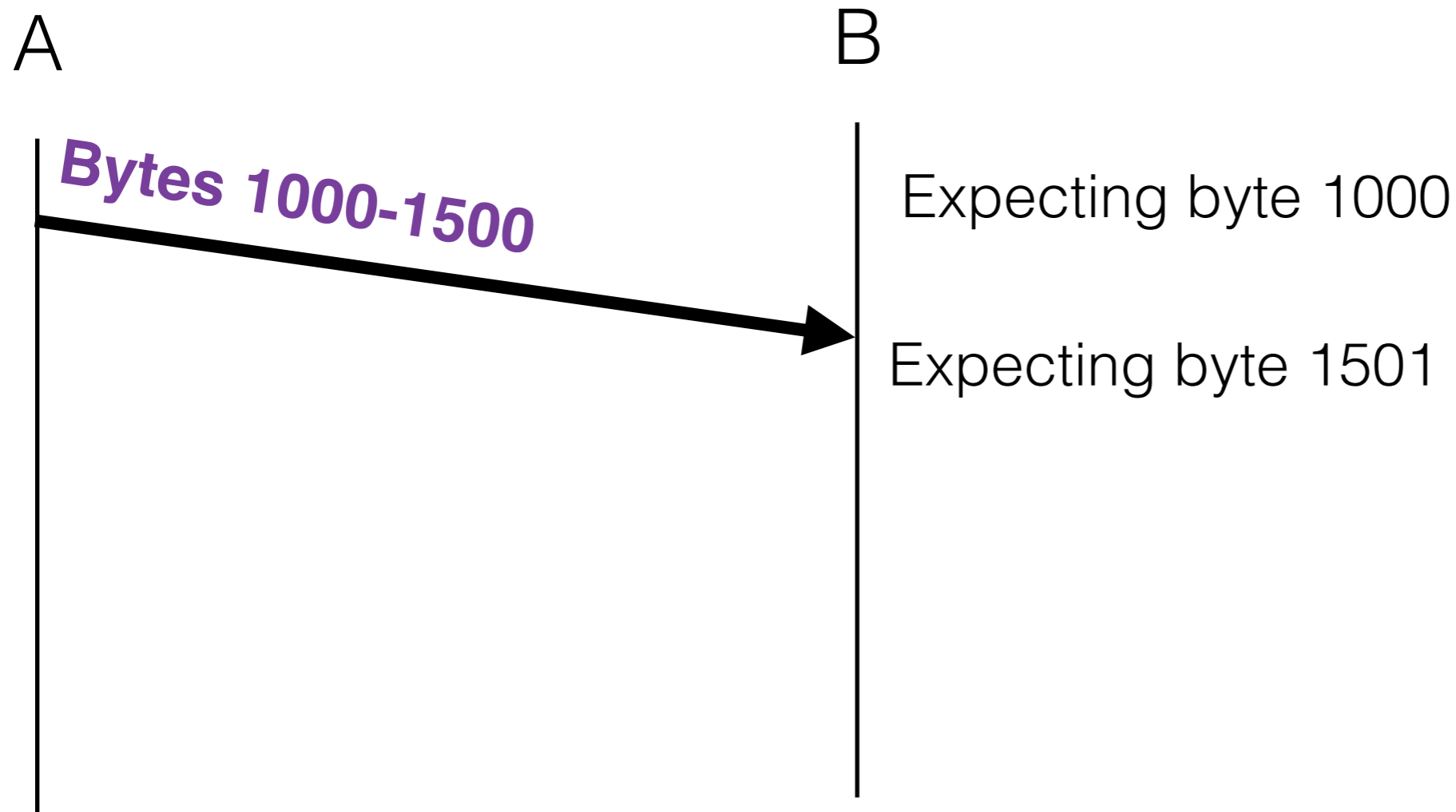
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Opt-ack attack



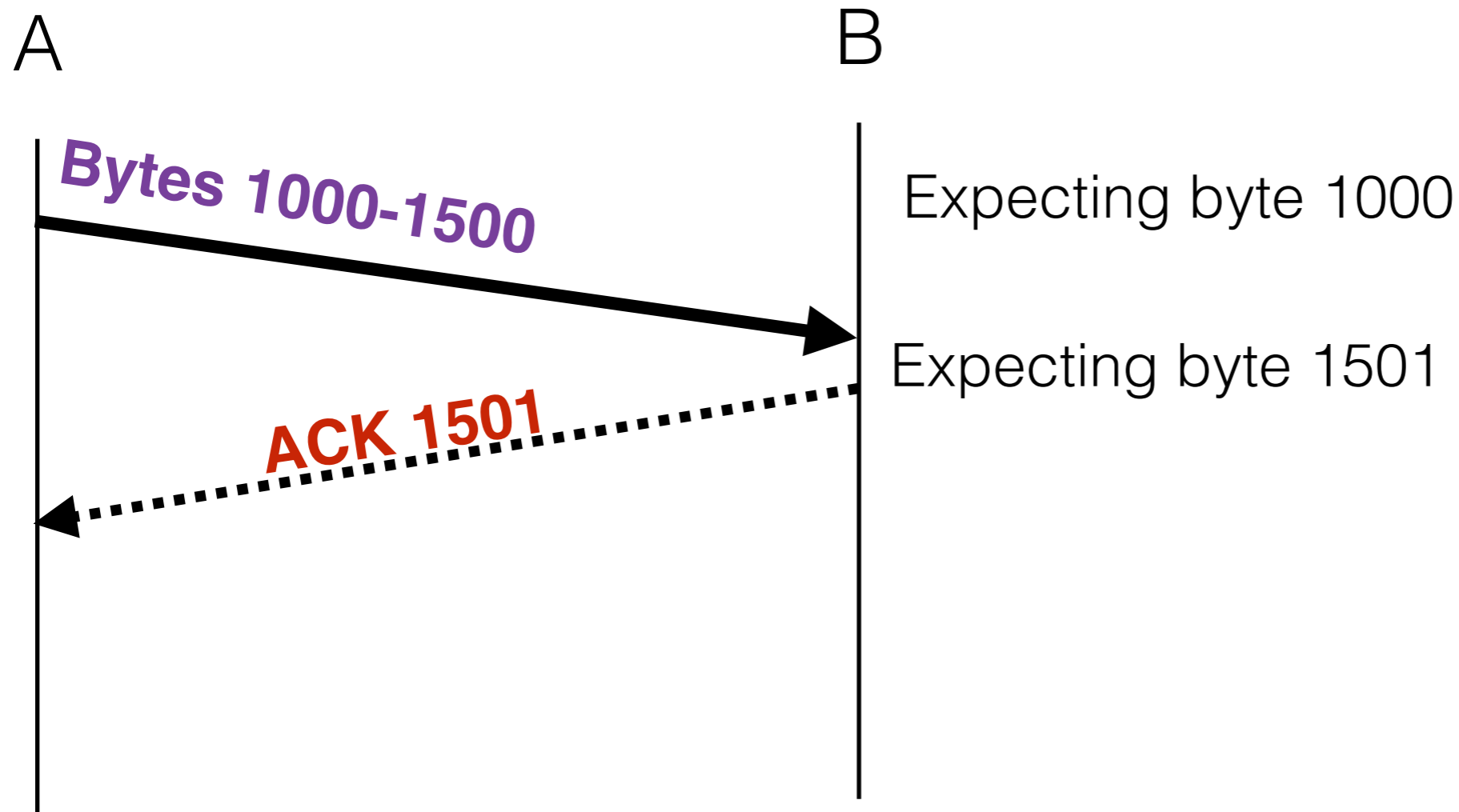
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Opt-ack attack



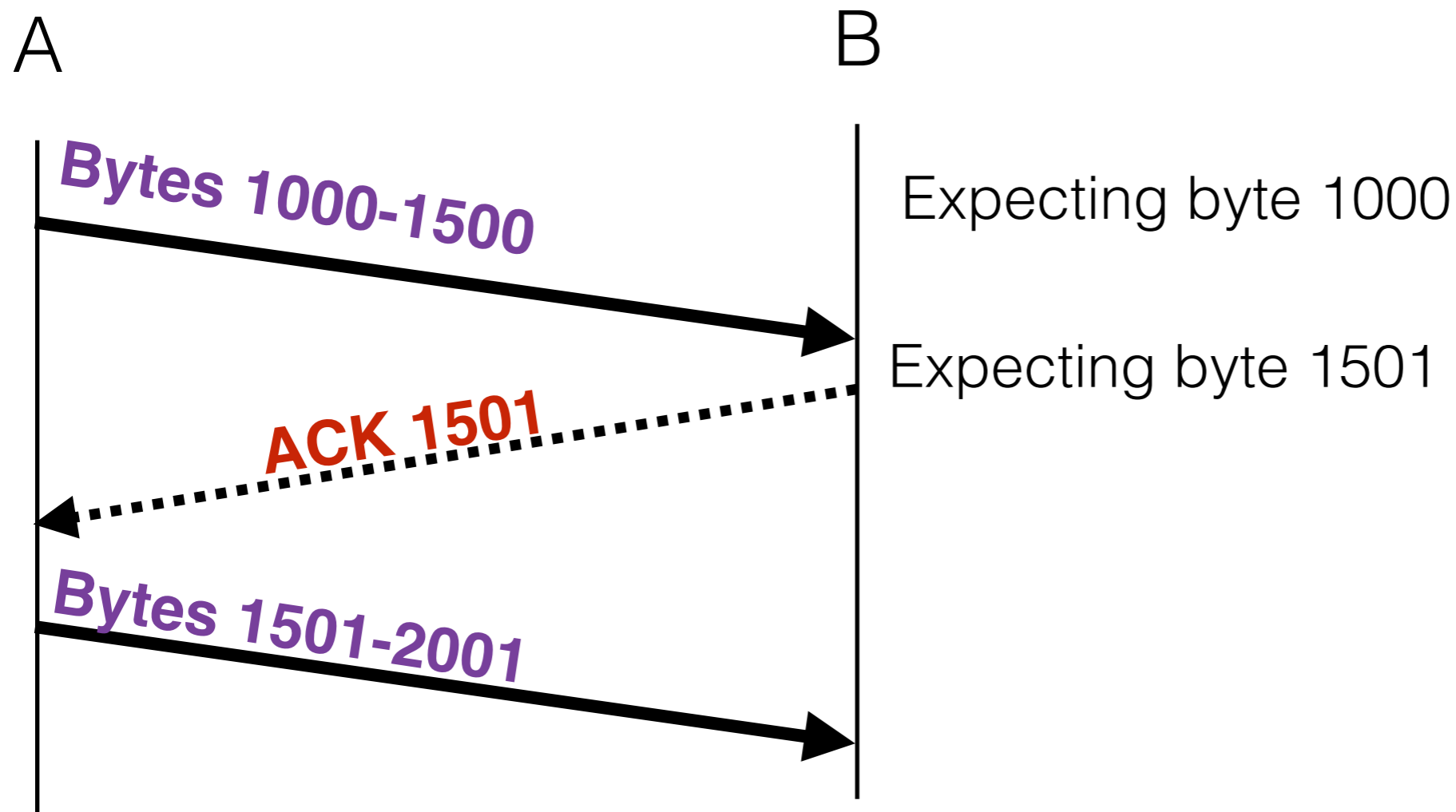
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Opt-ack attack



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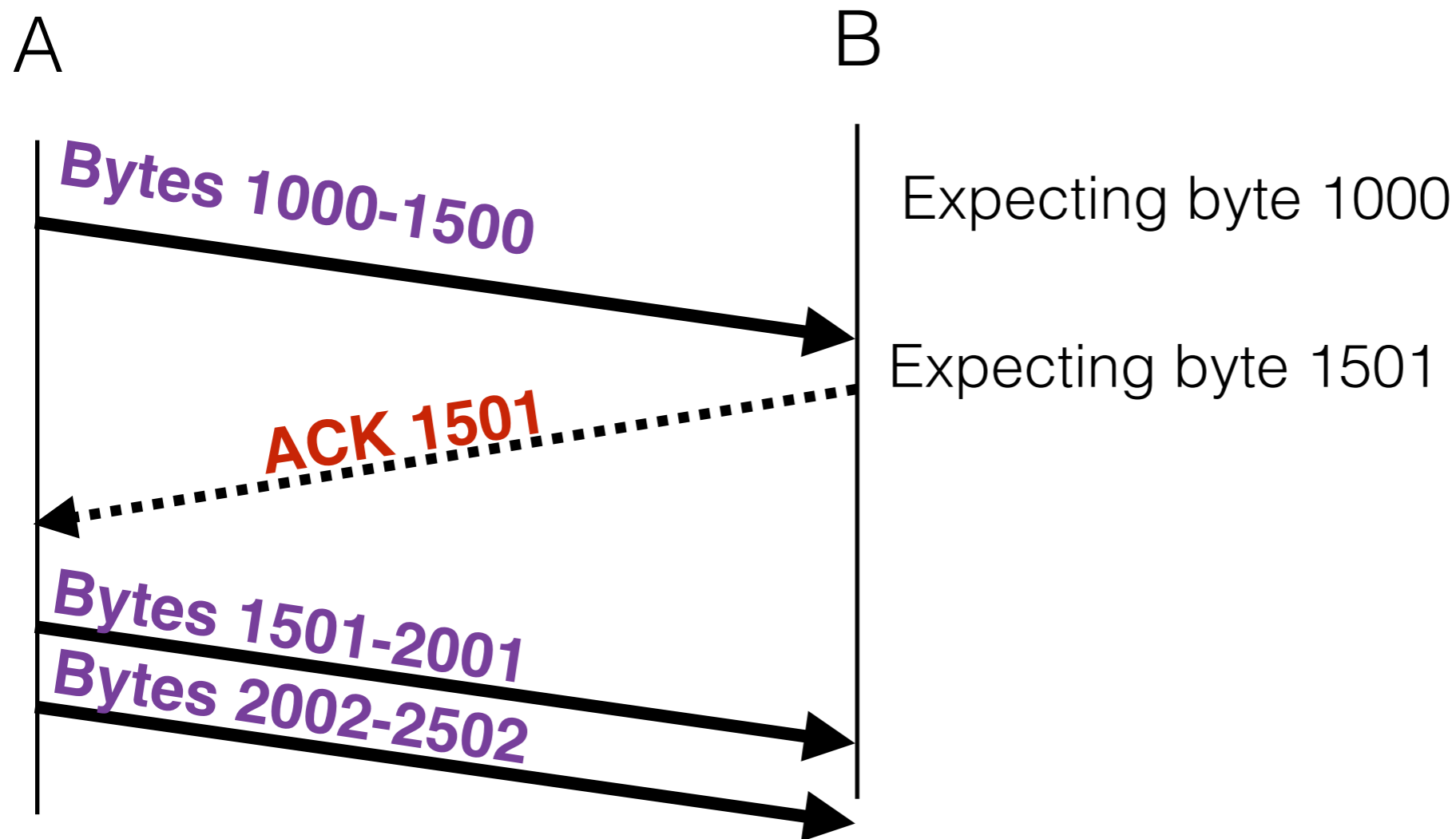
Opt-ack attack



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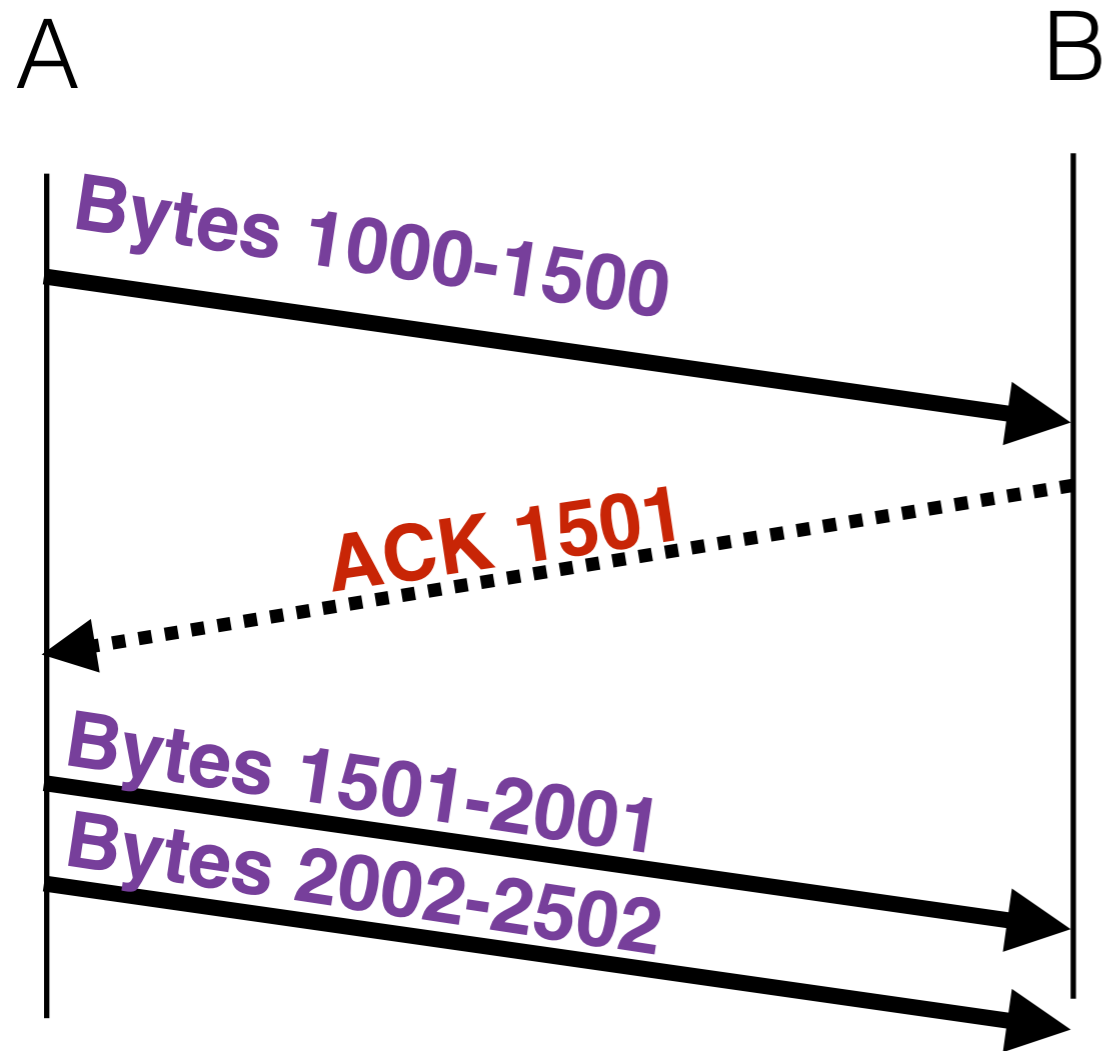
Opt-ack attack



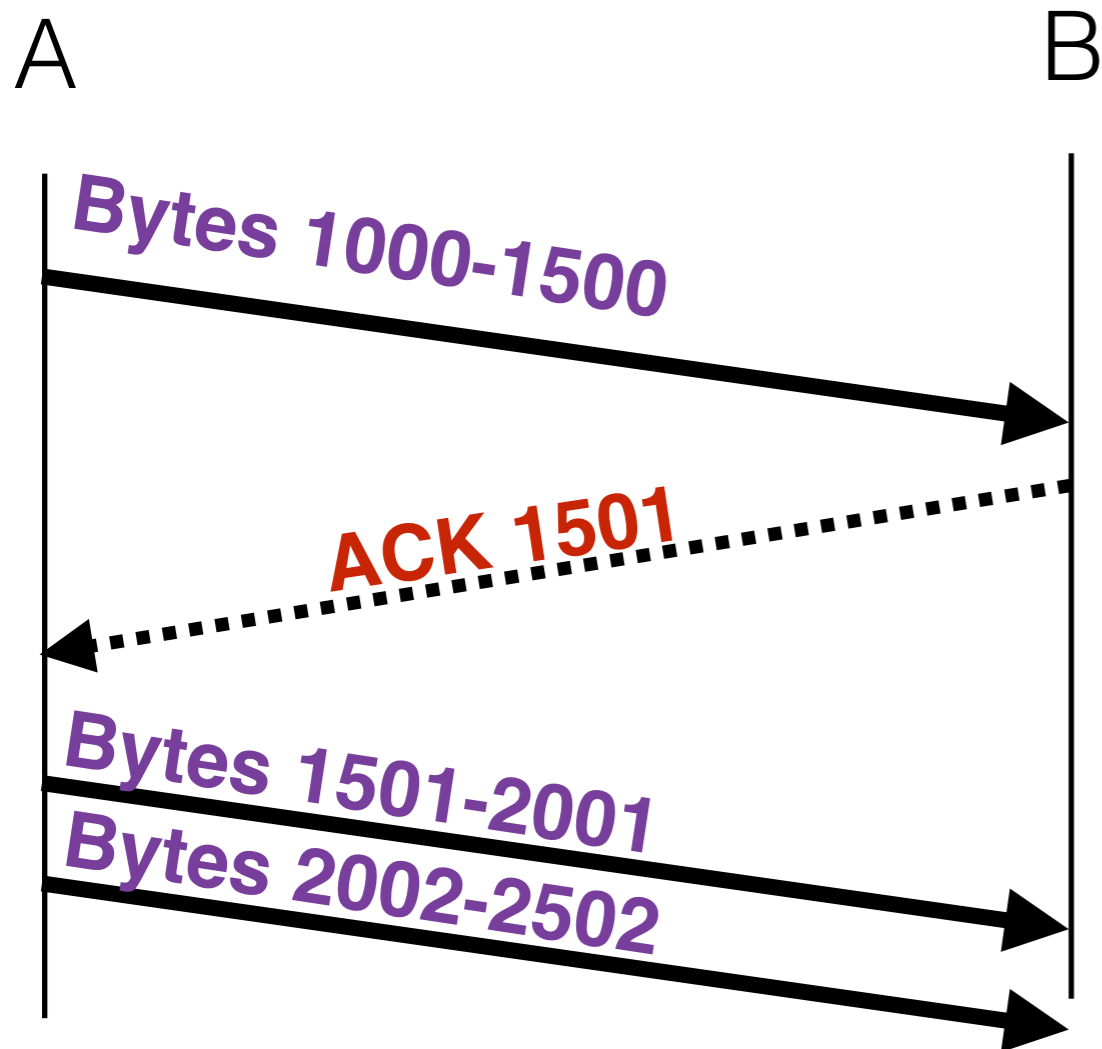
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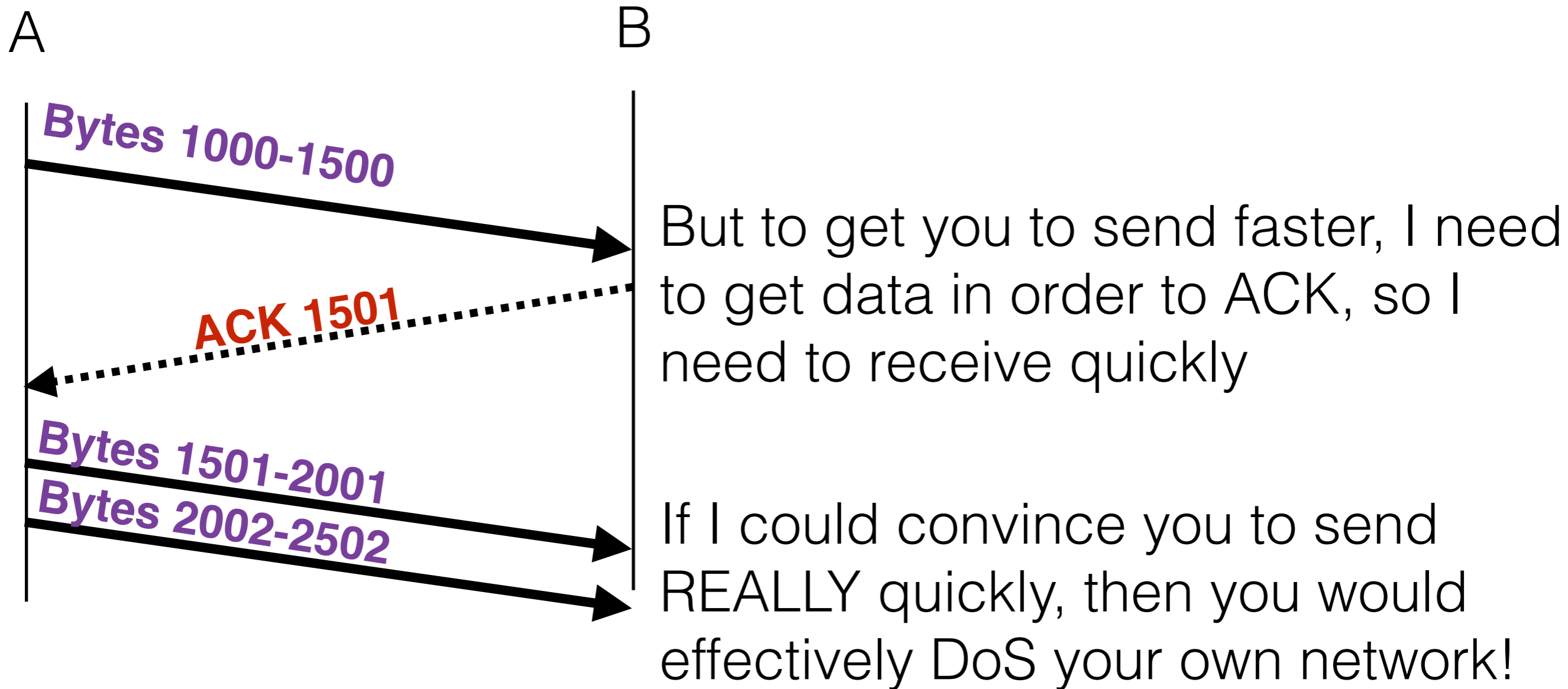


Opt-ack attack

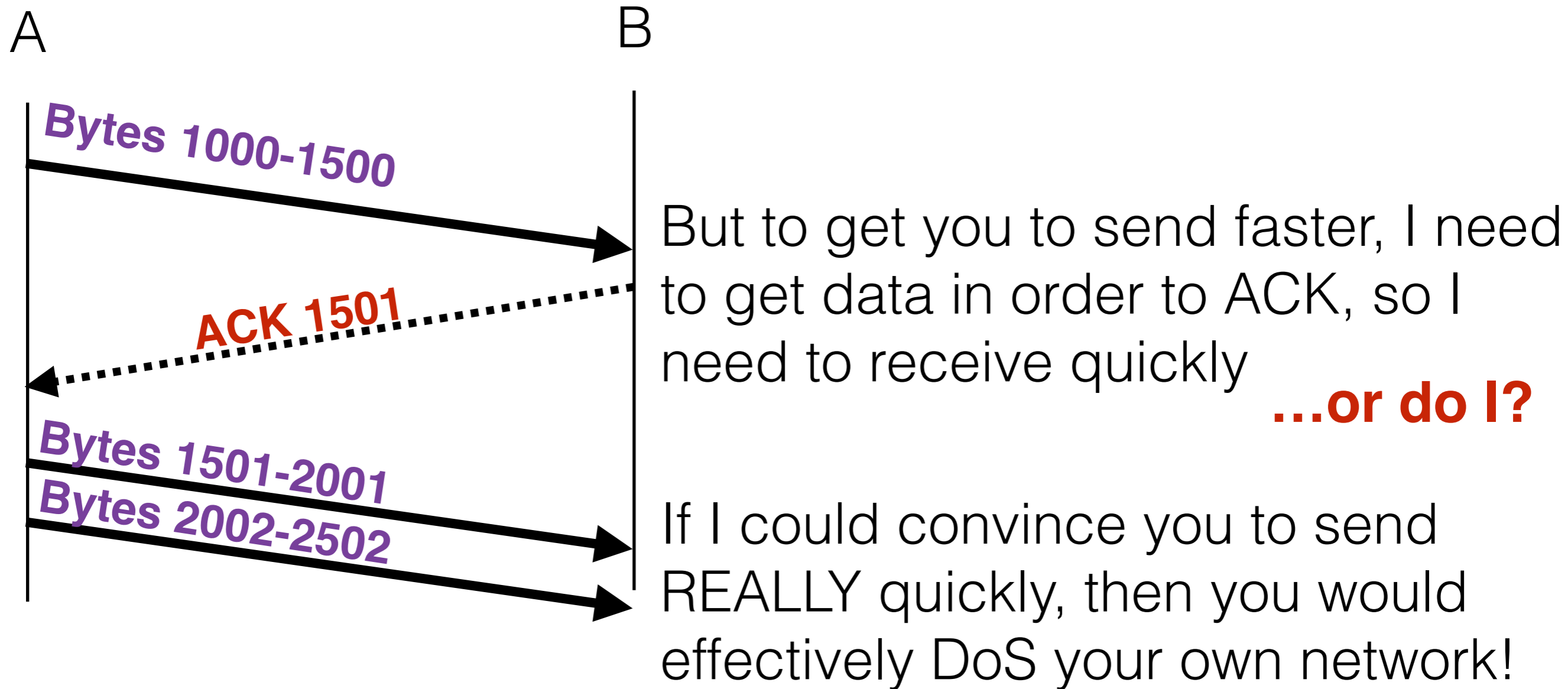


If I could convince you to send REALLY quickly, then you would effectively DoS your own network!

Opt-ack attack



Opt-ack attack



Opt-ack attack

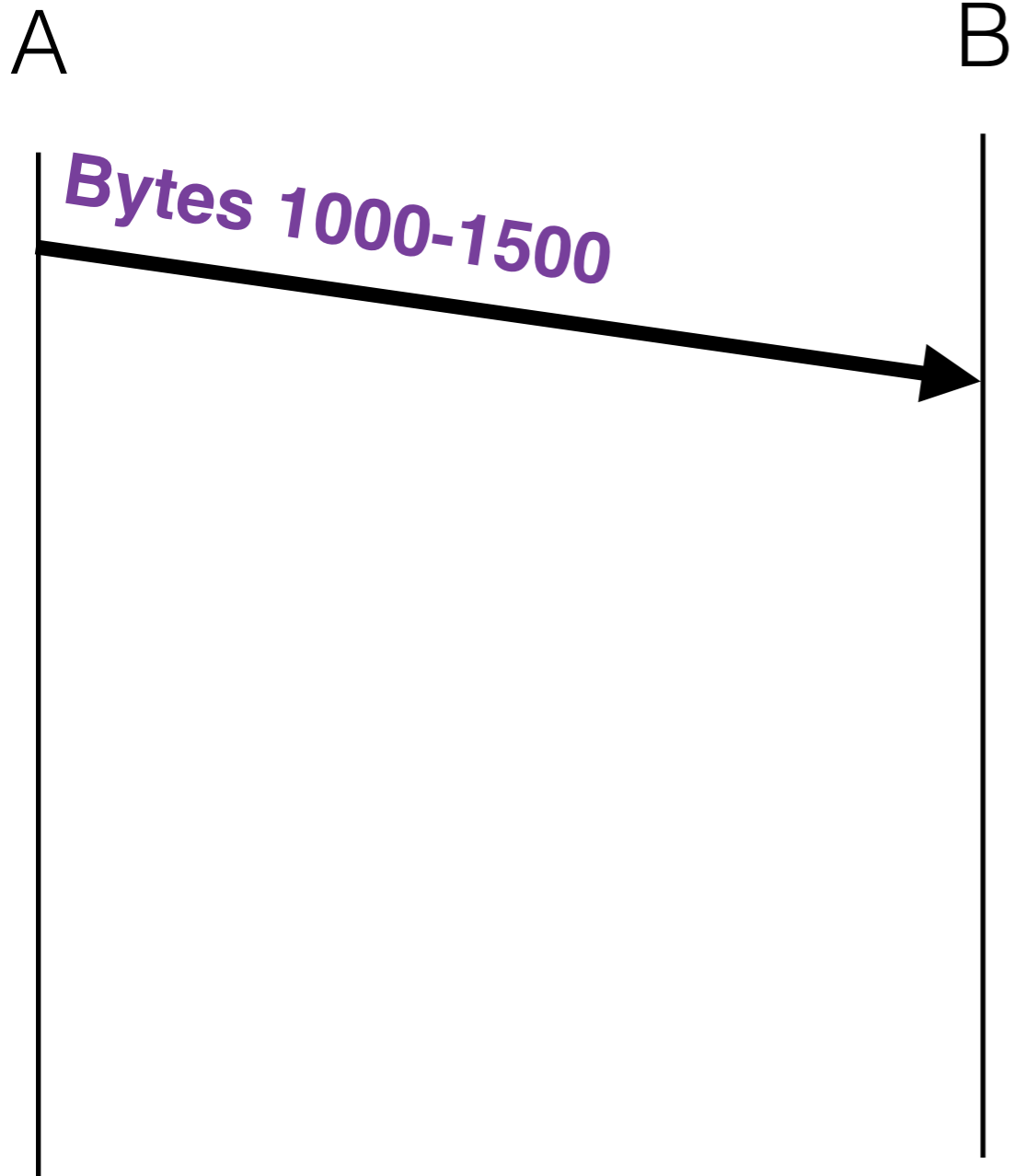
A



B



Opt-ack attack



Opt-ack attack

A

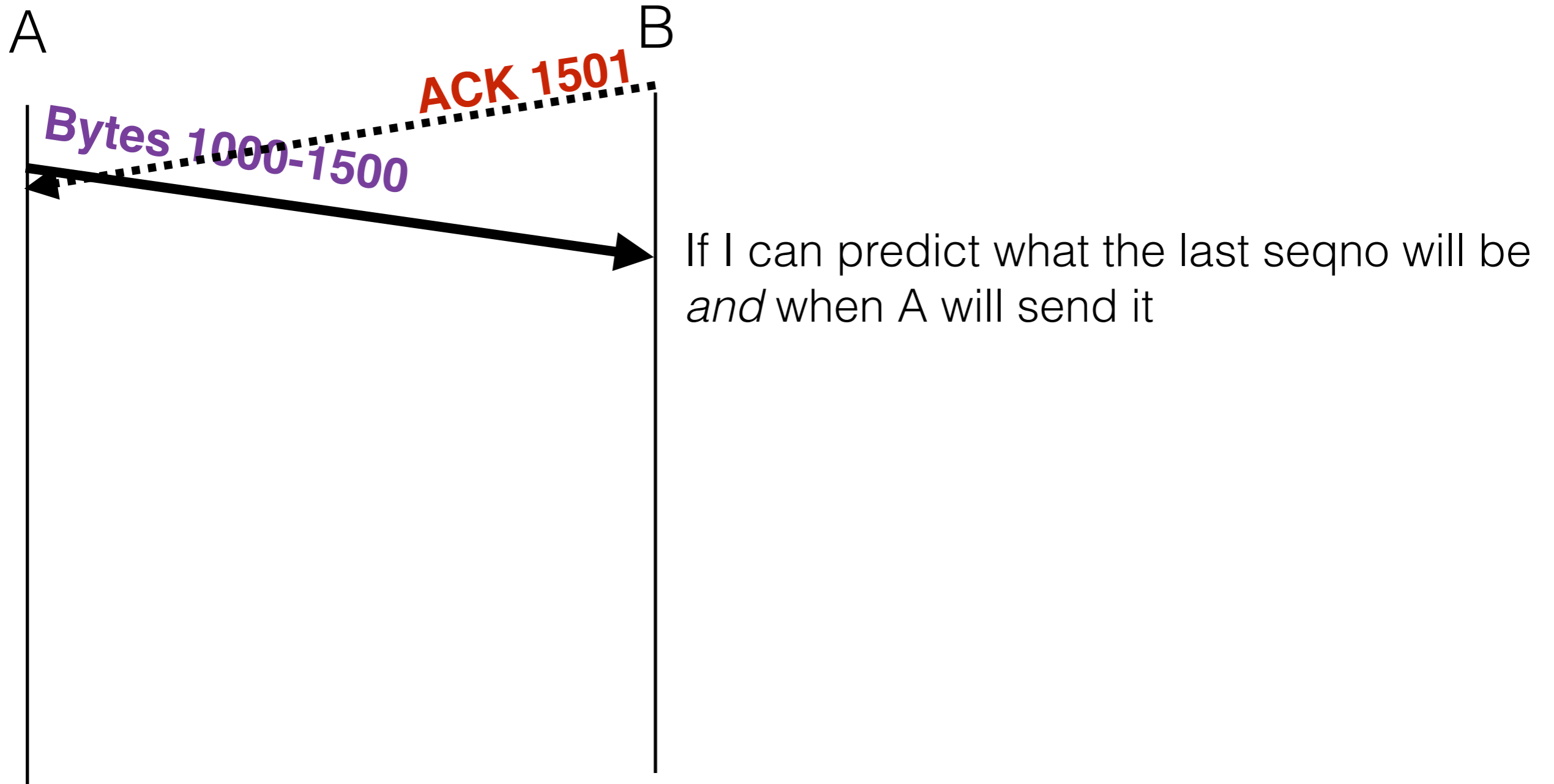
B

Bytes 1000-1500

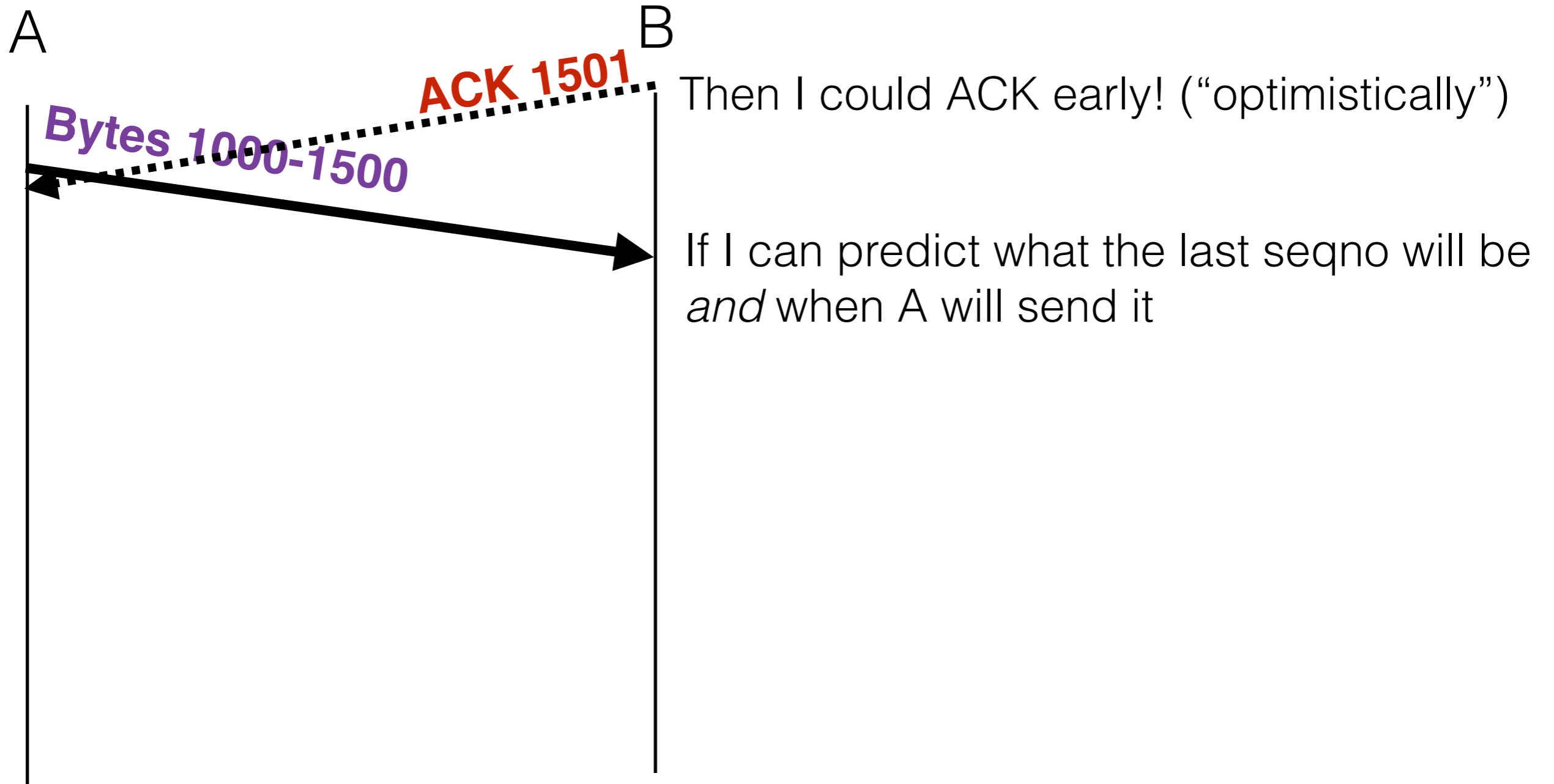


If I can predict what the last seqno will be
and when A will send it

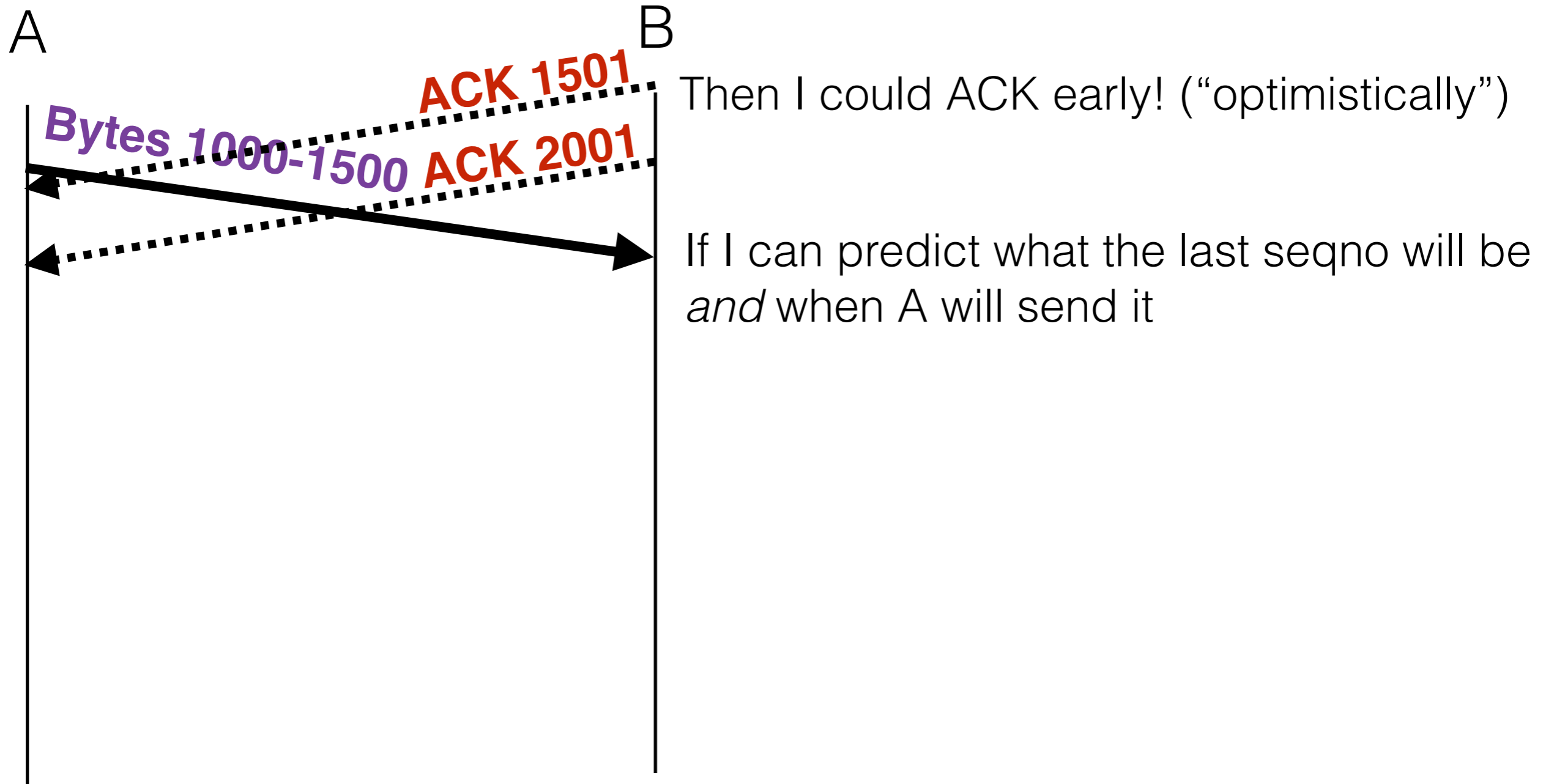
Opt-ack attack



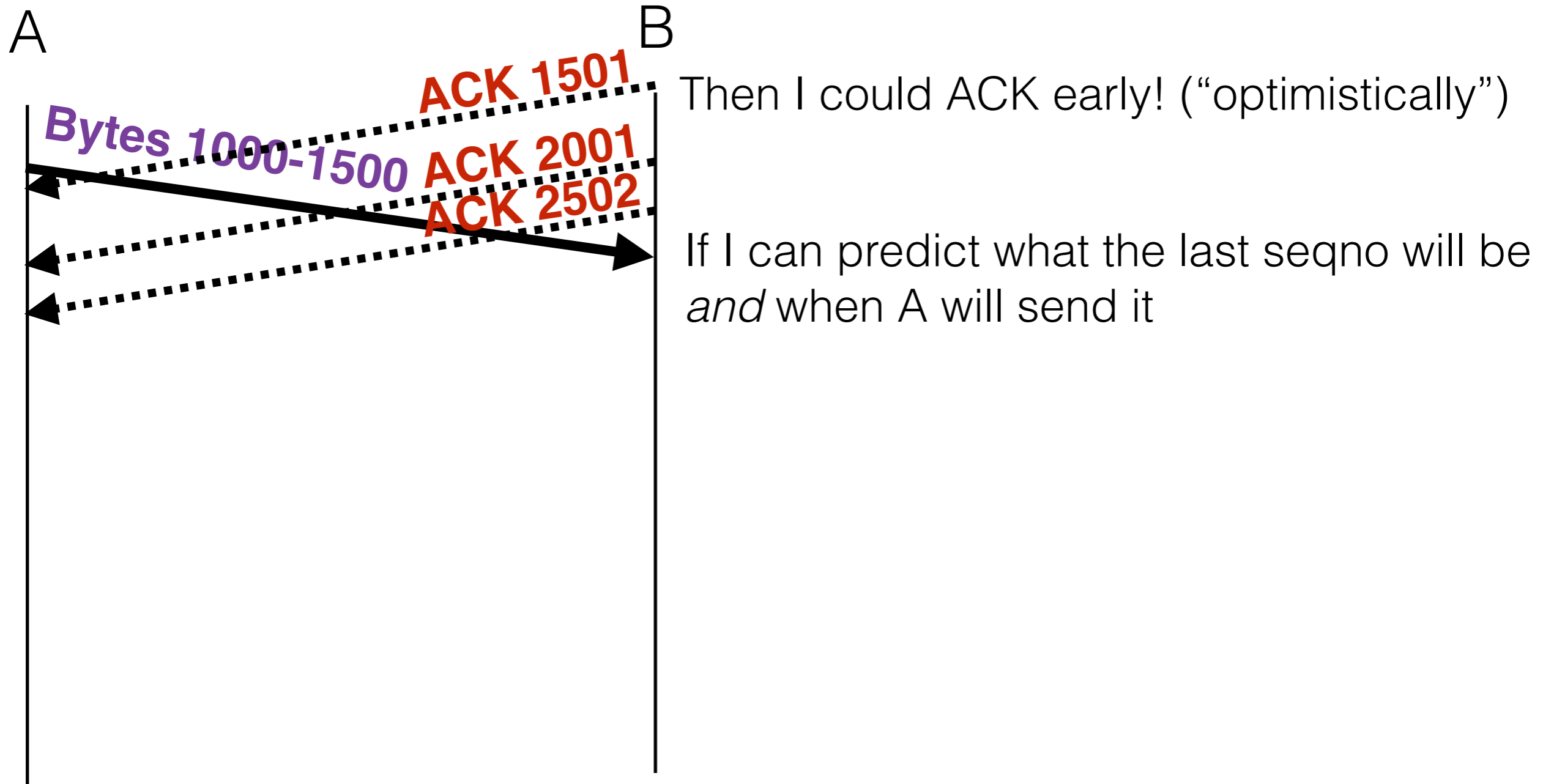
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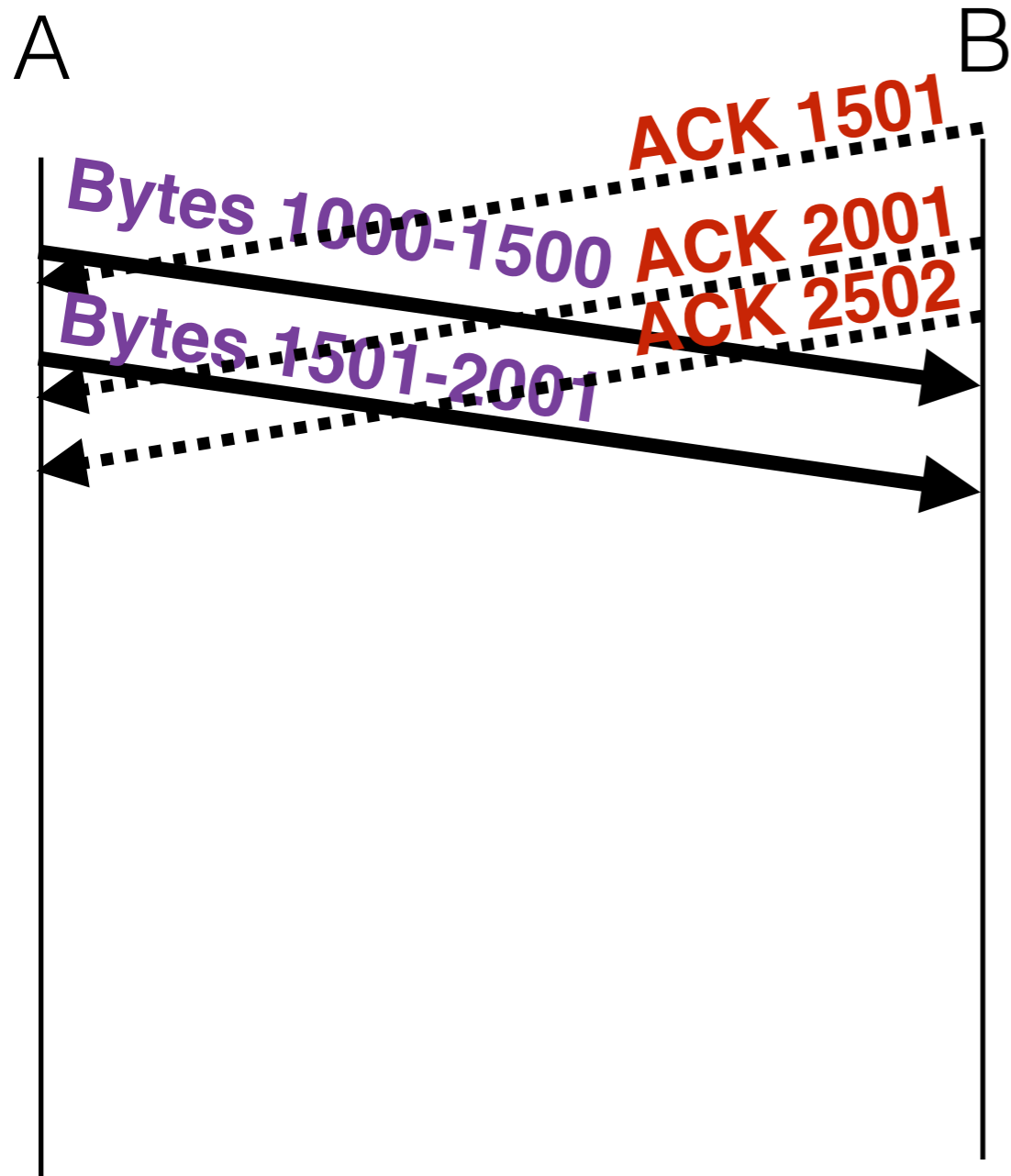
Opt-ack attack



Opt-ack attack



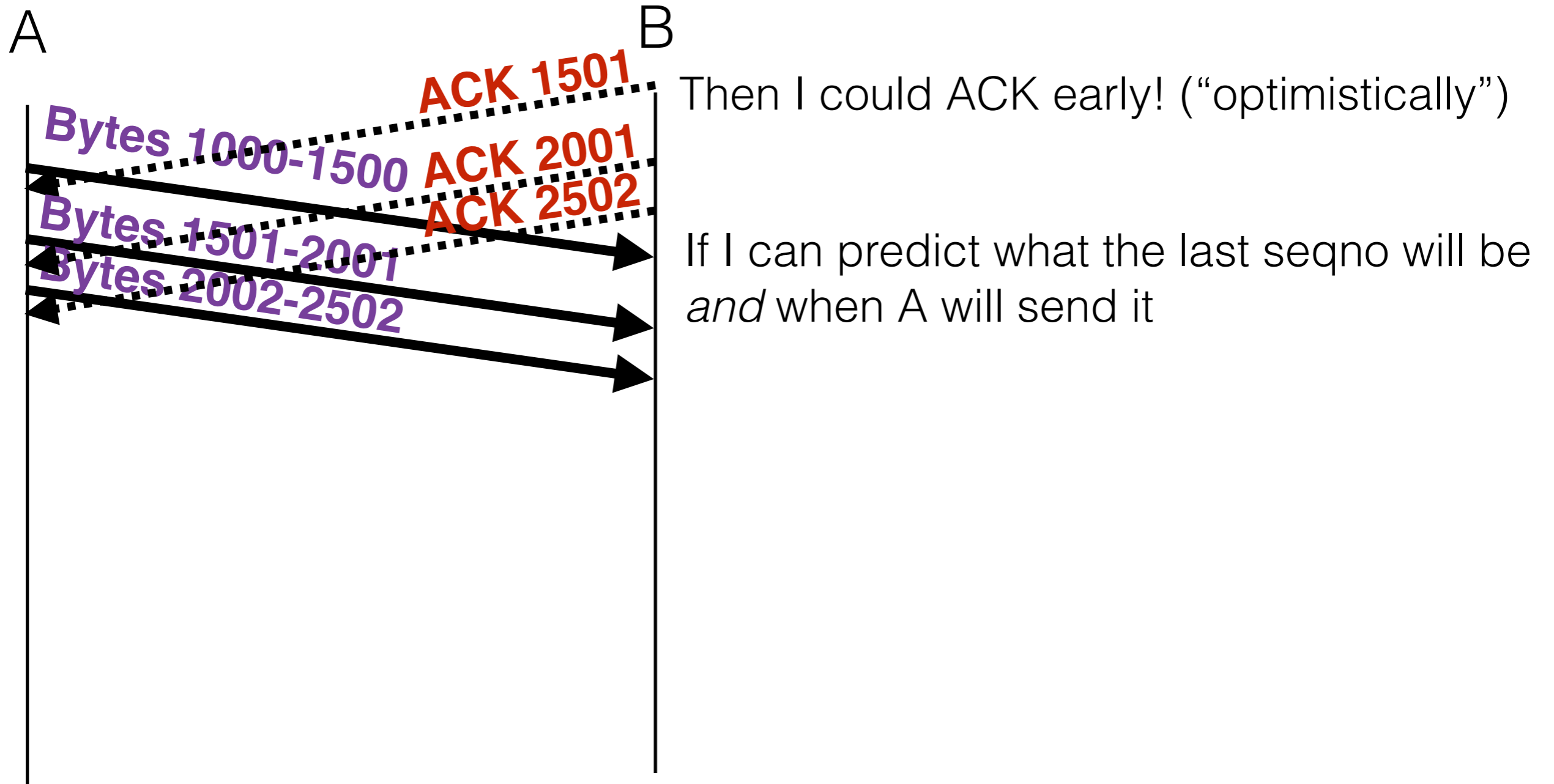
Opt-ack attack



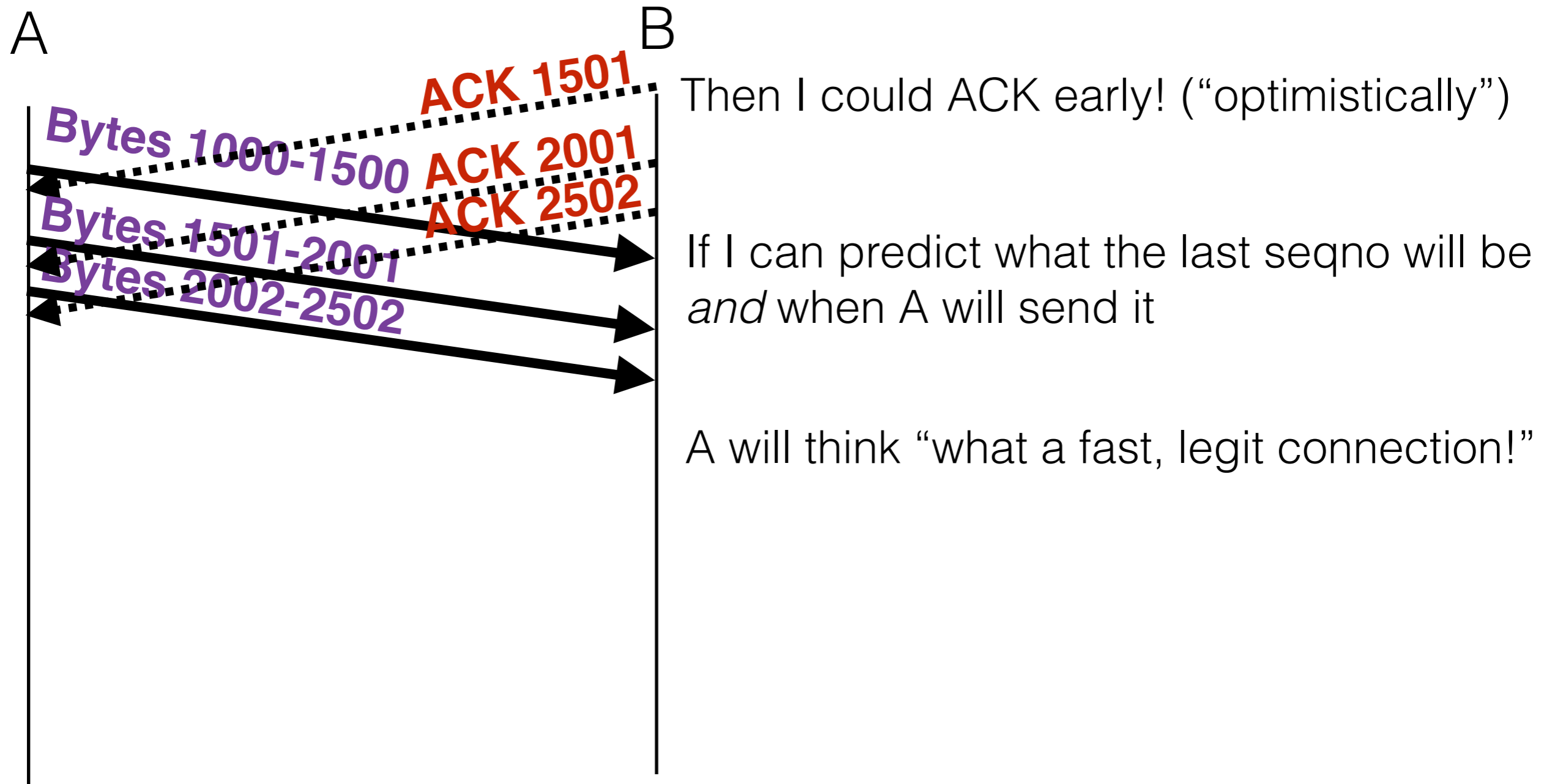
Then I could ACK early! ("optimistically")

If I can predict what the last seqno will be
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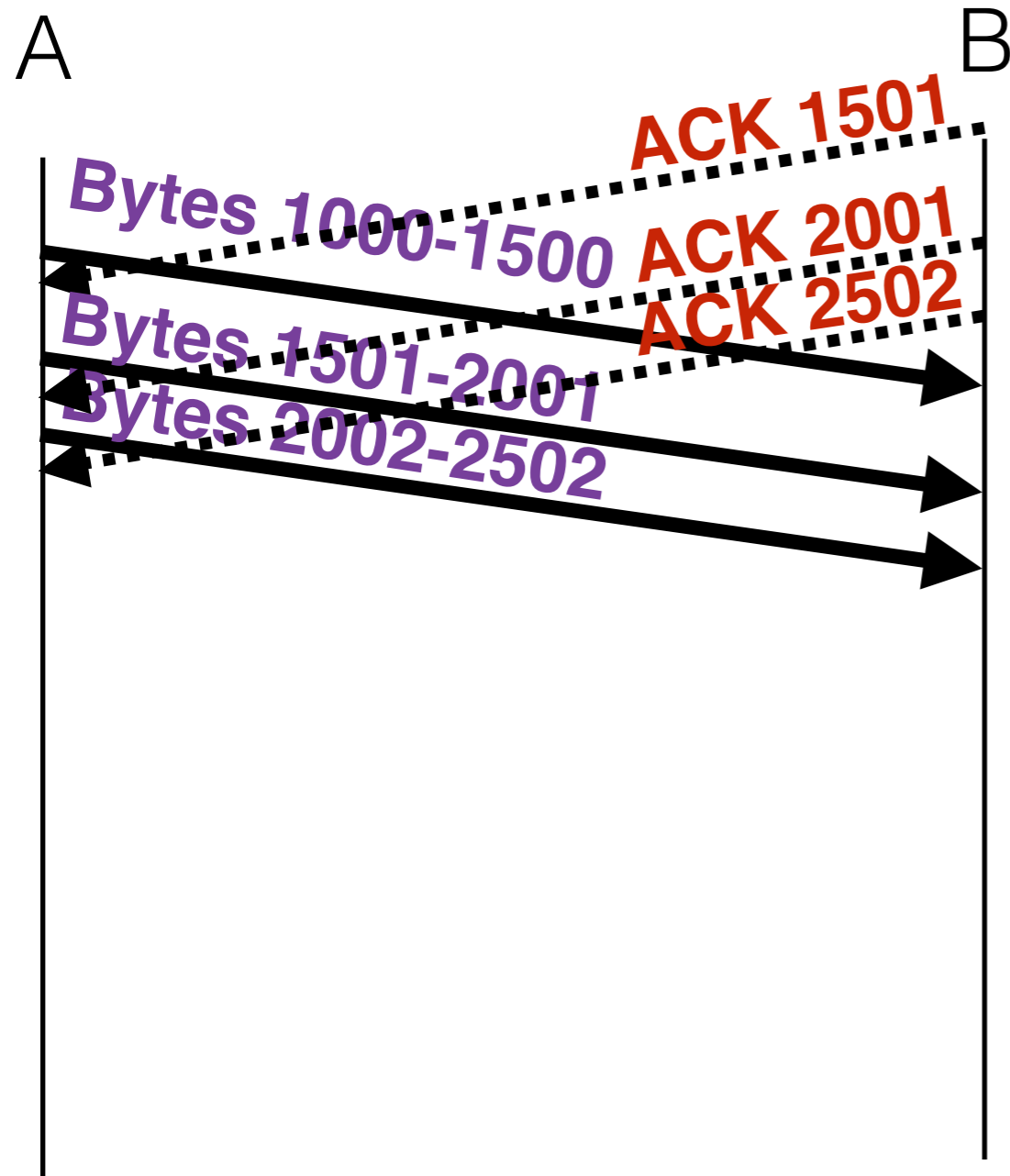
Opt-ack attack



Opt-ack attack



Opt-ack attack



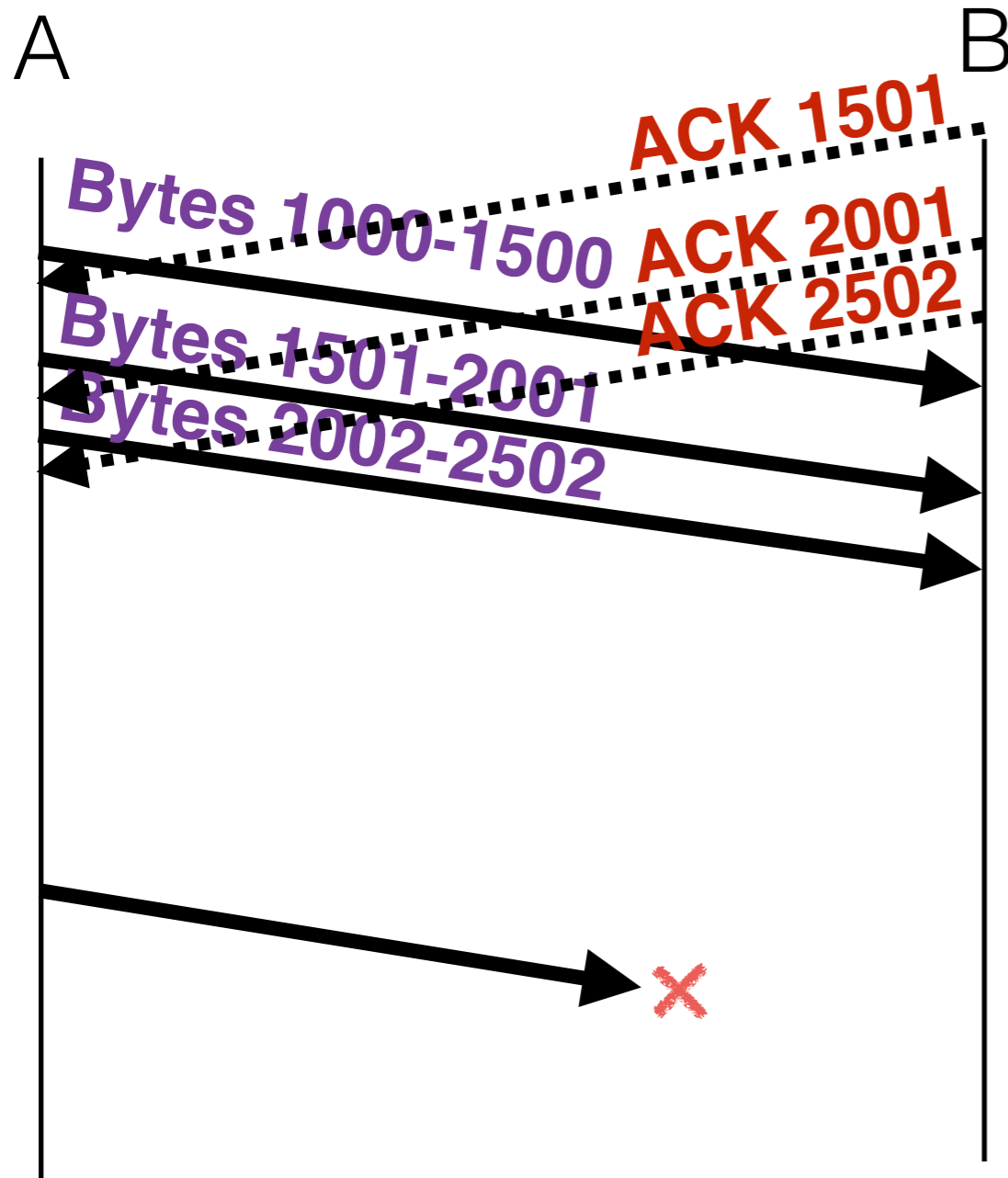
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If I can predict what the last seqno will be
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A will think “what a fast, legit connection!”

Eventually, A’s outgoing packets will start to
get dropped.

Opt-ack attack



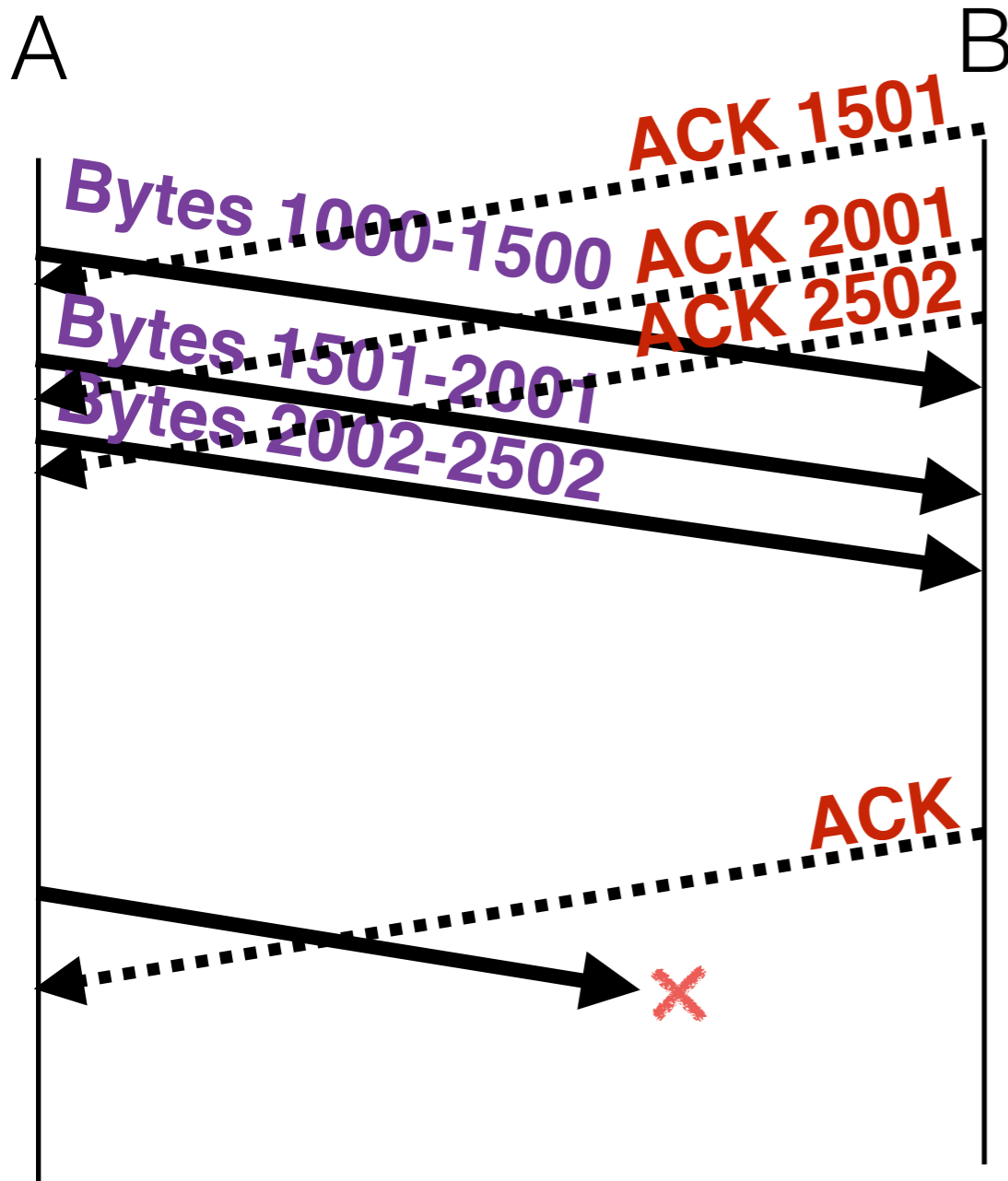
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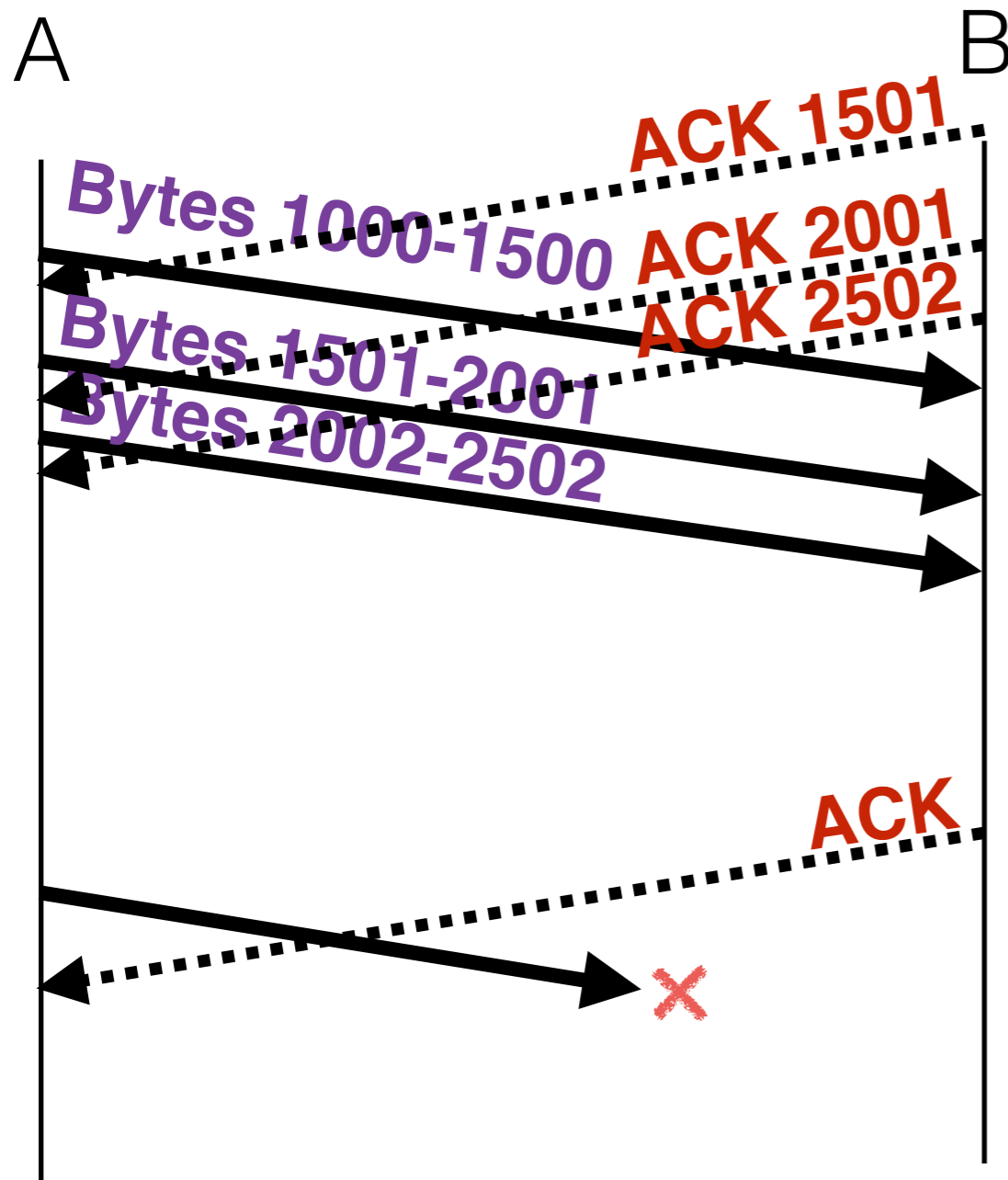
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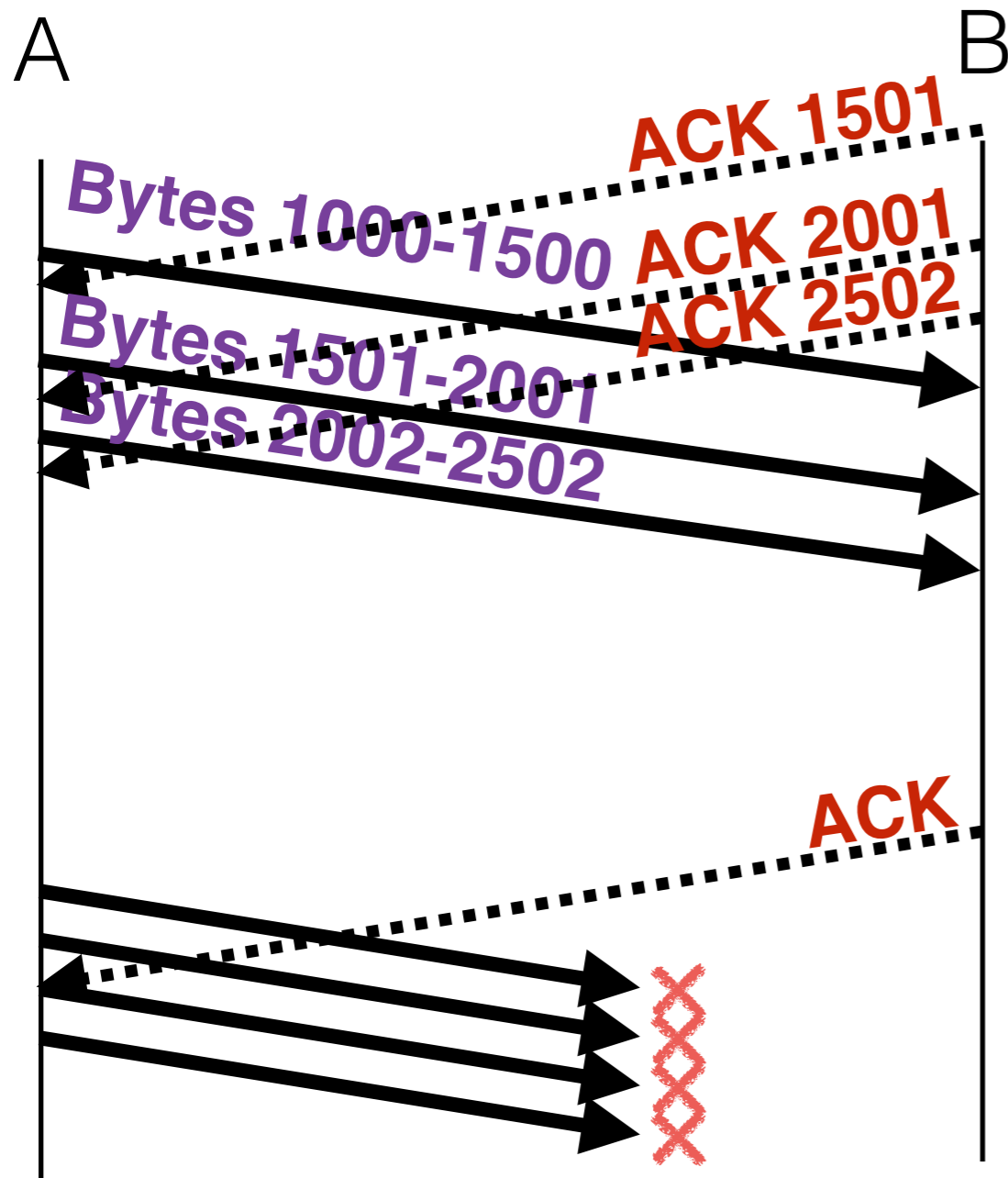
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Opt-ack attack



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Eventually, A’s outgoing packets will start to get dropped.

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Amplification

- The big deal with this attack is its *Amplification Factor*
 - Attacker sends x bytes of data, causing the victim to send many more bytes of data in response
 - Recent examples: NTP, DNSSEC
- Amplified in TCP due to cumulative ACKs
 - “ACK x ” says “I’ve seen all bytes up to but not including x ”

Opt-ack's amplification factor

- Max bytes sent by victim per ACK:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Packets sent per ACK} \\ \hline \text{Max window size} \\ \hline \text{MSS} \end{array} \times \begin{array}{c} \text{Bytes per packet} \\ (14 + 40 + \text{MSS}) \\ \text{Ethernet} \quad \text{TCP/IP} \quad \text{Payload} \end{array}$$

- Max ACKs attacker can send per second:

Opt-ack's amplification factor

- Max bytes sent by victim per ACK:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Packets sent per ACK} \\ \hline \text{Max window size} \\ \hline \text{MSS} \end{array} \times \begin{array}{c} \text{Bytes per packet} \\ (14 + 40 + \text{MSS}) \\ \text{Ethernet} \quad \text{TCP/IP} \quad \text{Payload} \end{array}$$

- Max ACKs attacker can send per second:

$$\frac{\text{Attacker bandwidth (bytes/sec)}}{(14 + 40)}$$

Size of ACK packet

Opt-ack's amplification factor

- Boils down to max window size and MSS
 - Default max window size: 65,536
 - Default MSS: 536
- Default amp factor: $65536 * (1/536 + 1/54) \sim \mathbf{1336x}$
- Window scaling lets you increase this by a factor of 2^{14}
- Window scaling amp factor: $\sim 1336 * 2^{14} \sim \mathbf{22M}$
- Using minimum MSS of 88: $\sim \mathbf{32M}$

Opt-ack defenses

- Is there a way we could defend against opt-ack in a way that is still compatible with existing implementations of TCP?
- An important goal in networking is *incremental deployment*: ideally, we should be able to benefit from a system/modification when even a subset of hosts deploy it.

NAMING

- IP addresses allow global connectivity
- But they're pretty useless for humans!
 - Can't be expected to pick their own IP address
 - Can't be expected to remember another's IP address
- **DHCP** : Setting IP addresses
- **DNS** : Mapping a memorable name to a routable IP address

DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL

New host

DHCP server



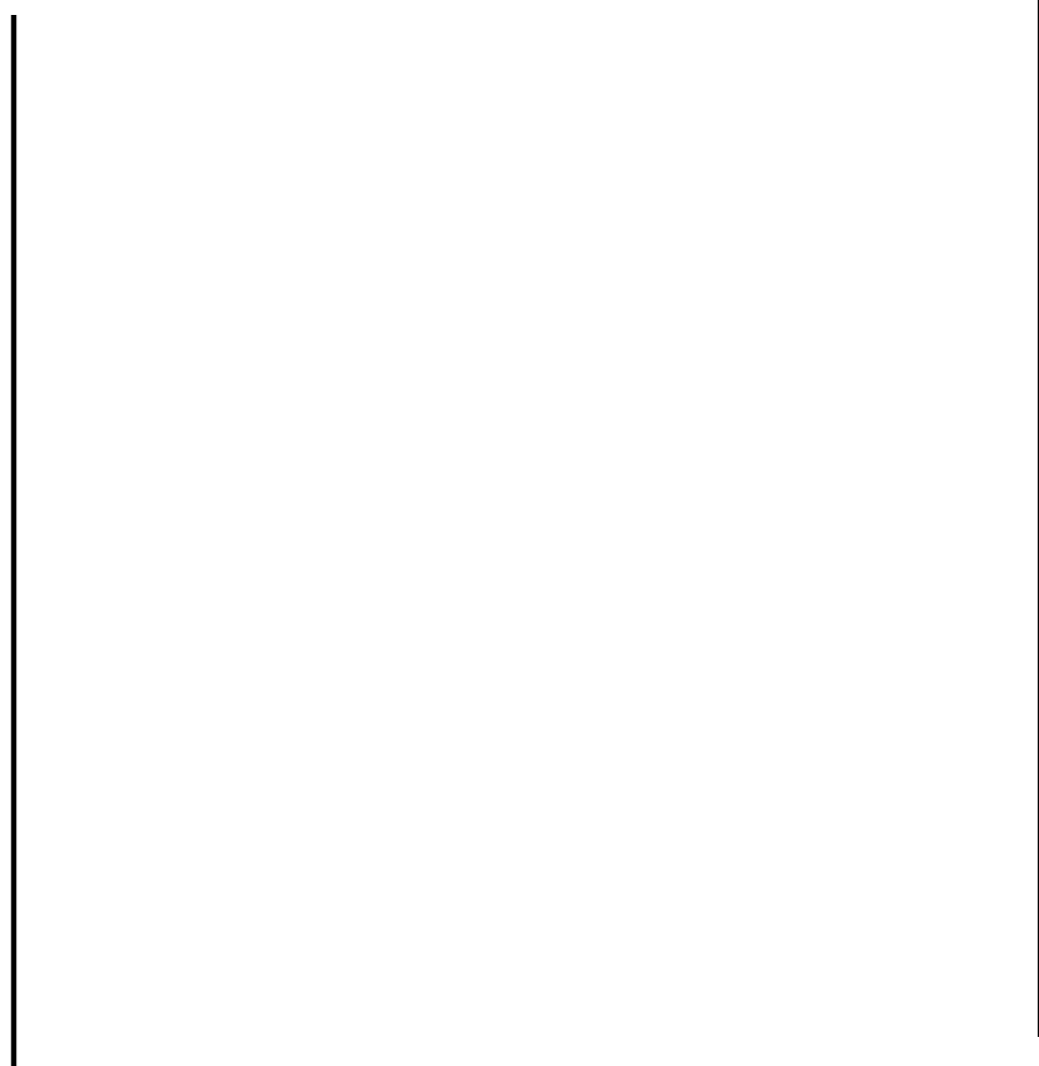
DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL

New host

Doesn't have an
IP address yet
(can't set src addr)

DHCP server



DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL

New host

Doesn't have an
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Doesn't know *who*
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DHCP server



DHCP

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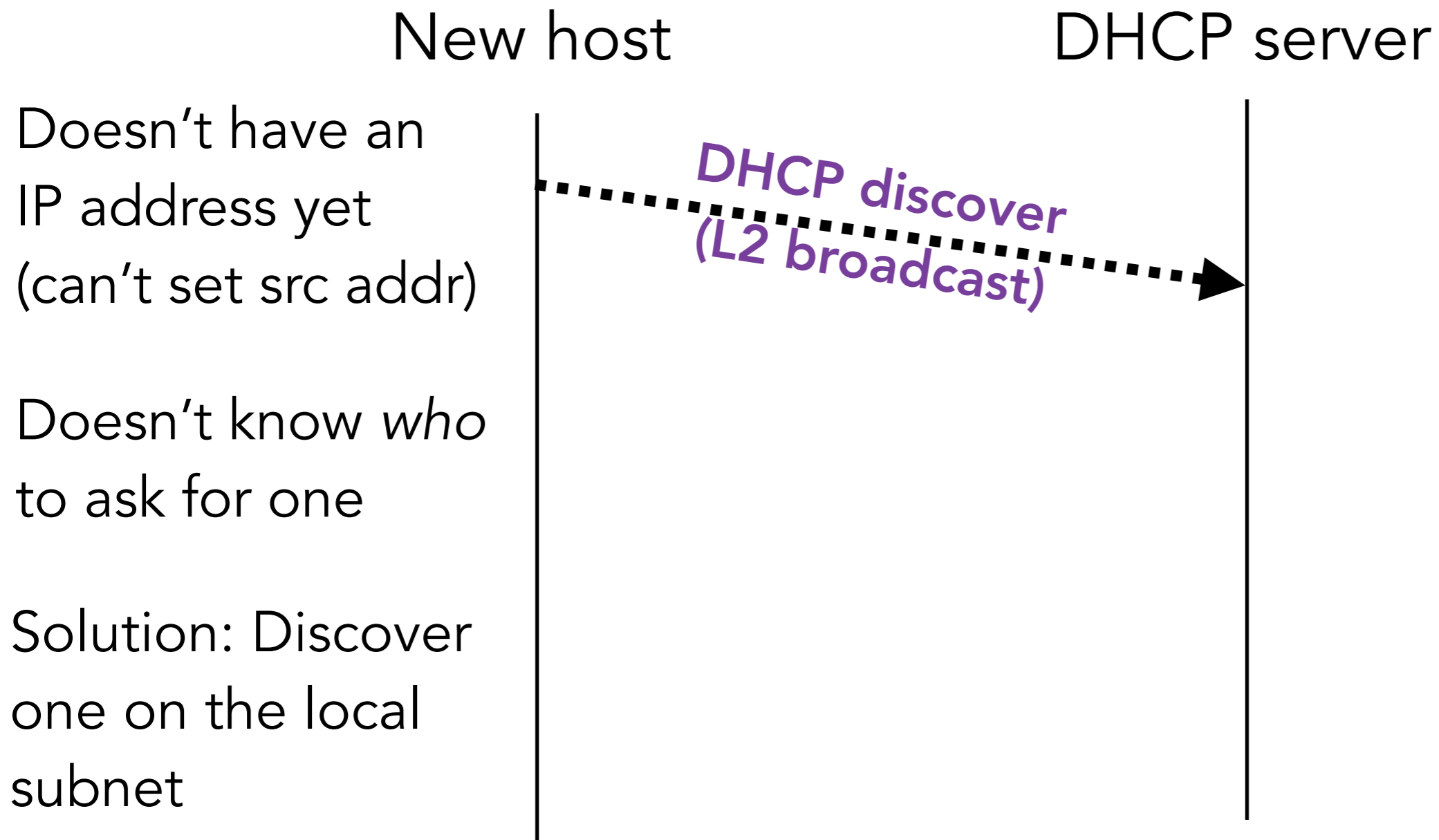
Doesn't know *who*
to ask for one

Solution: Discover
one on the local
subnet

DHCP server

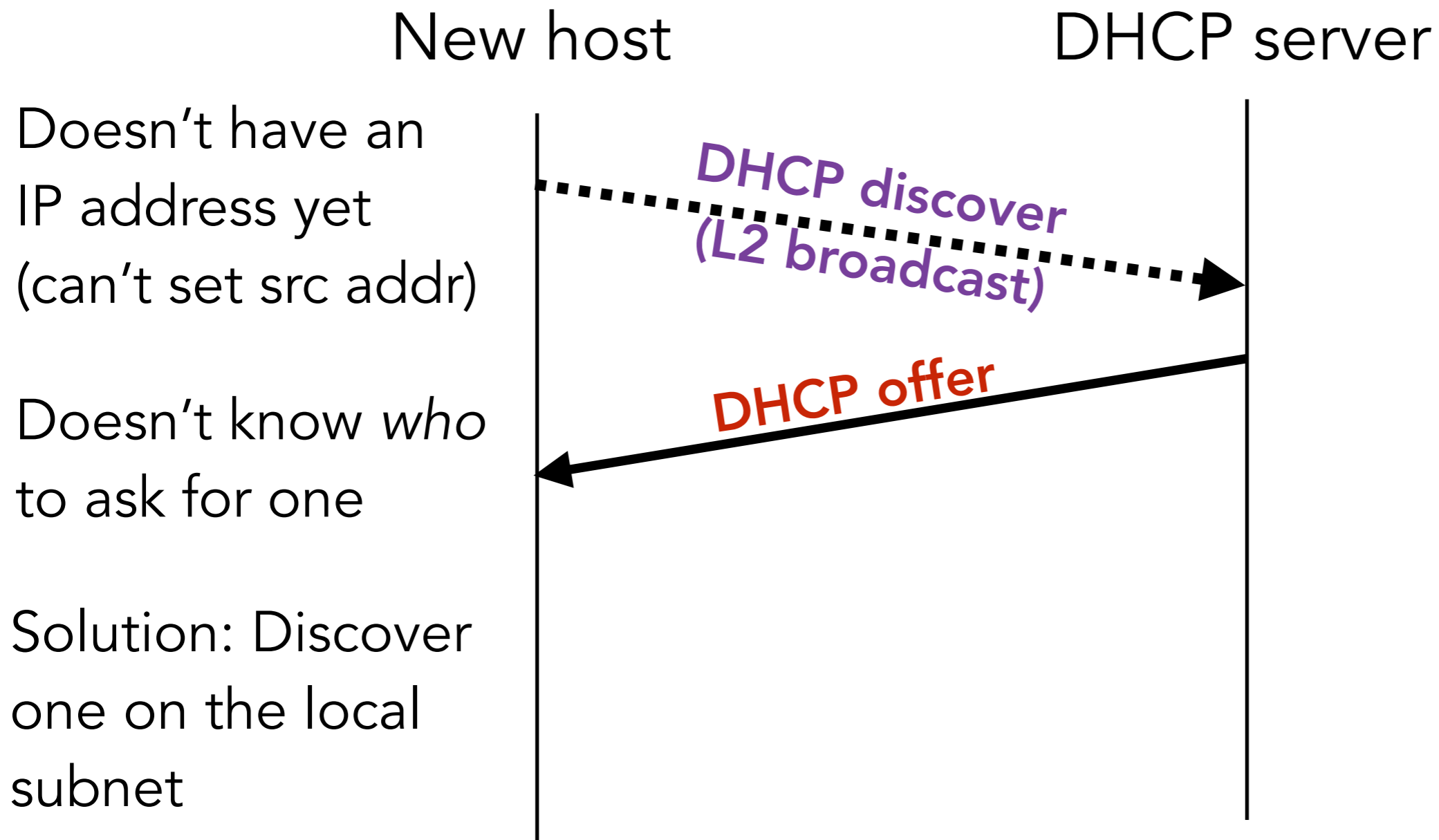
DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL



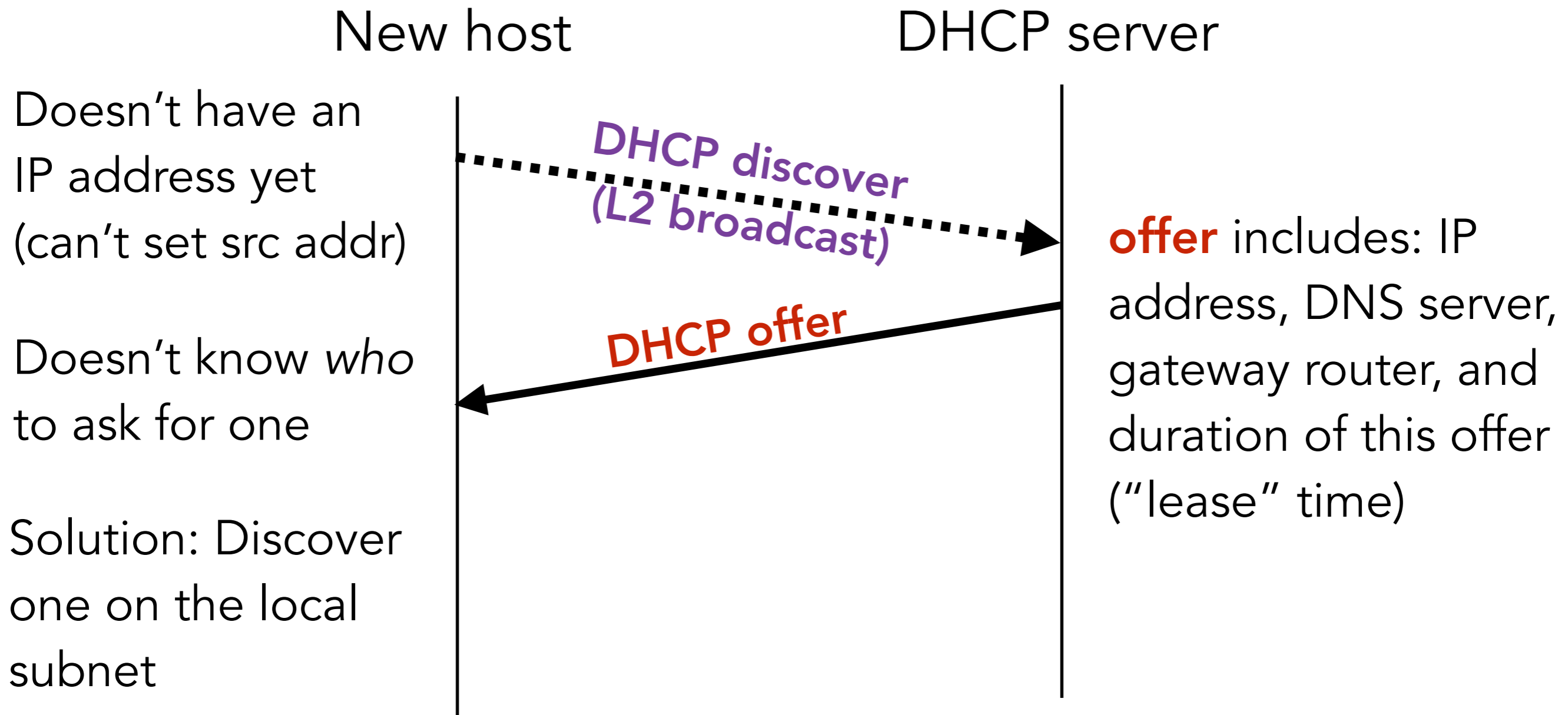
DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL



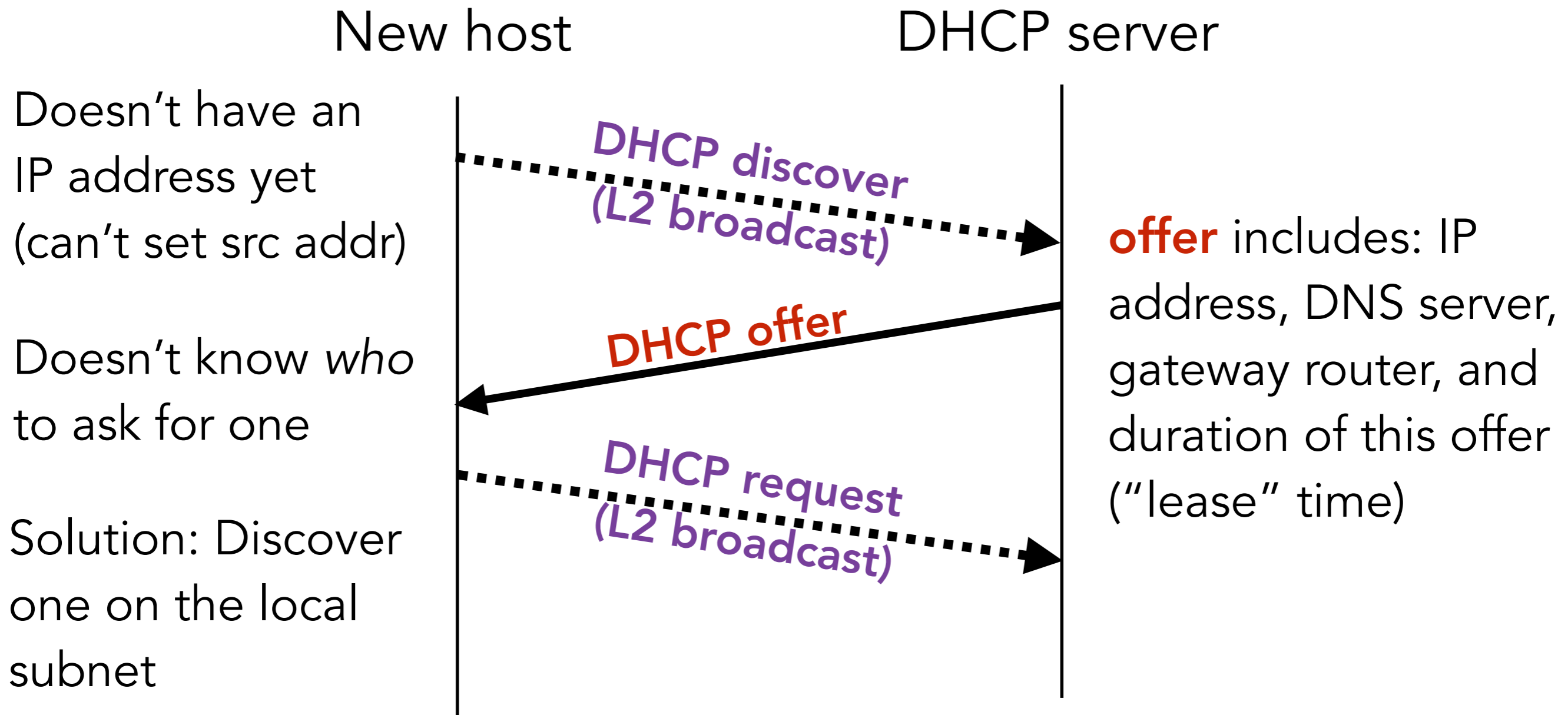
DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL



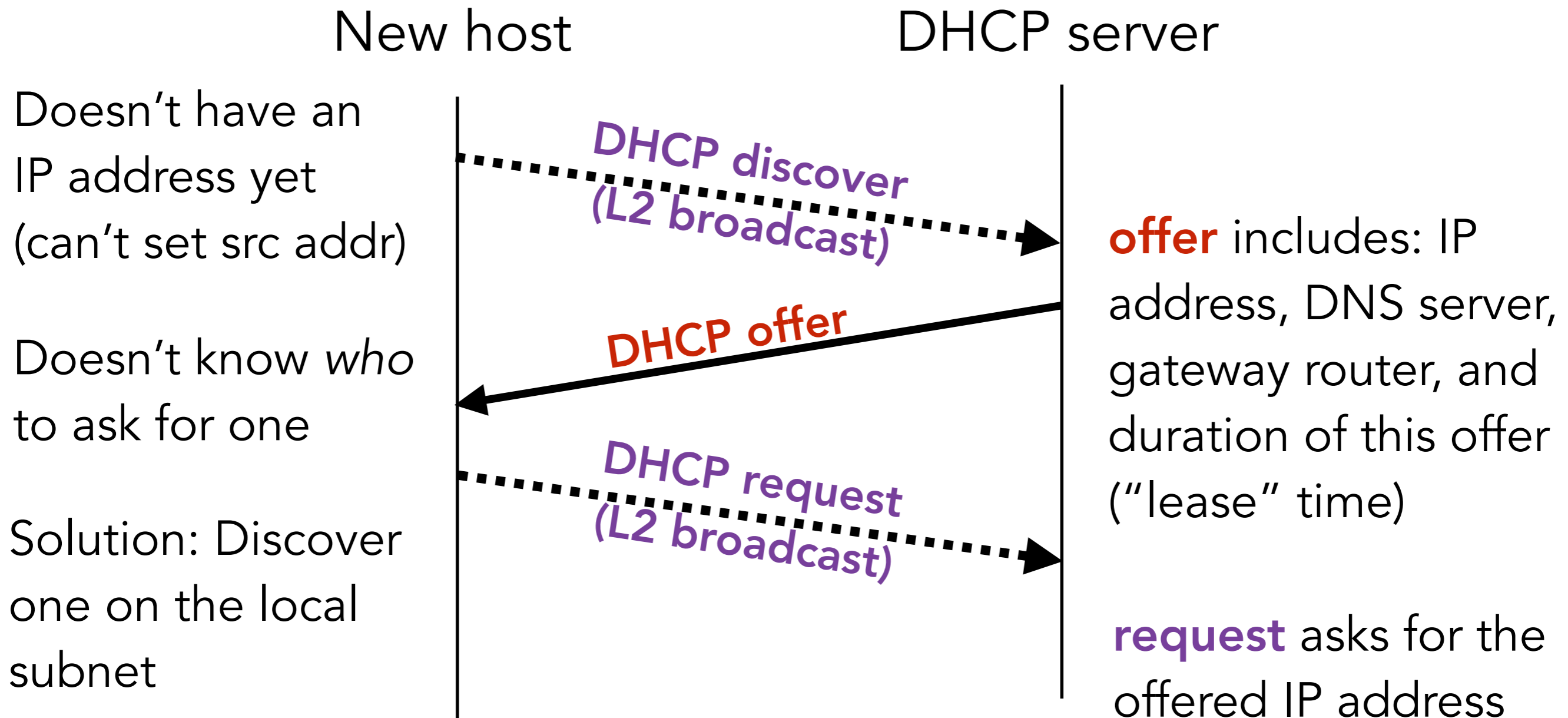
DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL



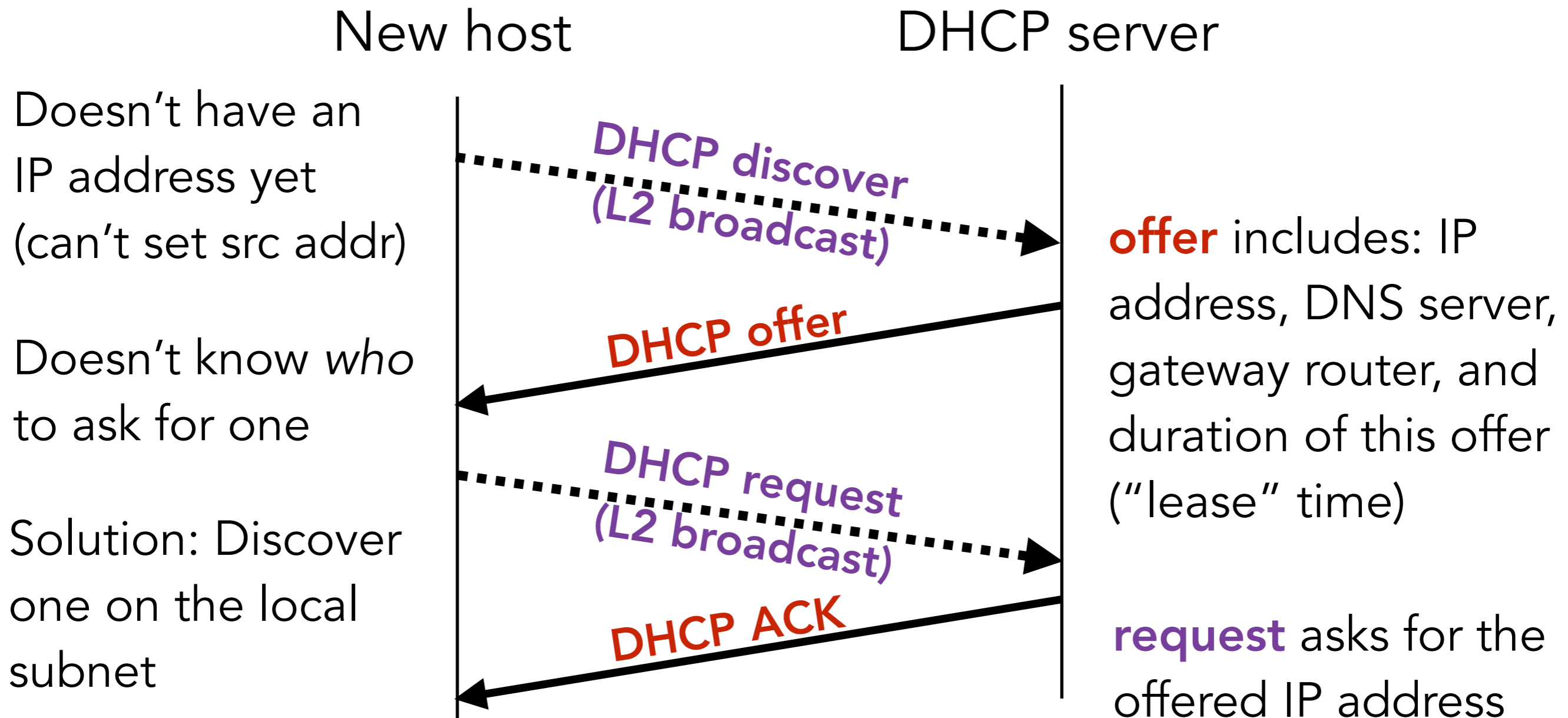
DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL



DHCP

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL



DHCP ATTACKS

- Requests are broadcast: attackers on the same subnet can hear new host's request
- Race the *actual* DHCP server to replace:
 - DNS server
 - Redirect any of a host's lookups ("what IP address should I use when trying to connect to google.com?") to a machine of the attacker's choice
 - Gateway
 - The gateway is where the host sends all of its outgoing traffic (so that the host doesn't have to figure out routes himself)
 - Modify the gateway to intercept all of a user's traffic
 - Then relay it to the gateway (MITM)
 - How could the user detect this?

HOSTNAMES AND IP ADDRESSES

```
gold:~ dml$ ping google.com
PING google.com (74.125.228.65): 56 data bytes
64 bytes from 74.125.228.65: icmp_seq=0 ttl=52 time=22.330 ms
64 bytes from 74.125.228.65: icmp_seq=1 ttl=52 time=6.304 ms
64 bytes from 74.125.228.65: icmp_seq=2 ttl=52 time=5.186 ms
64 bytes from 74.125.228.65: icmp_seq=3 ttl=52 time=12.805 ms
```

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google.com is easy to remember, but not routable

74.125.228.65 is routable

Name resolution:

The process of mapping from one to the other

TERMINOLOGY

- www.cs.umd.edu = "domain name"
 - www.cs.umd.edu is a "subdomain" of cs.umd.edu
- Domain names can map to a set of IP addresses

```
gold:~ dml$ dig google.com
```

```
; <<>> DiG 9.8.3-P1 <<>> google.com
```

```
;; global options: +cmd
```

```
;; Got answer:
```

```
;; ->>HEADER<<- opcode: QUERY, status: NOERROR, id: 35815
```

```
;; flags: qr rd ra; QUERY: 1, ANSWER: 11, AUTHORITY: 0, ADDITIONAL: 0
```

```
;; QUESTION SECTION:
```

```
;google.com.          IN      A
```

```
;; ANSWER SECTION:
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.70
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.66
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.64
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.69
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.78
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.73
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.68
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.65
```

```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.72
```

We'll understand this more in a bit; for now, note that google.com is mapped to many IP addresses

TERMINOLOGY

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google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.65
```

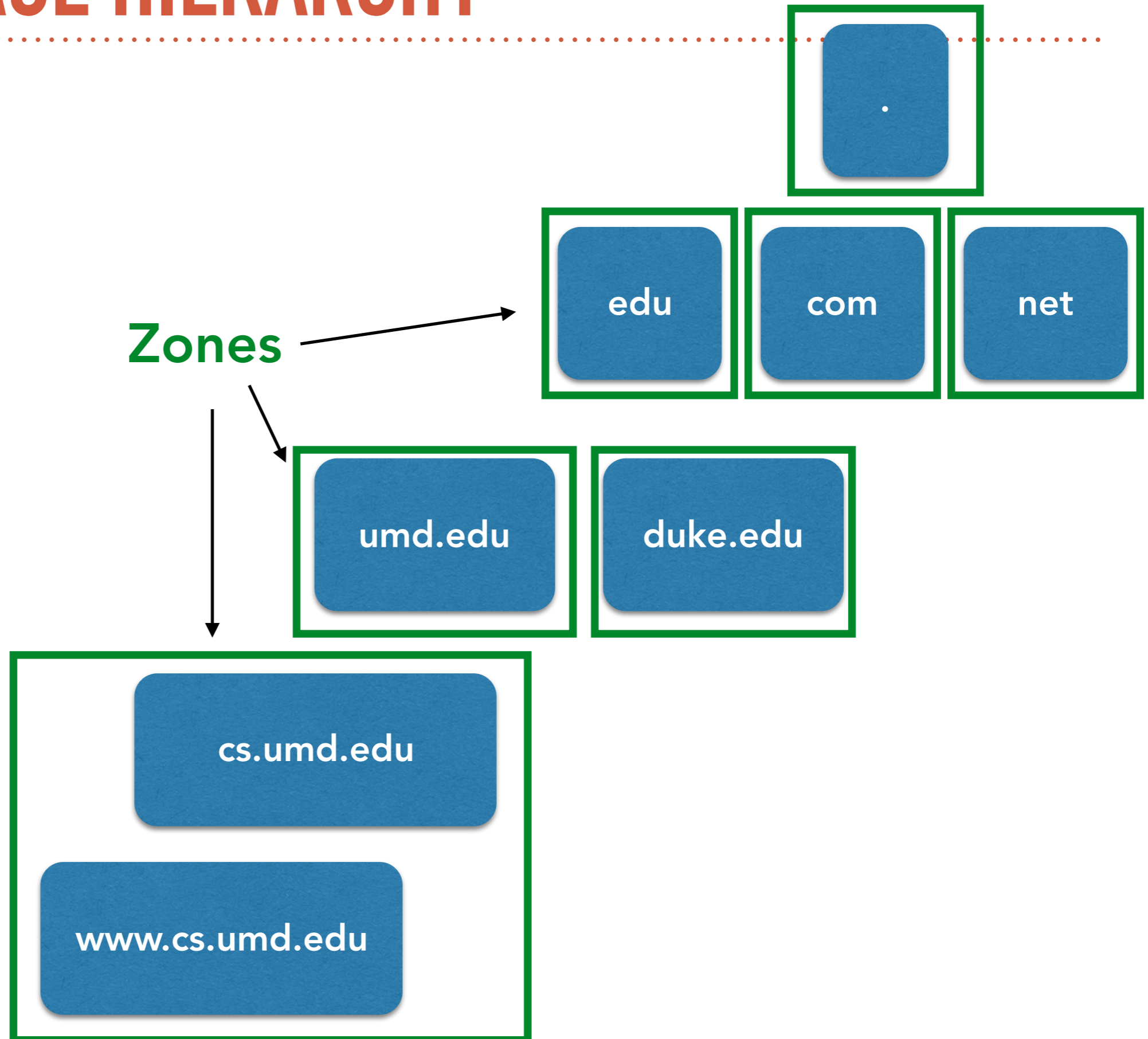
```
google.com.          105 IN    A     74.125.228.72
```

We'll understand this more in a bit; for now, note that google.com is mapped to many IP addresses

TERMINOLOGY

- “**zone**” = a portion of the DNS namespace, divided up for administrative reasons
 - Think of it like a collection of hostname/IP address pairs that happen to be lumped together
 - `www.google.com`, `mail.google.com`, `dev.google.com`, ...
- Subdomains do not need to be in the same zone
 - Allows the owner of one zone (`umd.edu`) to delegate responsibility to another (`cs.umd.edu`)

NAMESPACE HIERARCHY



TERMINOLOGY

- **“Nameserver”** = A piece of code that answers queries of the form “What is the IP address for foo.bar.com?”
 - Every zone must run ≥ 2 nameservers
 - Several very common nameserver implementations: BIND, PowerDNS (more popular in Europe)
- **“Authoritative nameserver”**:
 - Every zone has to maintain a file that maps IP addresses and hostnames (“www.cs.umd.edu is 128.8.127.3”)
 - One of the name servers in the zone has the *master* copy of this file. It is the authority on the mapping.

TERMINOLOGY

- “**Resolver**” - while name servers *answer* queries, resolvers *ask* queries.
- Every OS has a resolver. Typically small and pretty dumb. All it typically does it forward the query to a local...
- “**Recursive nameserver**” - a nameserver which will do the heavy lifting, issuing queries on behalf of the client resolver until an authoritative answer returns.
- Prevalence
 - There is almost always a *local* (private) recursive name server
 - But very rare for name servers to support recursive queries otherwise

TERMINOLOGY

- “**Record**” (or “resource record”) = usually think of it as a mapping between hostname and IP address
- But more generally, it can map virtually anything to virtually anything
- Many record types:
 - (**A**)ddress records (IP <-> hostname)
 - Mail server (**MX**, mail exchanger)
 - SOA (start of authority, to delineate different zones)
 - Others for DNSSEC to be able to share keys
- Records are the unit of information

TERMINOLOGY

Nameservers within a zone must be able to give:

- **Authoritative answers (A)** for hostnames in that zone
 - The umd.edu zone's nameservers must be able to tell us what the IP address for umd.edu is

"A" record: umd.edu = 54.84.241.99

54.84.241.99 is a valid
IP address for umd.edu

TERMINOLOGY

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54.84.241.99 is a valid IP address for umd.edu

- Pointers to **name servers (NS)** who host zones in its subdomains
 - The umd.edu zone's nameservers must be able to tell us what the name and IP address of the cs.umd.edu zone's

"NS" record: cs.umd.edu = ipa01.cs.umd.edu.

Ask ipa01.cs.umd.edu for all cs.umd.edu subdomains

DNS

Domain Name Service at a very high level

Requesting
host

What is an IP address
for cs.umd.edu?

DNS

Domain Name Service at a very high level

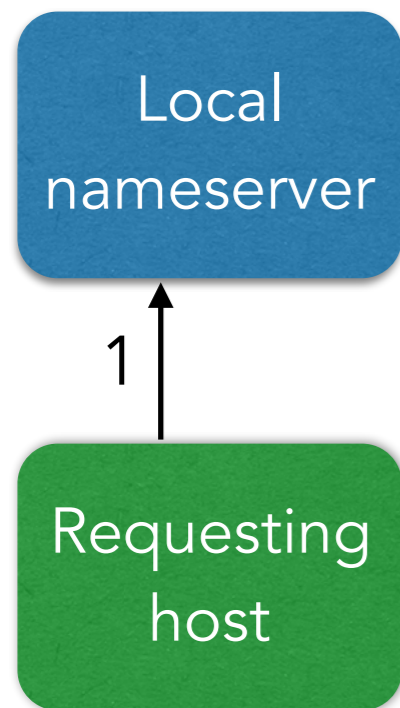
Local
nameserver

Requesting
host

What is an IP address
for cs.umd.edu?

DNS

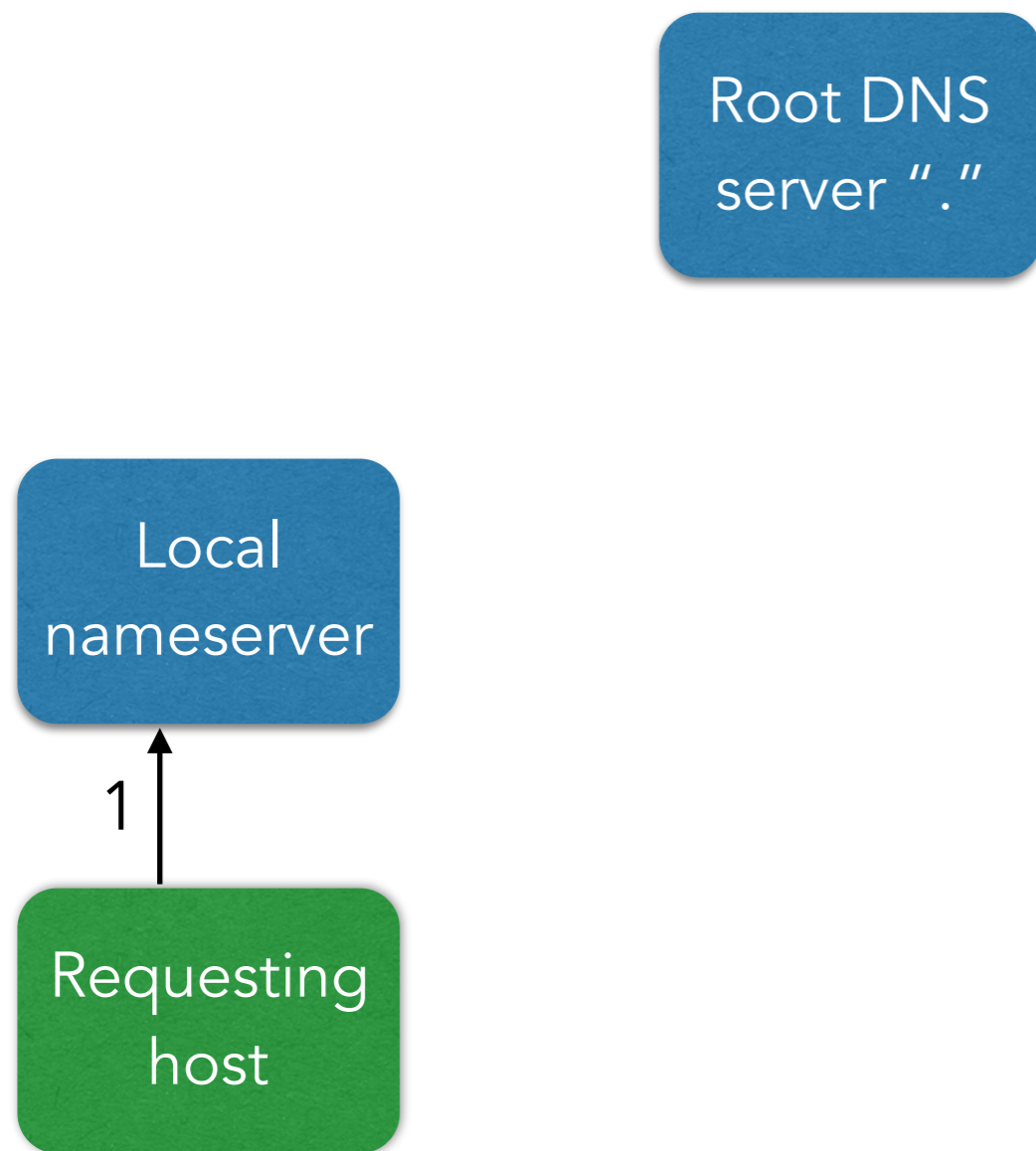
Domain Name Service at a very high level



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DNS

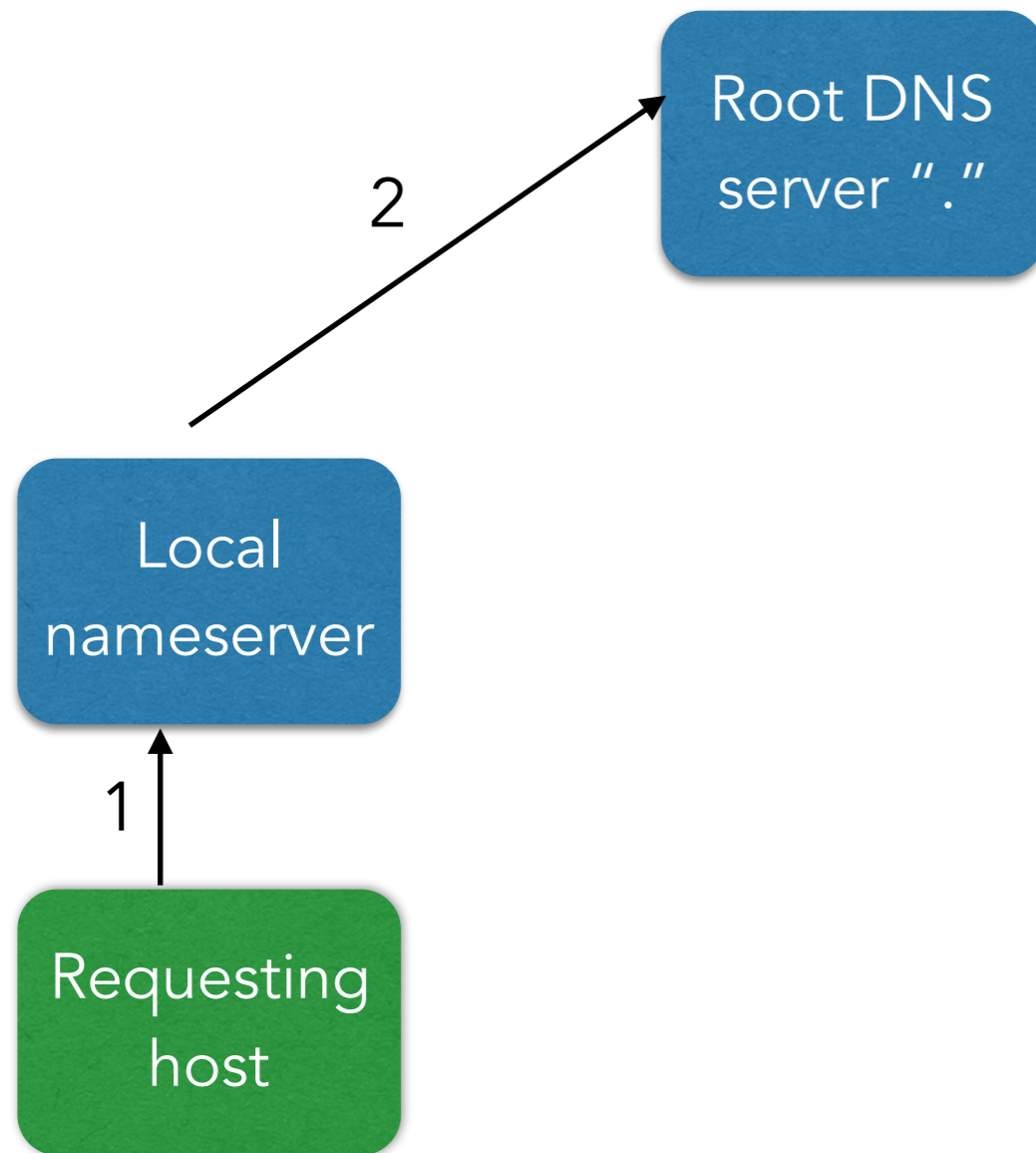
Domain Name Service at a very high level



What is an IP address for `cs.umd.edu`?

DNS

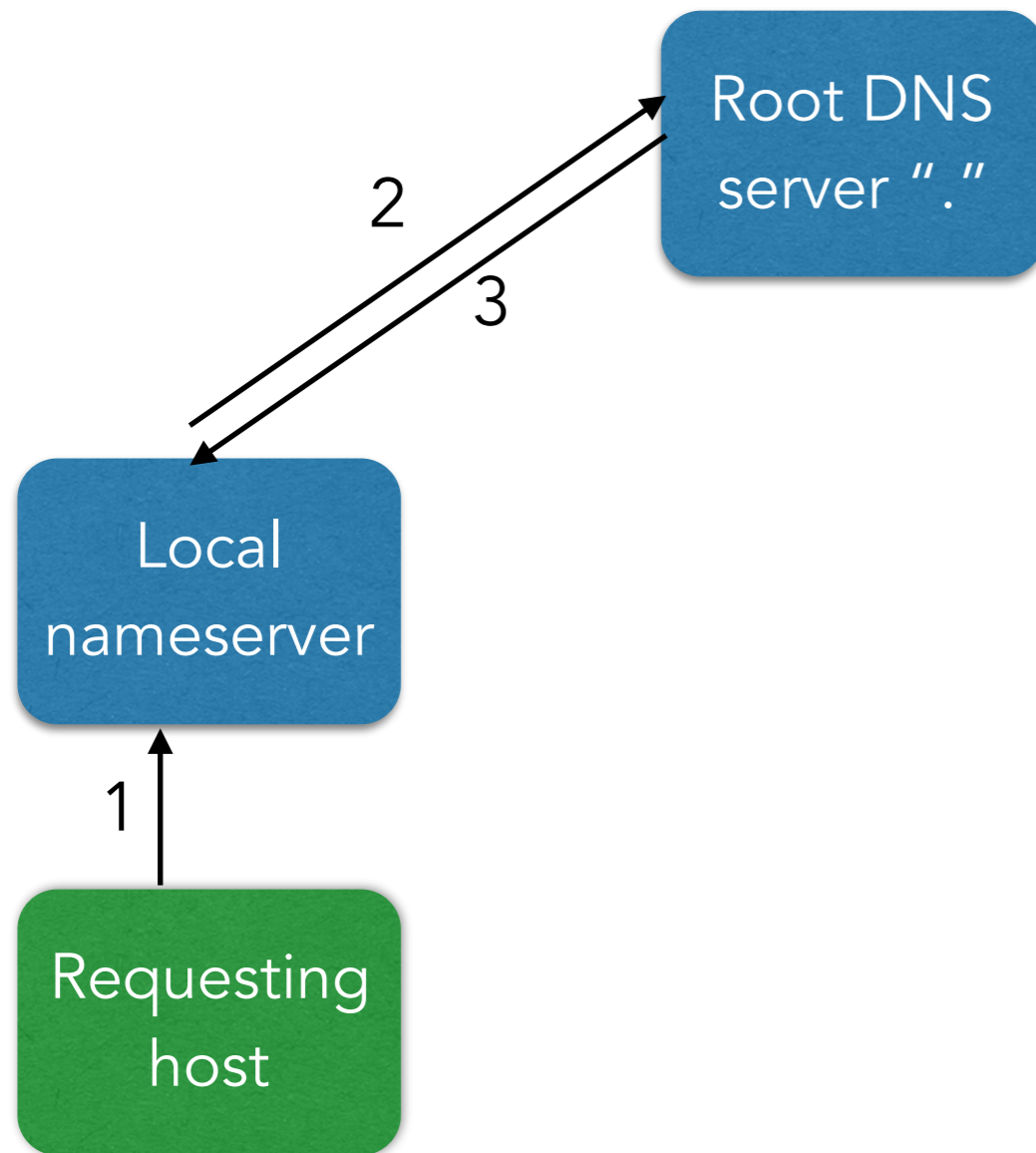
Domain Name Service at a very high level



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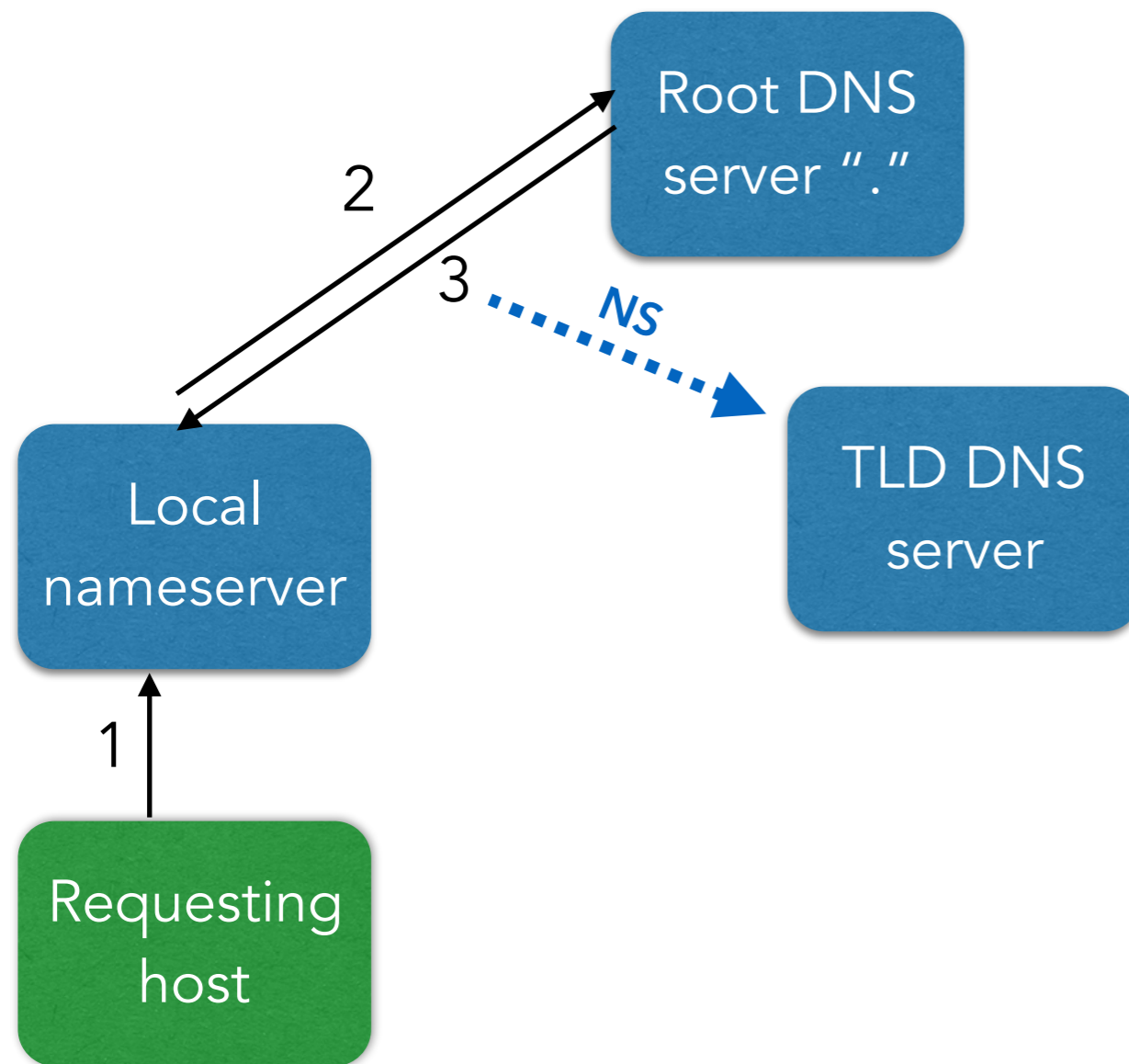
Domain Name Service at a very high level



What is an IP address
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DNS

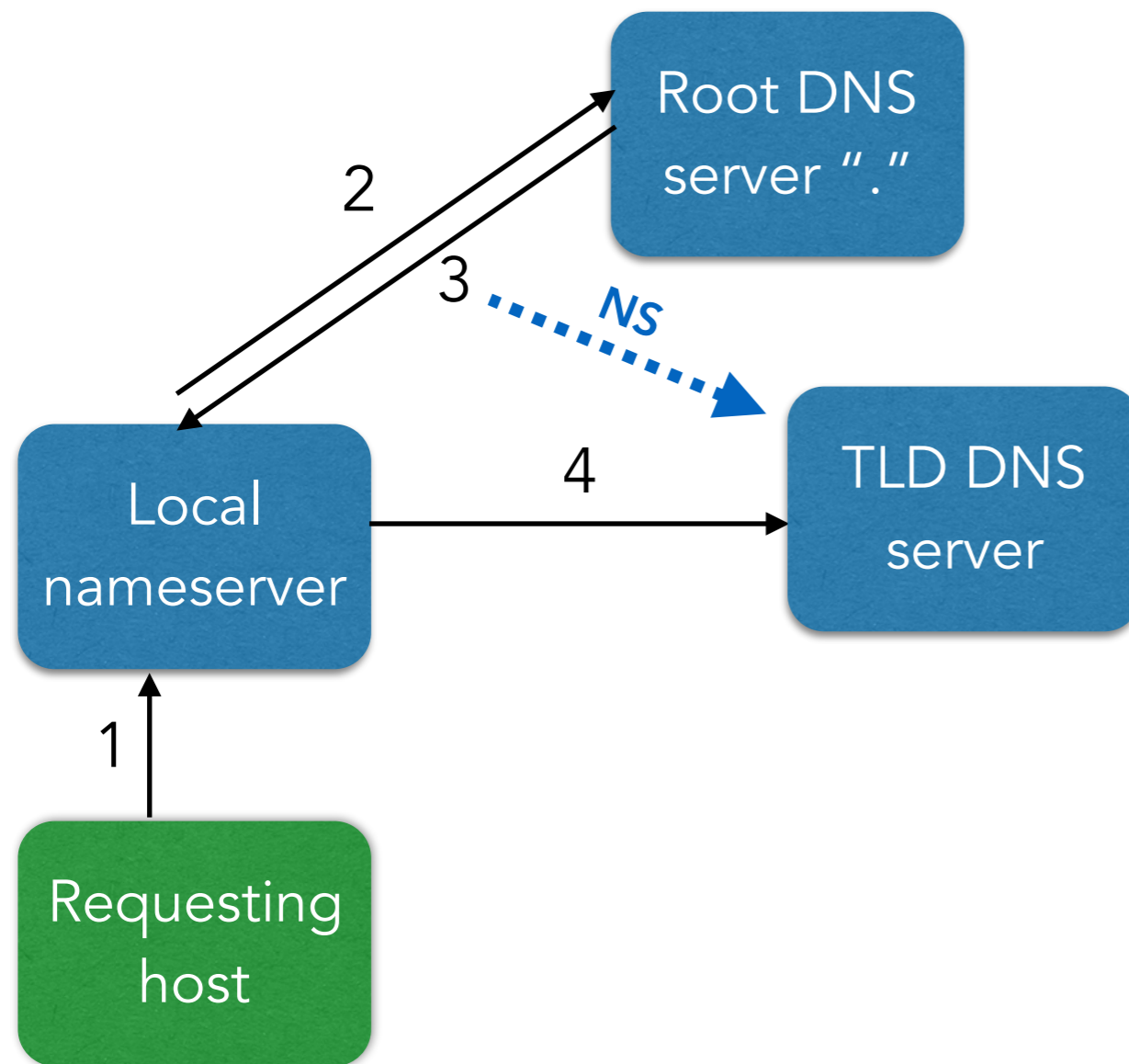
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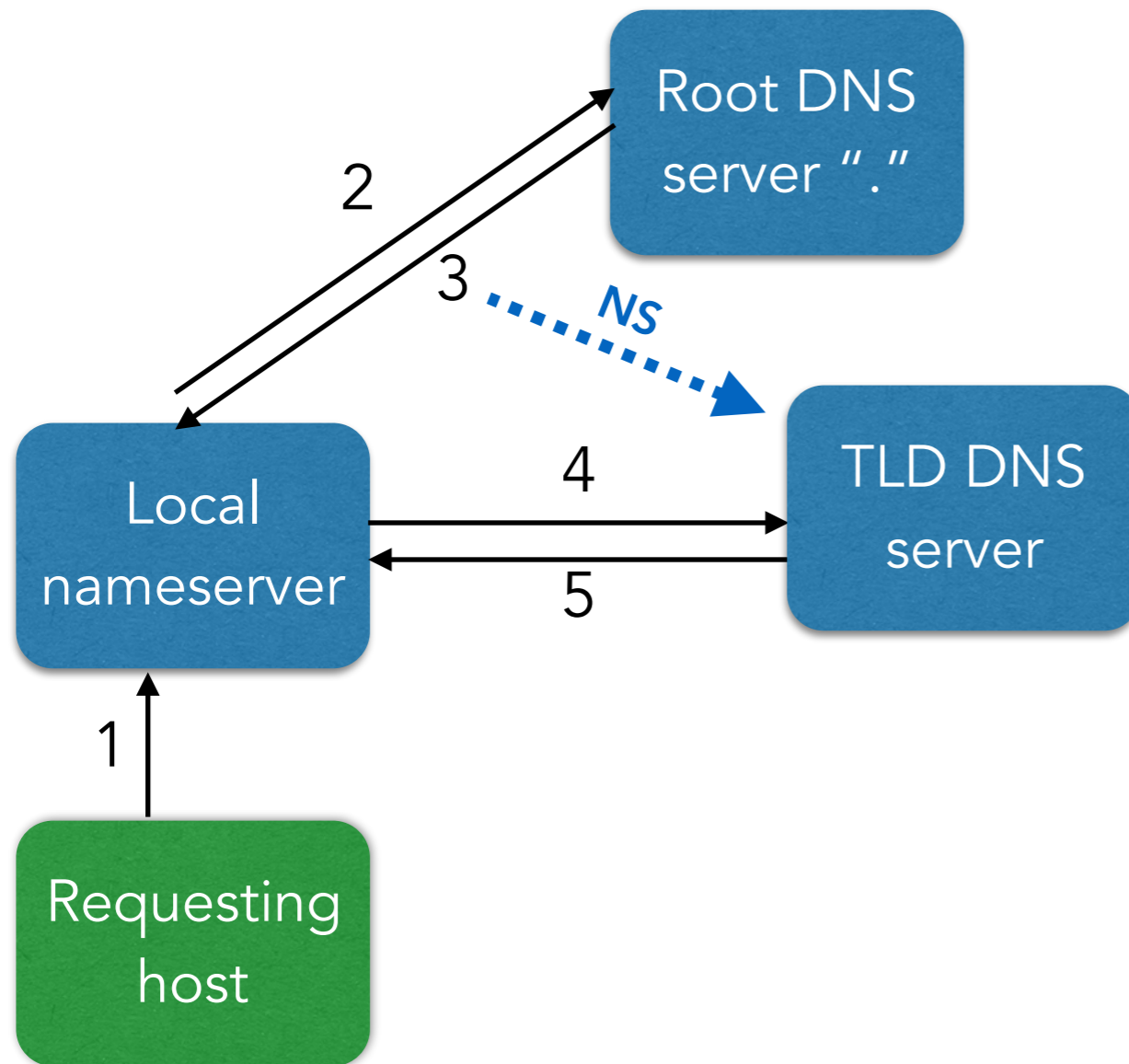
Domain Name Service at a very high level



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DNS

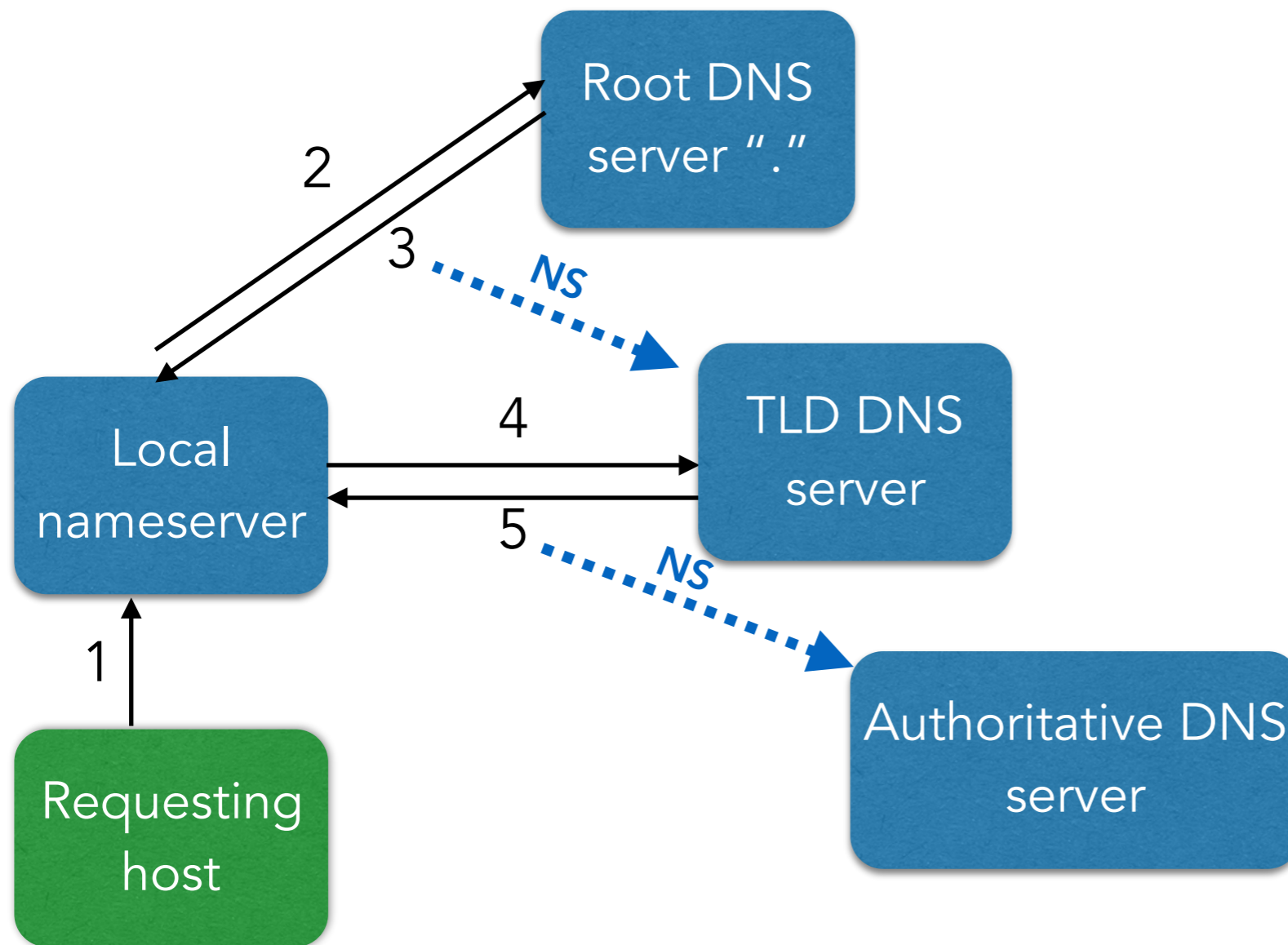
Domain Name Service at a very high level



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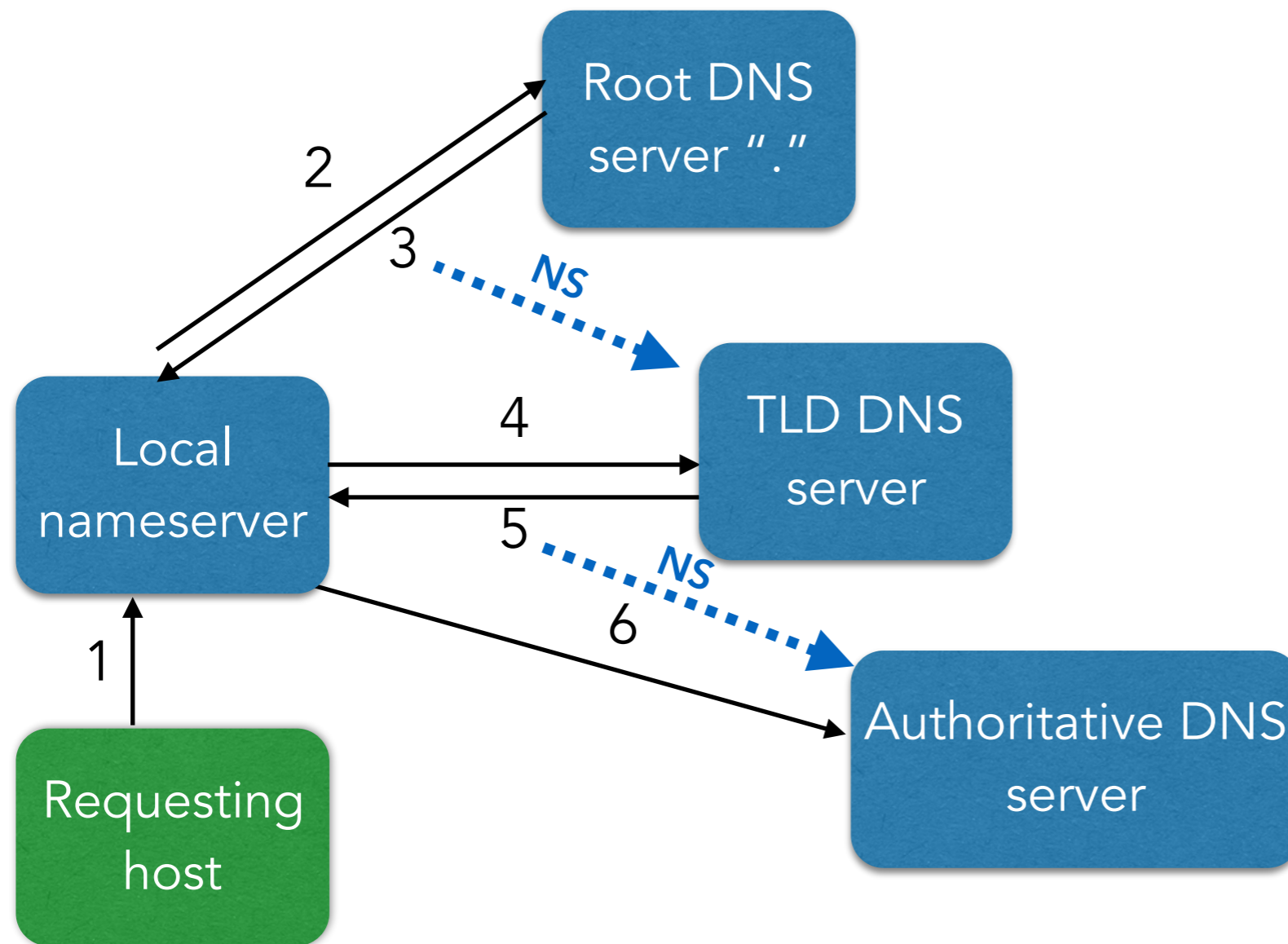
Domain Name Service at a very high level



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DNS

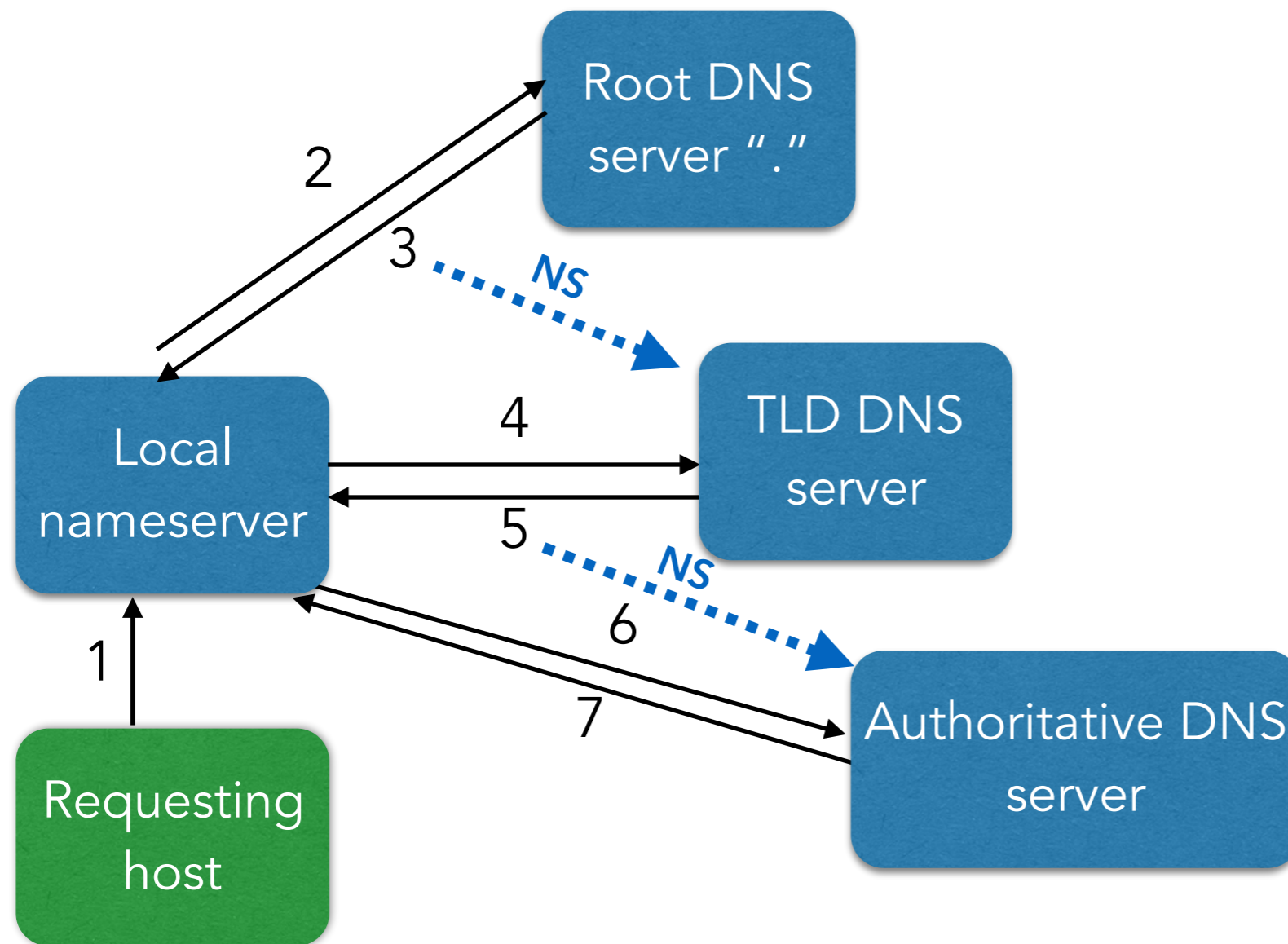
Domain Name Service at a very high level



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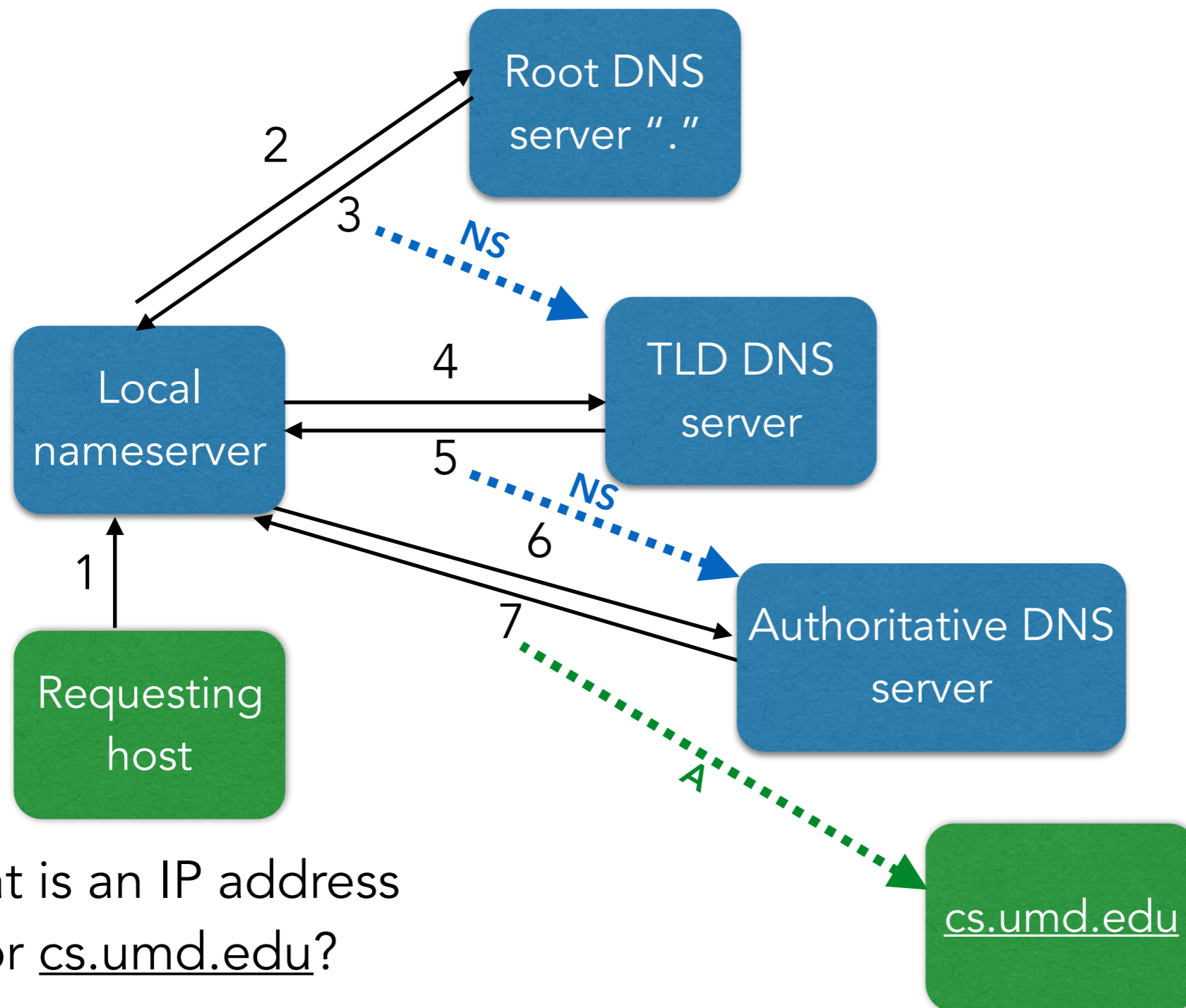
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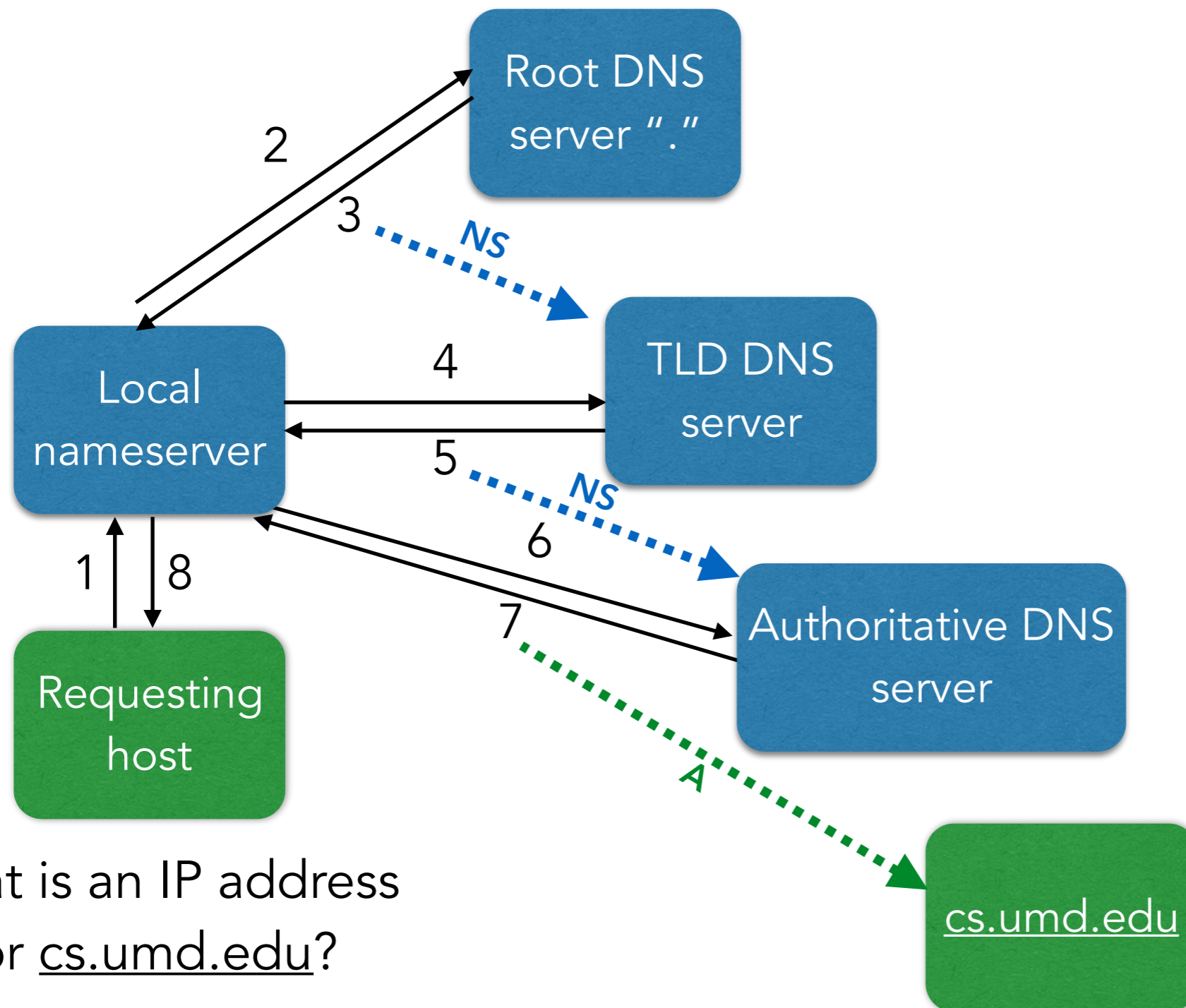
Domain Name Service at a very high level



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DNS

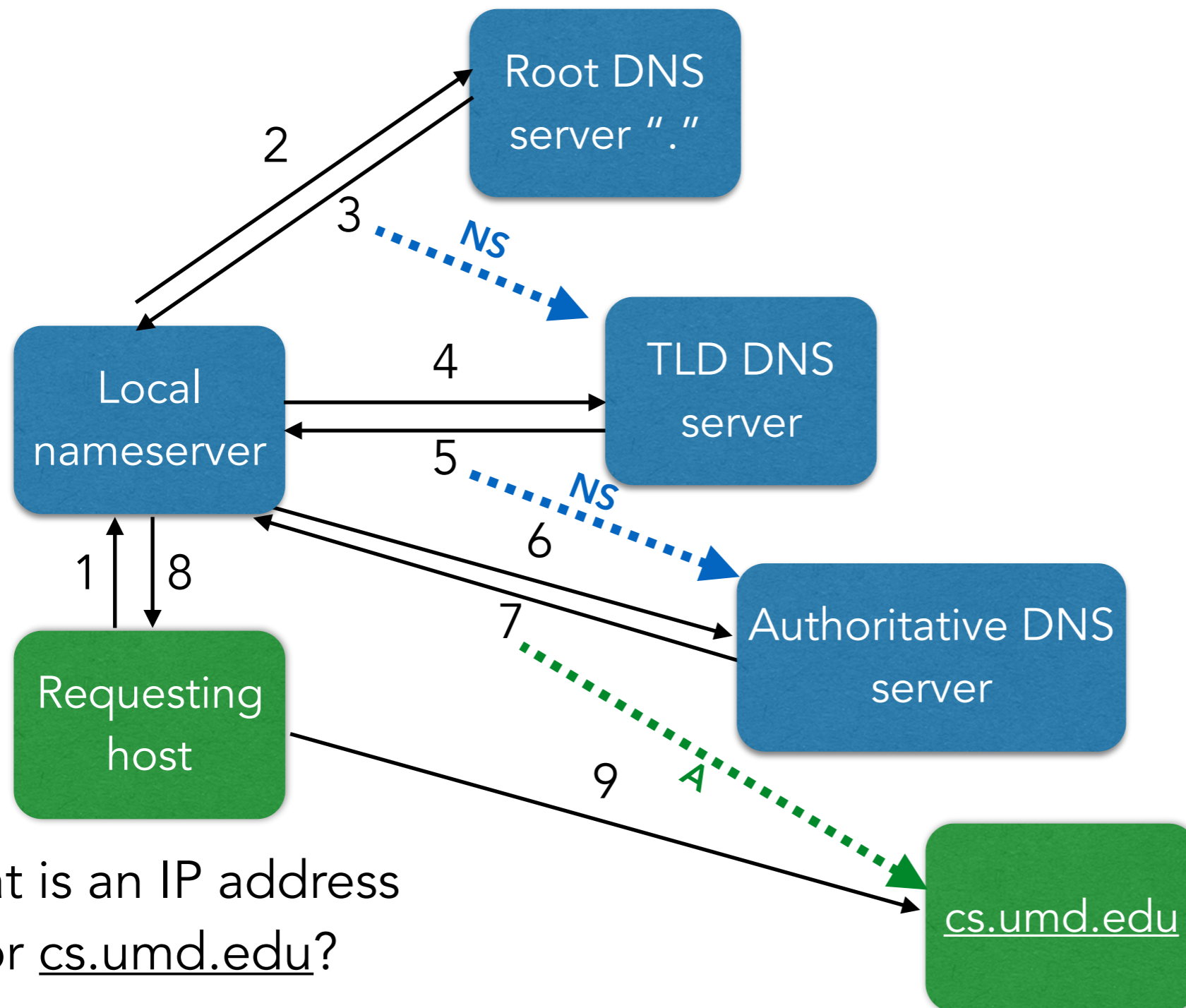
Domain Name Service at a very high level



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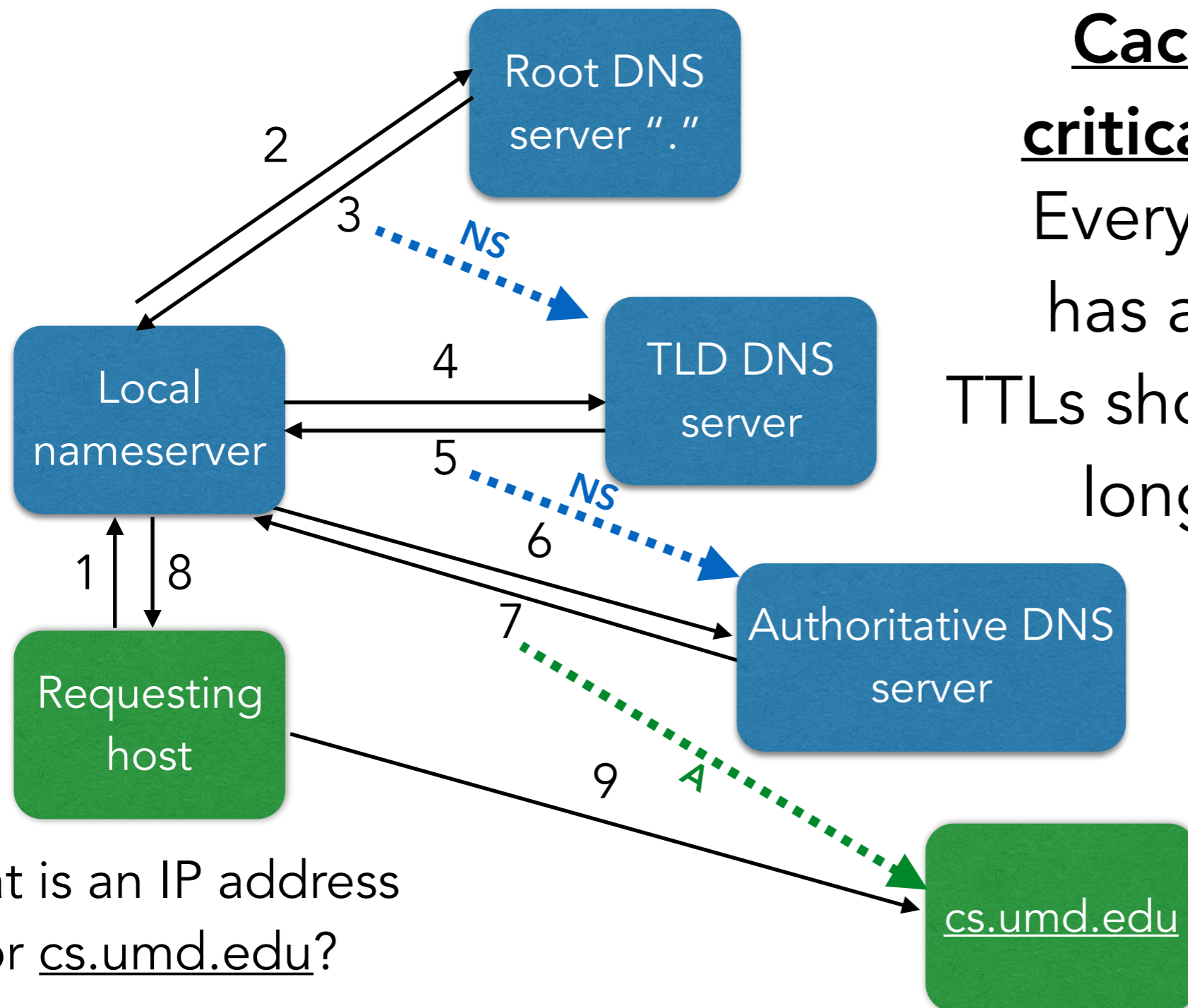
Domain Name Service at a very high level



What is an IP address for cs.umd.edu?

DNS

Domain Name Service at a very high level



What is an IP address for `cs.umd.edu`?

Caching responses is critical to DNS's success

Every response (3,5,7,8) has a time-to-live (TTL). TTLs should be reasonably long (days), but some are minutes.

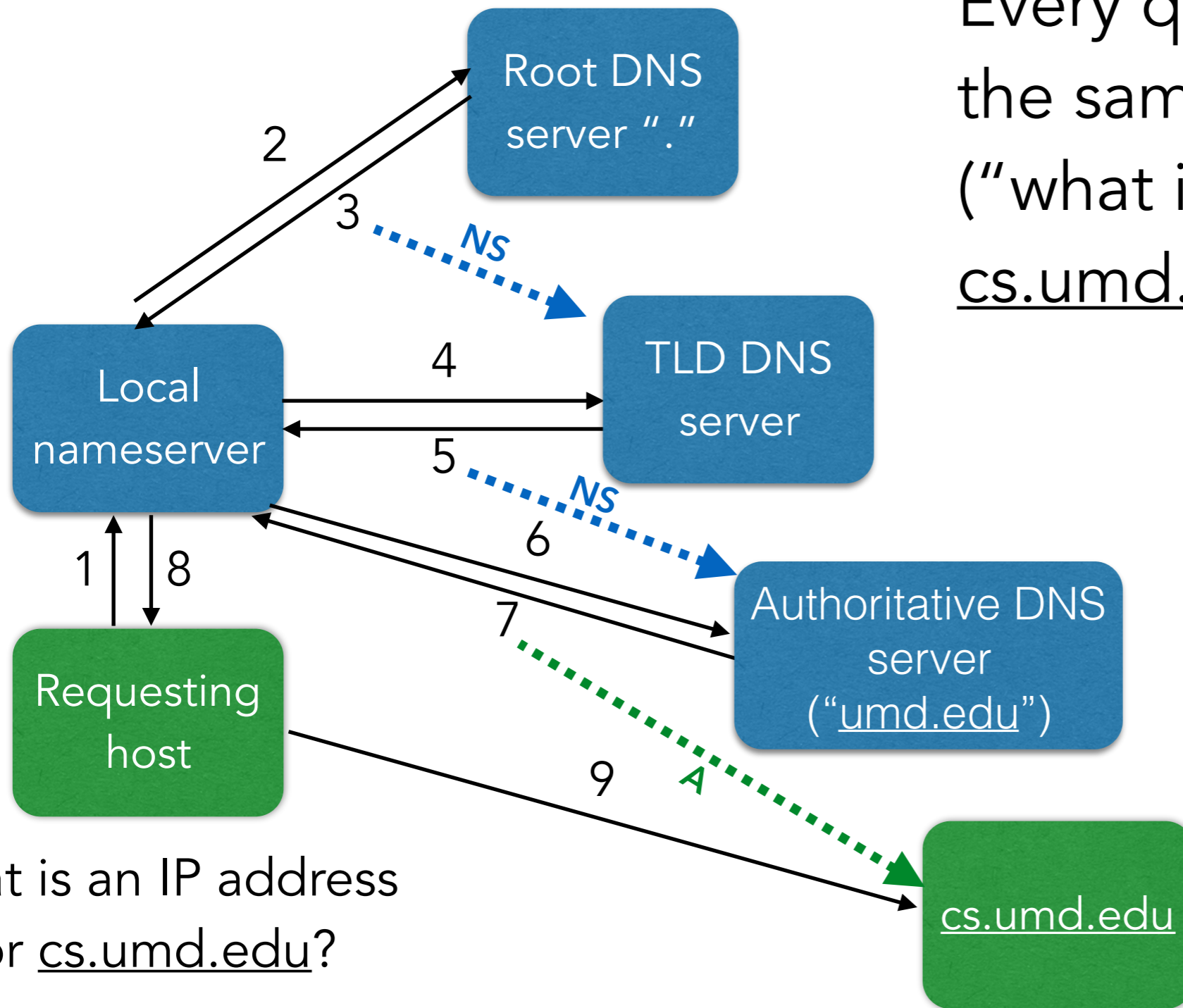
HOW DO THEY KNOW THESE IP ADDRESSES?

- Local DNS server: host learned this via DHCP
- A parent knows its children: part of the registration process
- Root nameserver: *hardcoded* into the local DNS server (and every DNS server)
 - 13 root servers (logically): A-root, B-root, ..., M-root
 - These IP addresses change *very* infrequently
 - **UMD runs D-root.**
 - IP address changed beginning of 2013!!
 - For the most part, the change-over went alright, but Lots of weird things happened — ask me some time.

CACHING

- Central to DNS's success
- Also central to attacks
- "Cache poisoning": filling a victim's cache with false information

QUERIES



Every query (2,4,6) has the same request in it ("what is the IP address for cs.umd.edu?")

But **different**:

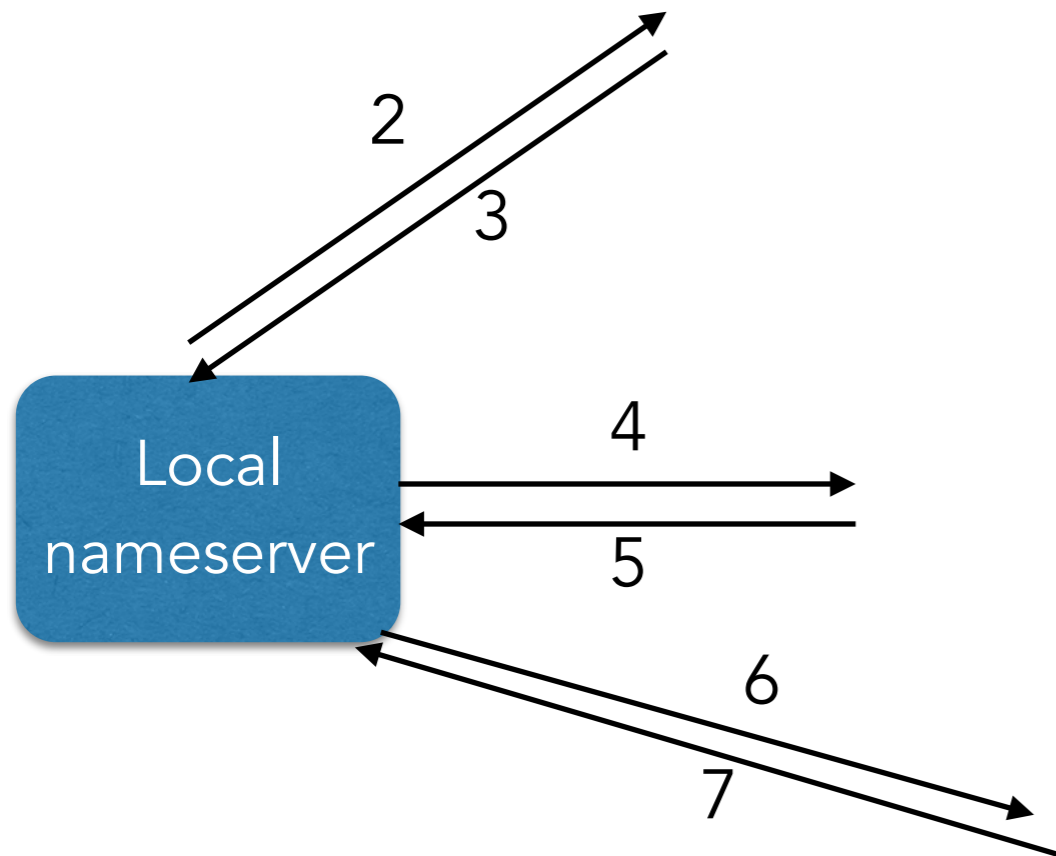
- dst IP (port = 53)
- query ID

What is an IP address for cs.umd.edu?

WHAT'S IN A RESPONSE?

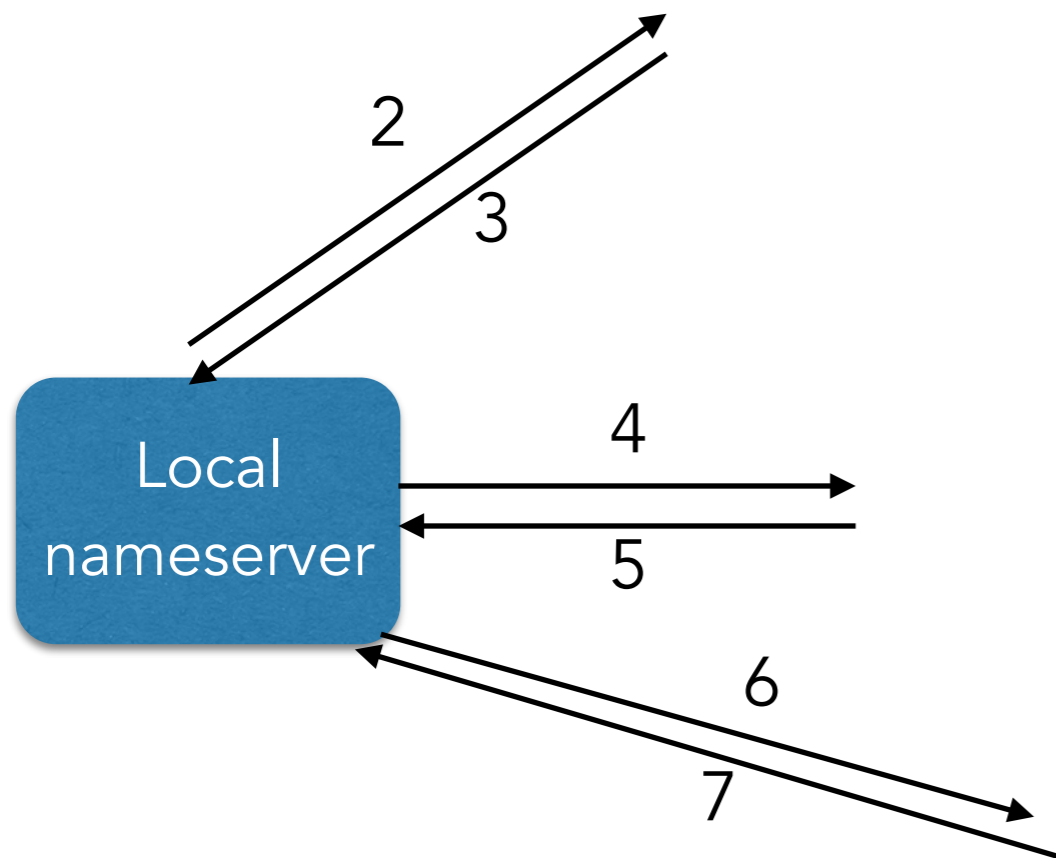
- Many things, but for the attacks we're concerned with...
- A record: gives "the authoritative response for the IP address of this hostname"
- NS record: describes "this is the name of the nameserver who should know more about how to answer this query than I do"
 - Often also contains "glue" records (IP addresses of those name servers to avoid chicken and egg problems)
 - Resolver will generally cache all of this information

QUERY IDS



- The local resolver has a lot of incoming/outgoing queries at any point in time.
- To determine which response maps to which queries, it uses a *query ID*
- Query ID: 16-bit field in the DNS header
 - Requester sets it to whatever it wants
 - Responder must provide the same value in its response

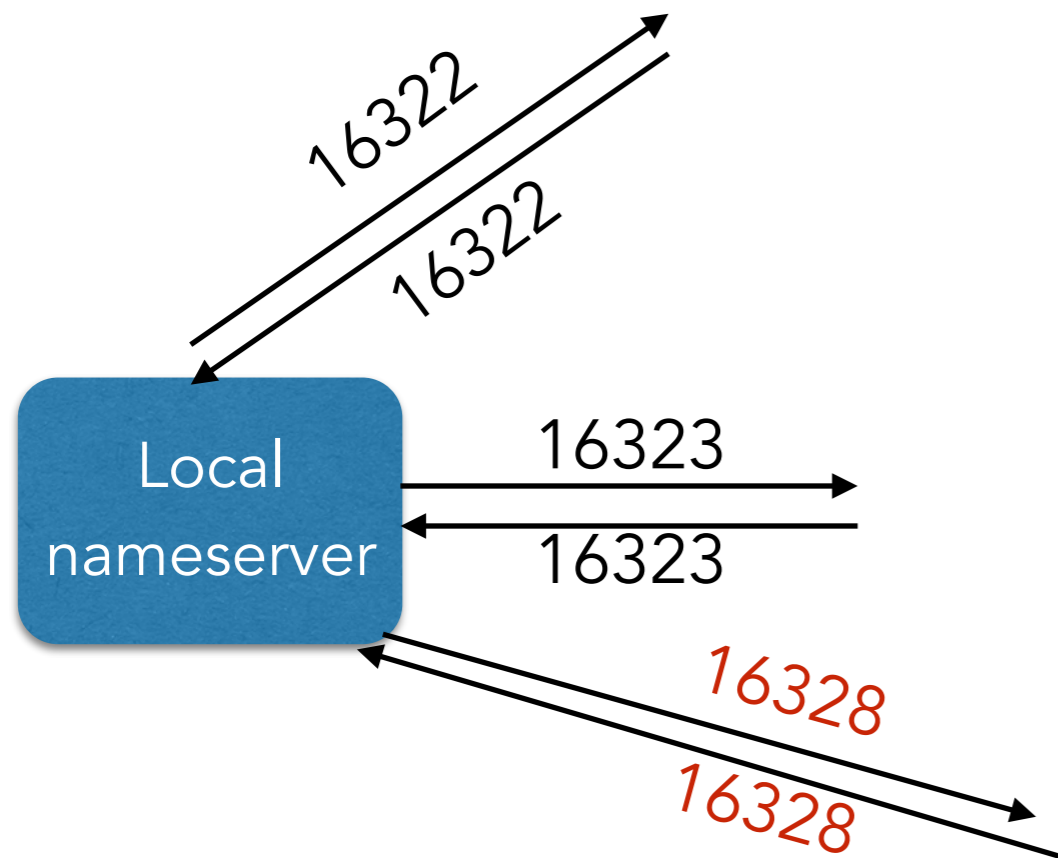
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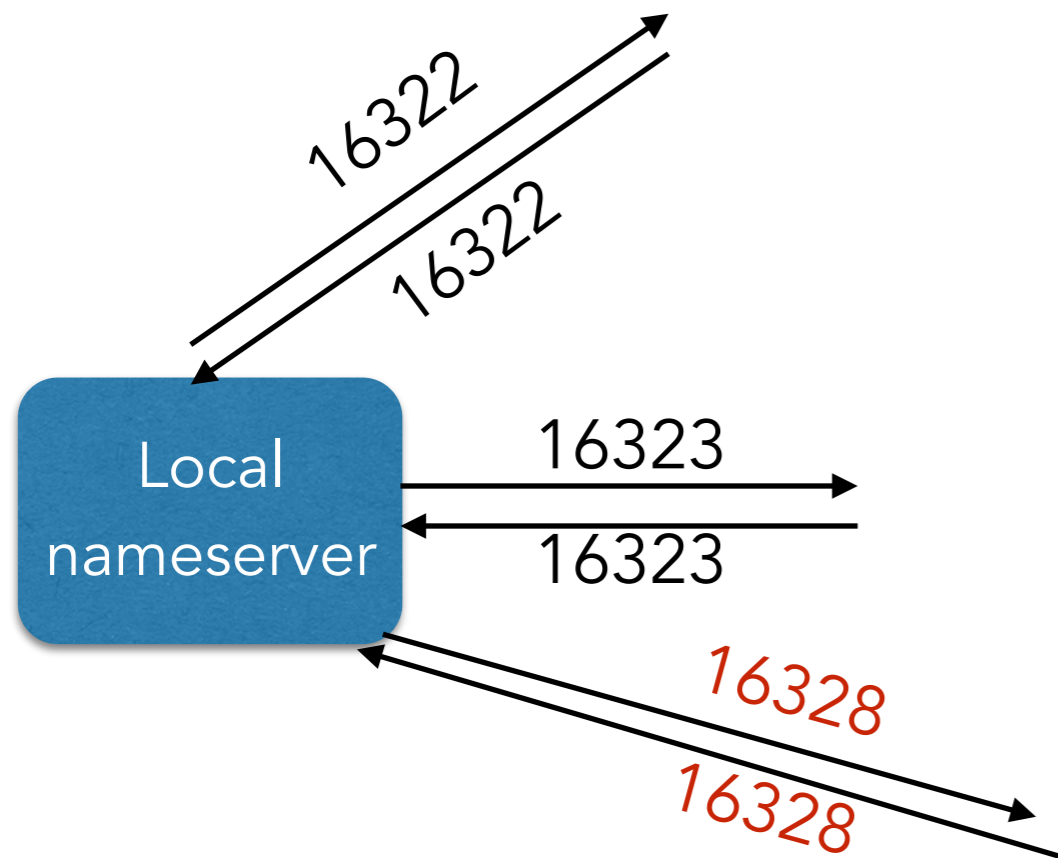
How would you implement query IDs at a resolver?

QUERY IDS USED TO INCREMENT



- Global query ID value
- Map outstanding query ID to local state of who to respond to (the client)
- Basically:
new Packet(queryID++)

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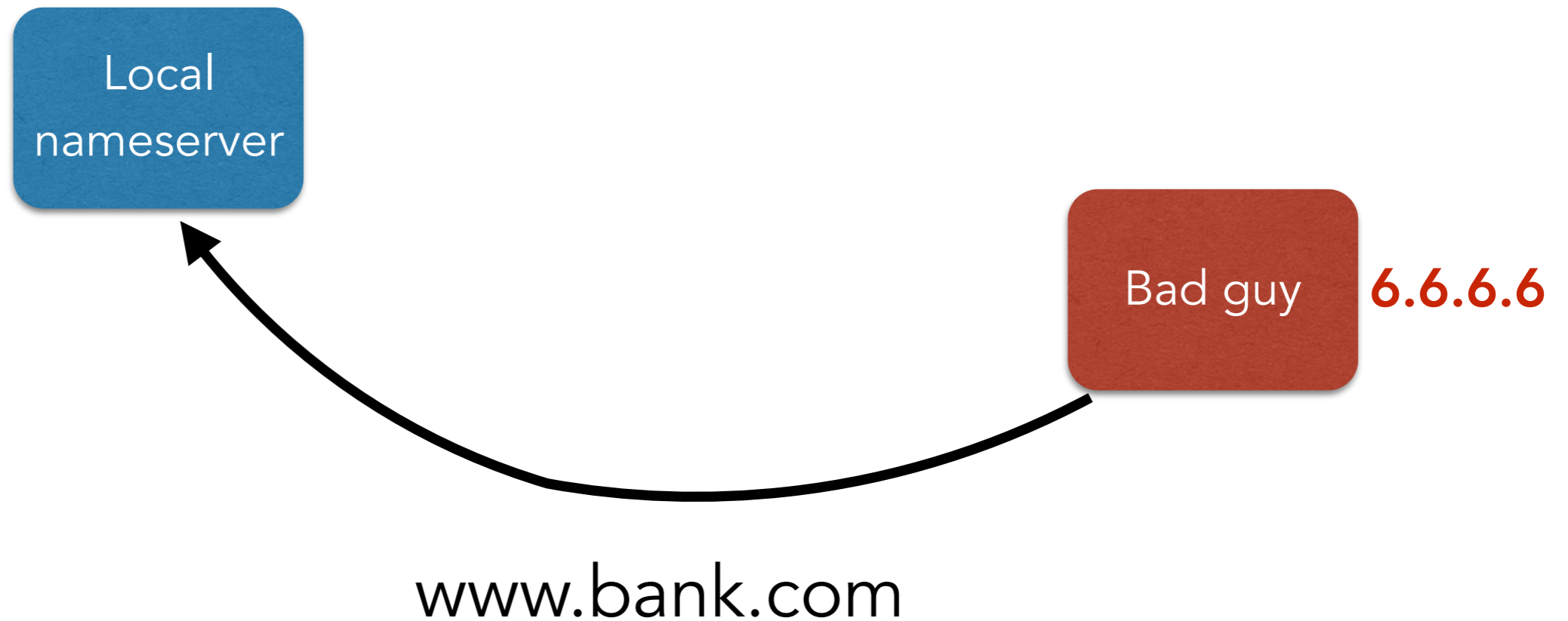
How would you attack this?

CACHE POISONING

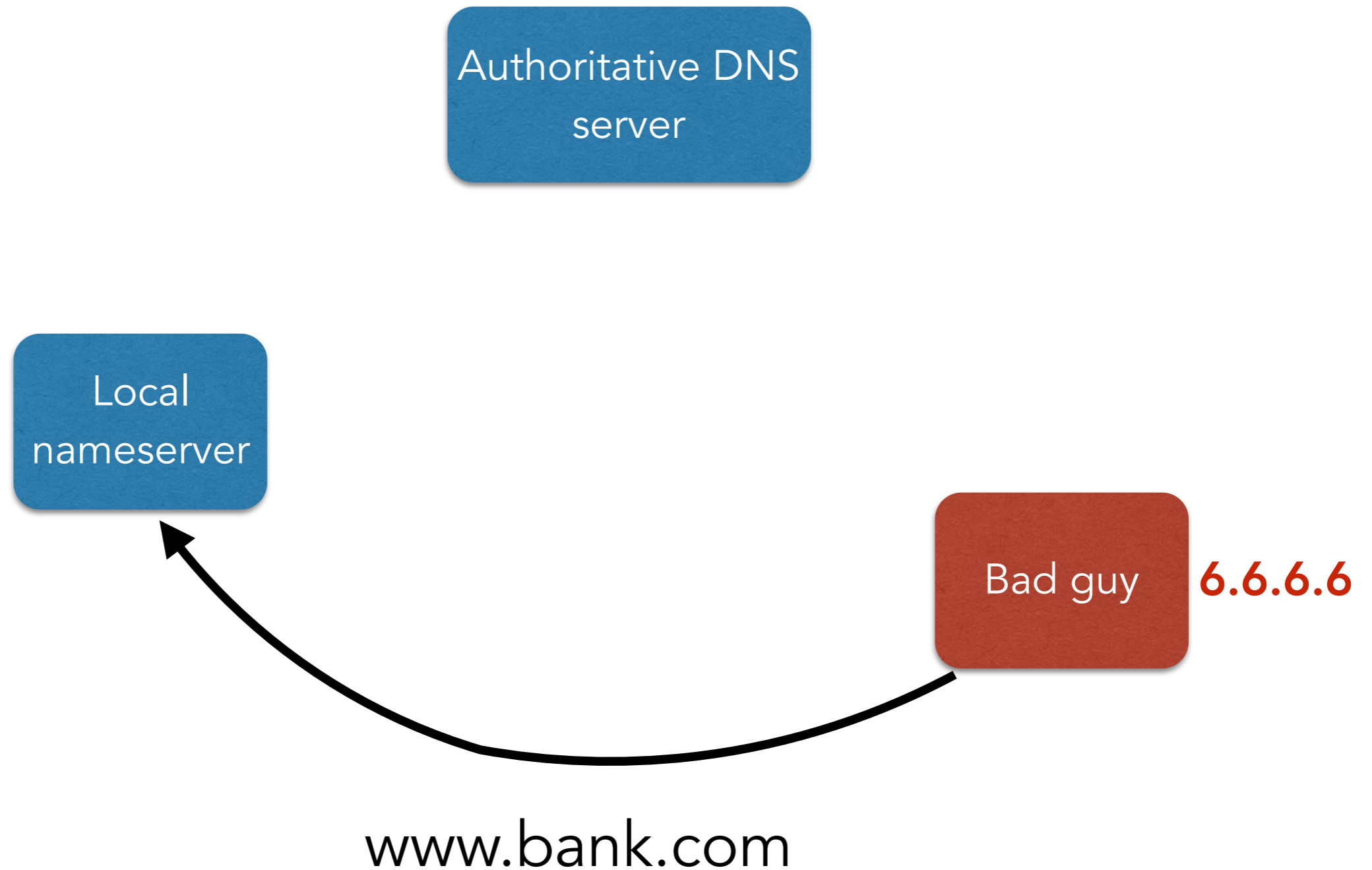
Local
nameserver

Bad guy 6.6.6.6

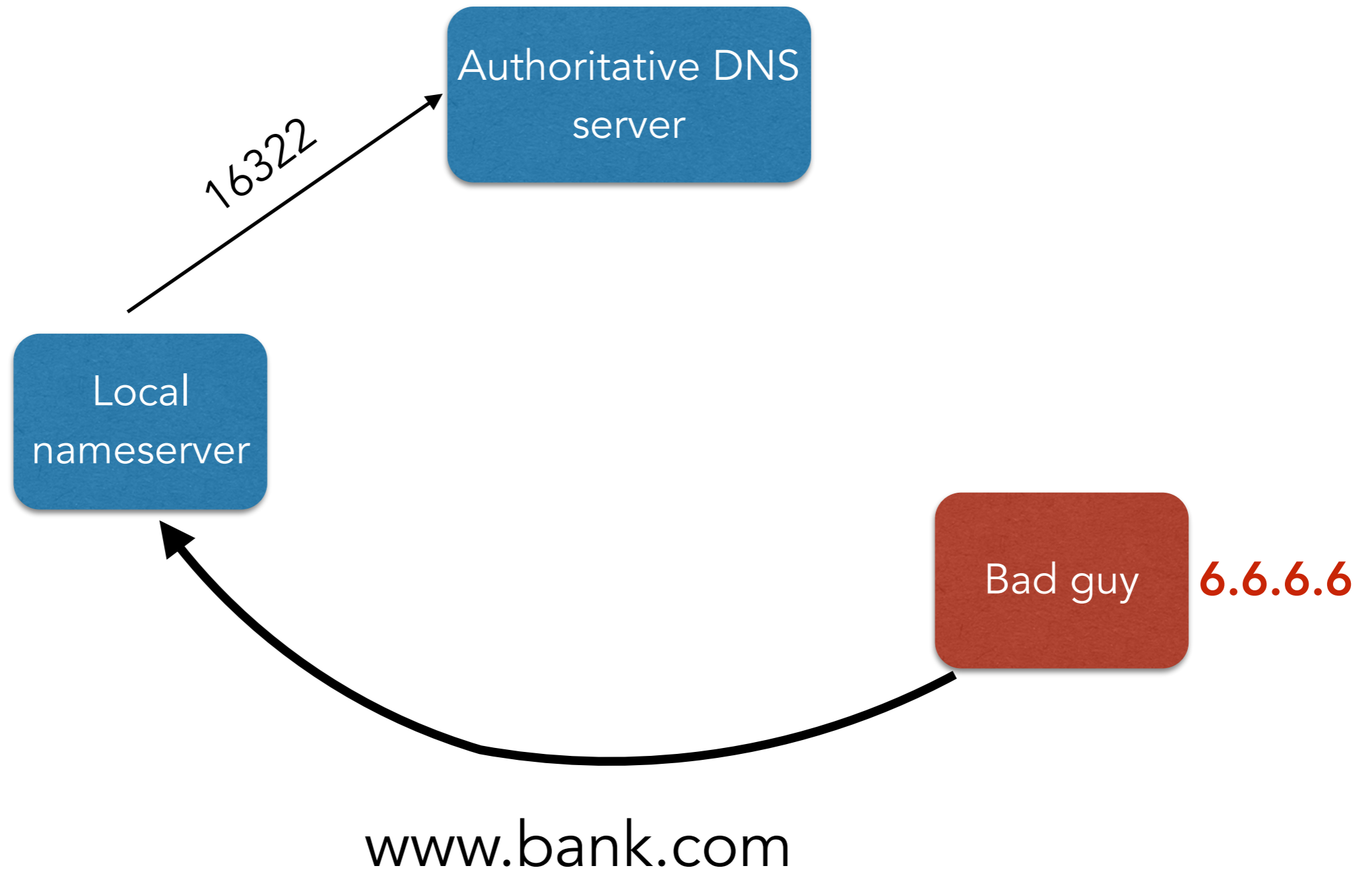
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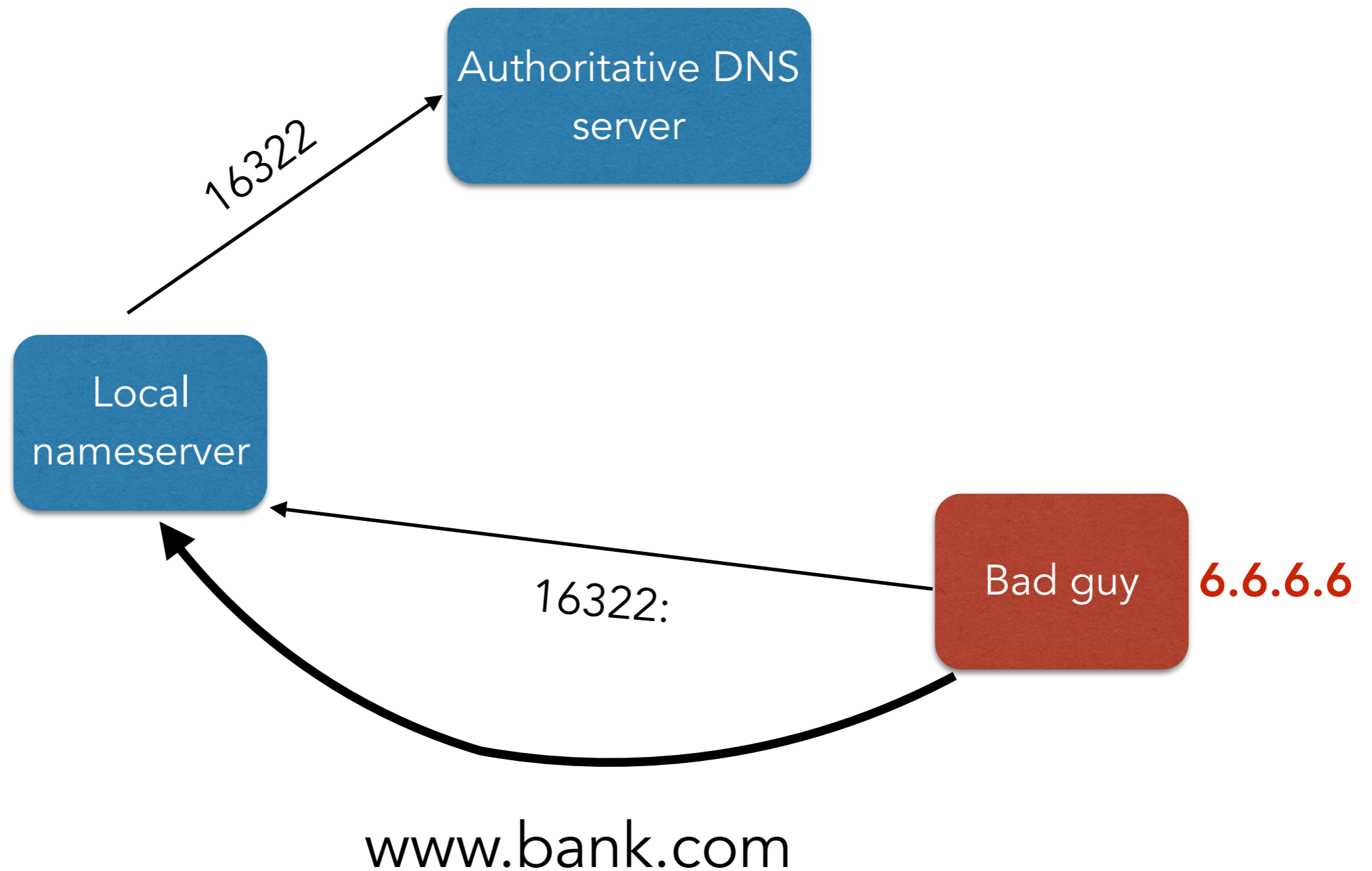
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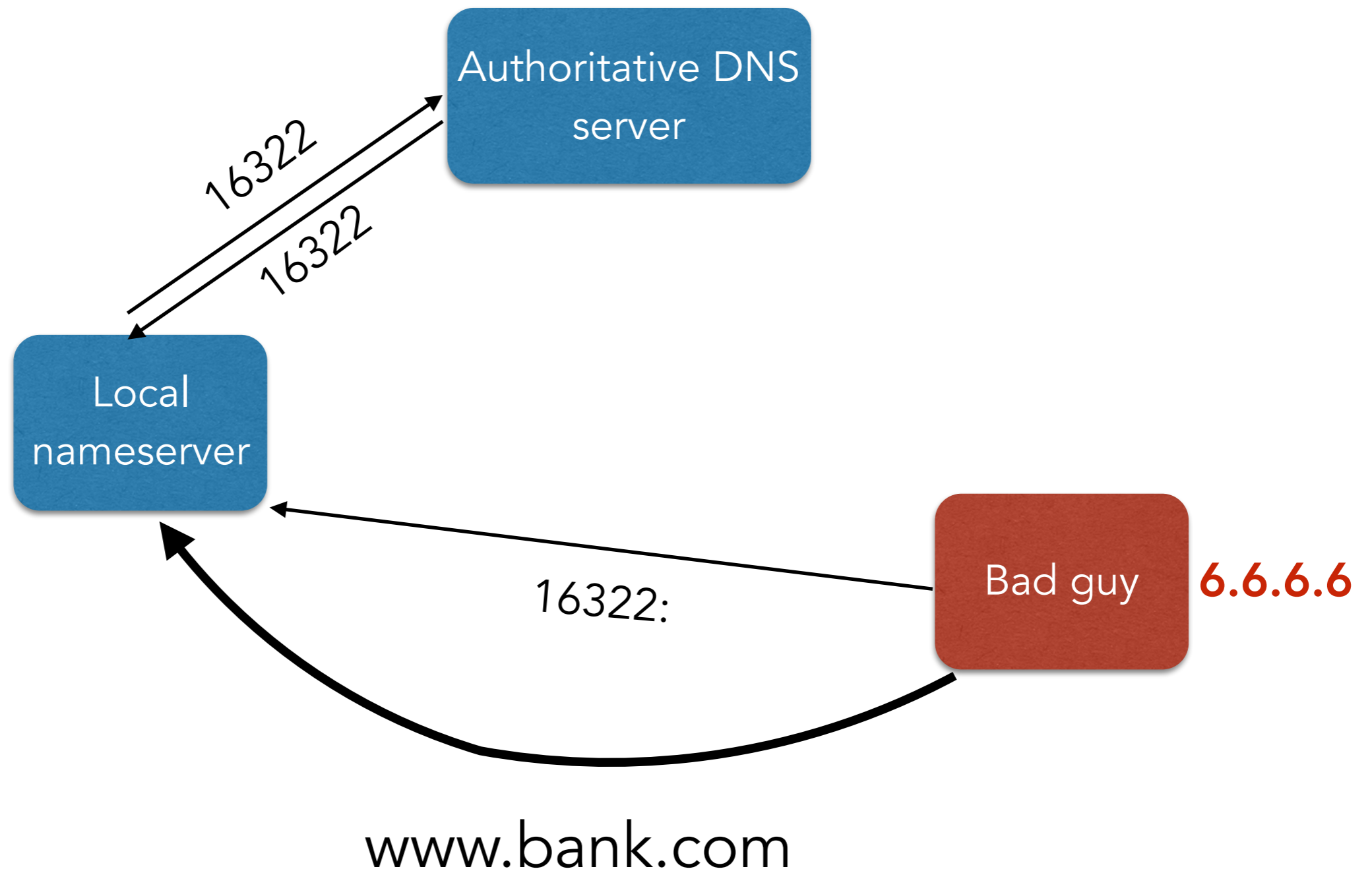
CACHE POISONING



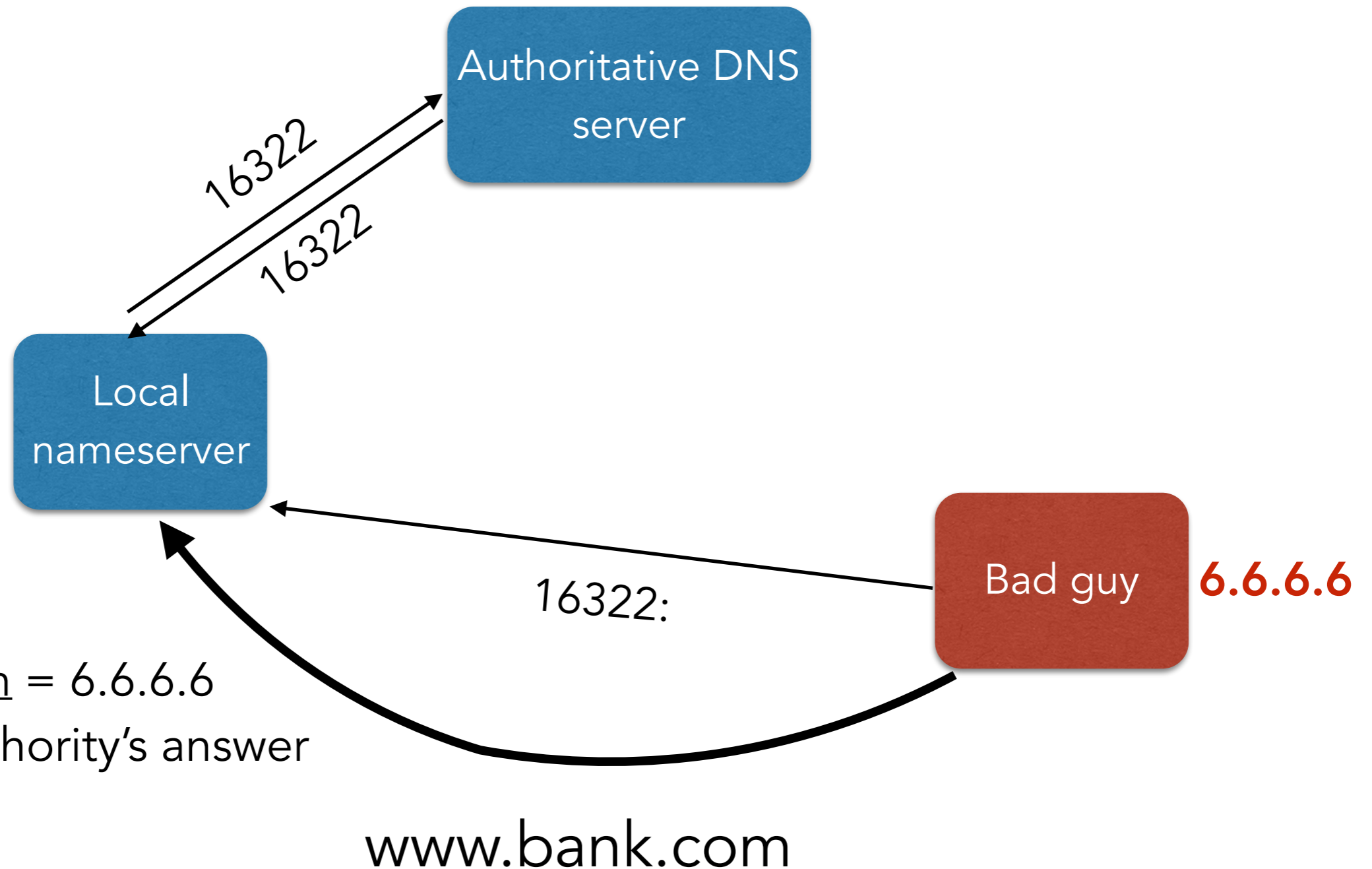
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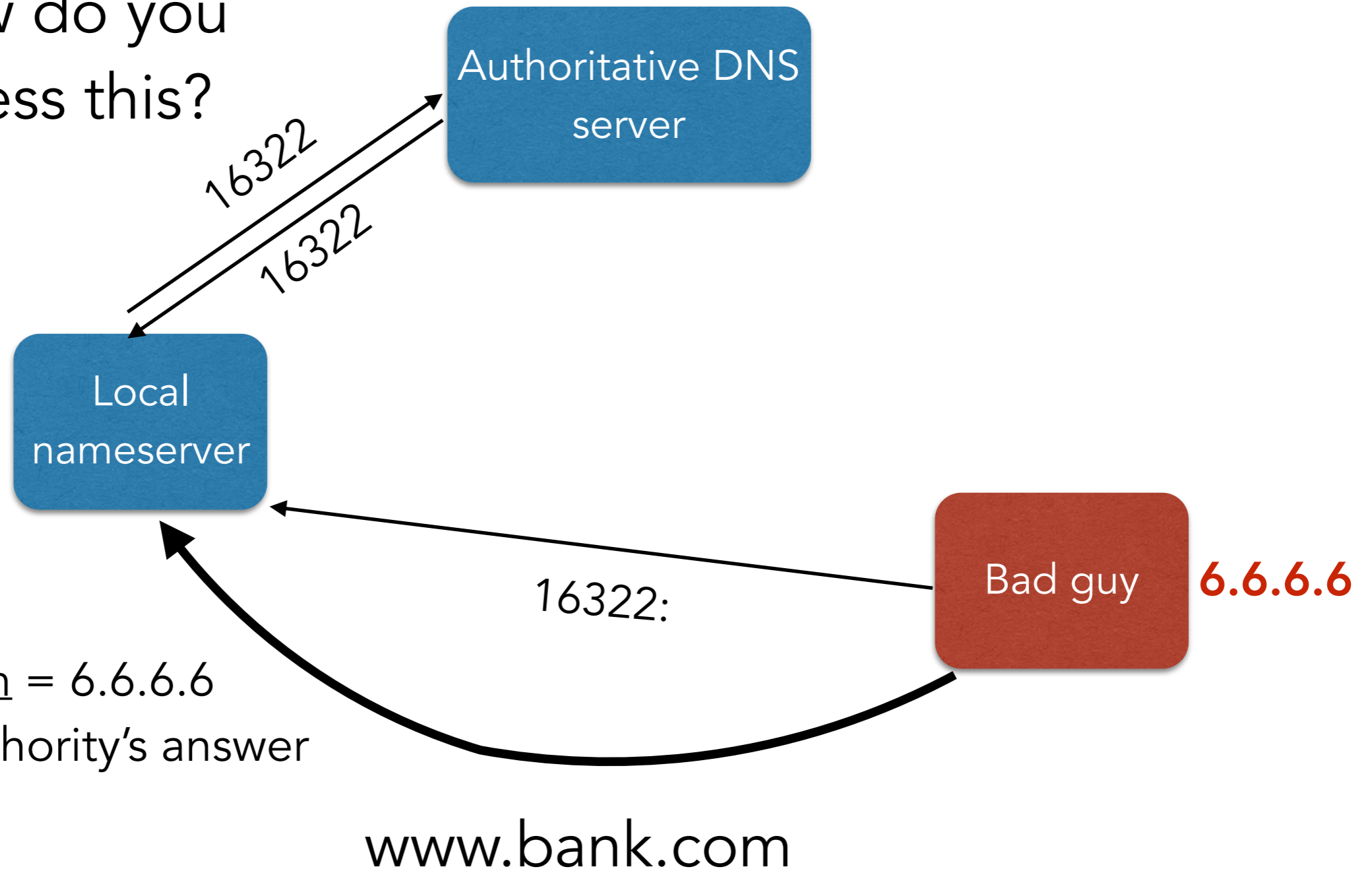


CACHE POISONING



CACHE POISONING

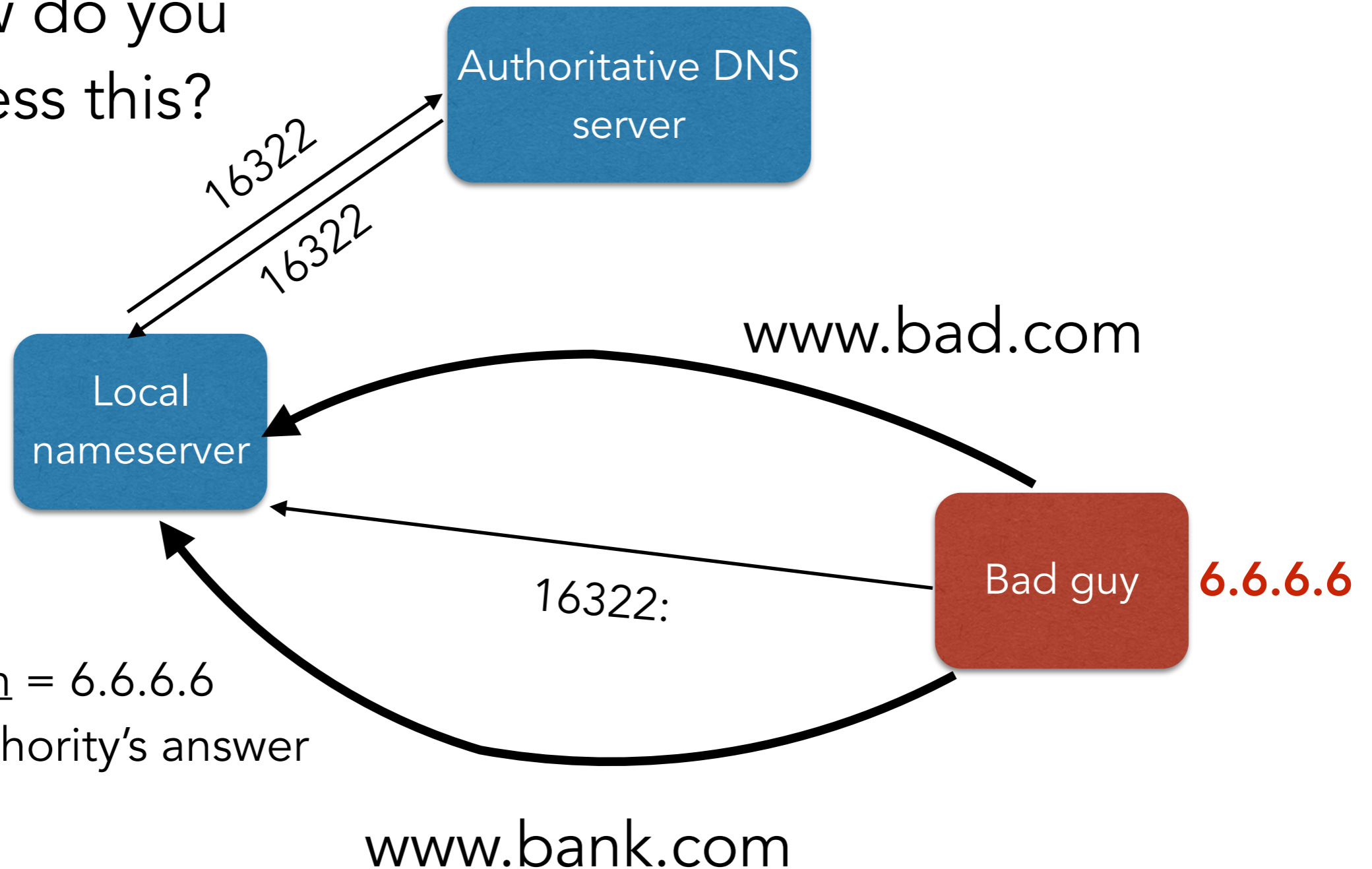
How do you
guess this?



Will cache
www.bank.com = 6.6.6.6
and ignore authority's answer

CACHE POISONING

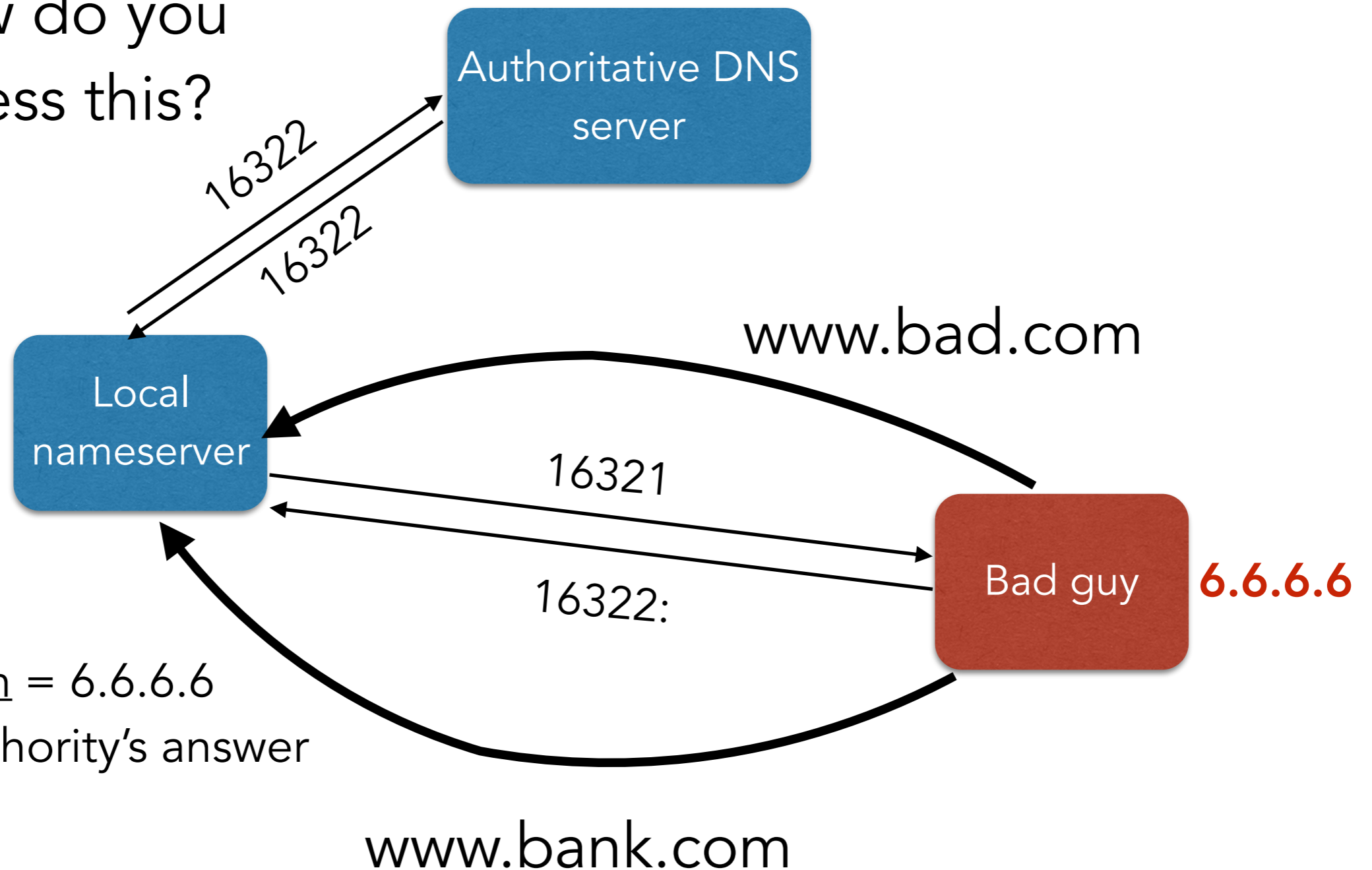
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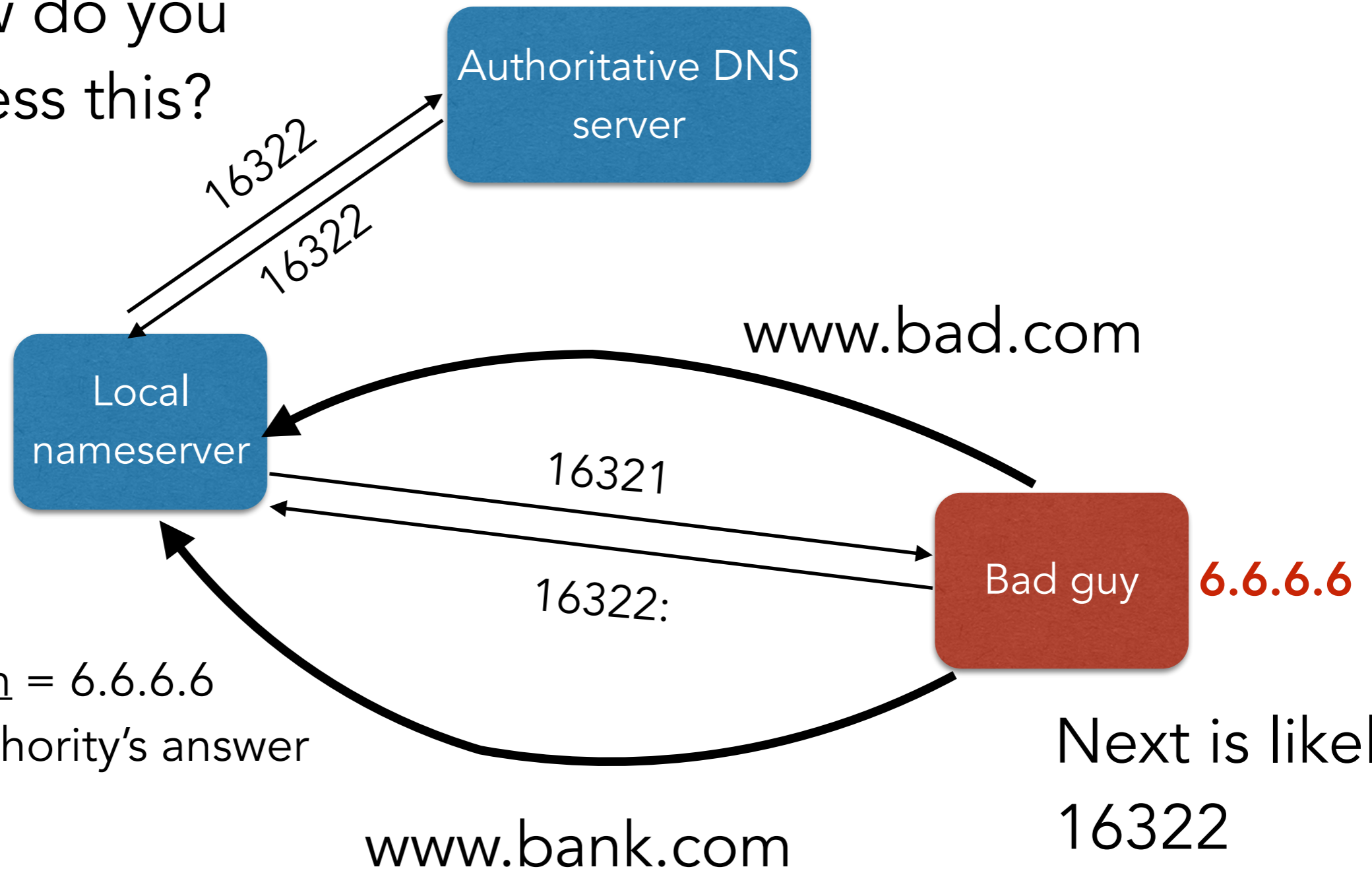
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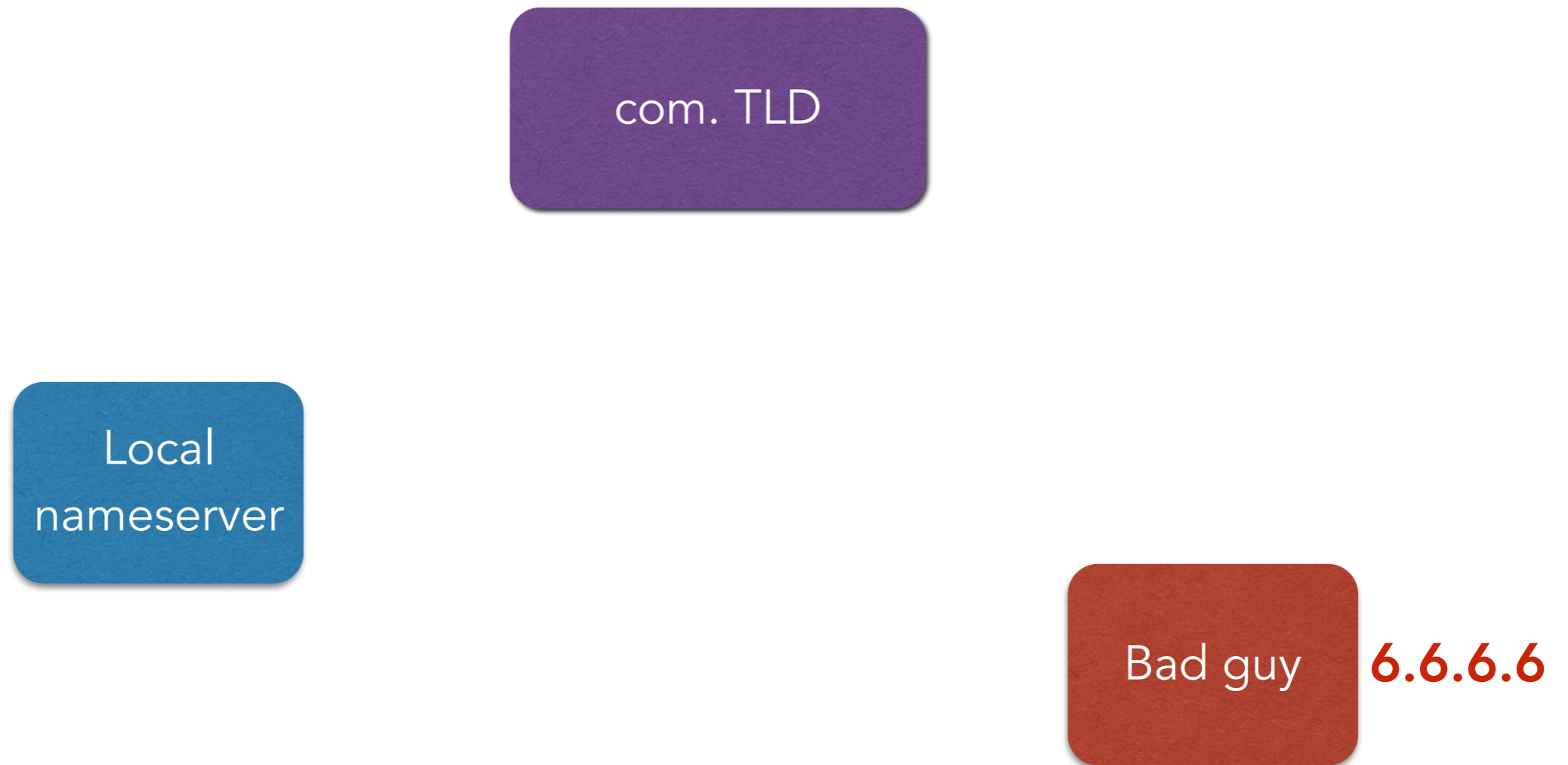


DETAILS OF GETTING THE ATTACK TO WORK

- Must guess query ID: ask for it, and go from there
 - Partial fix: randomize query IDs
 - Problem: small space
 - Attack: issue a Lot of query IDs
- Must guess source port number
 - Typically constant for a given server (often always 53)
- The answer must not already be in the cache
 - It will avoid issuing a query in the first place

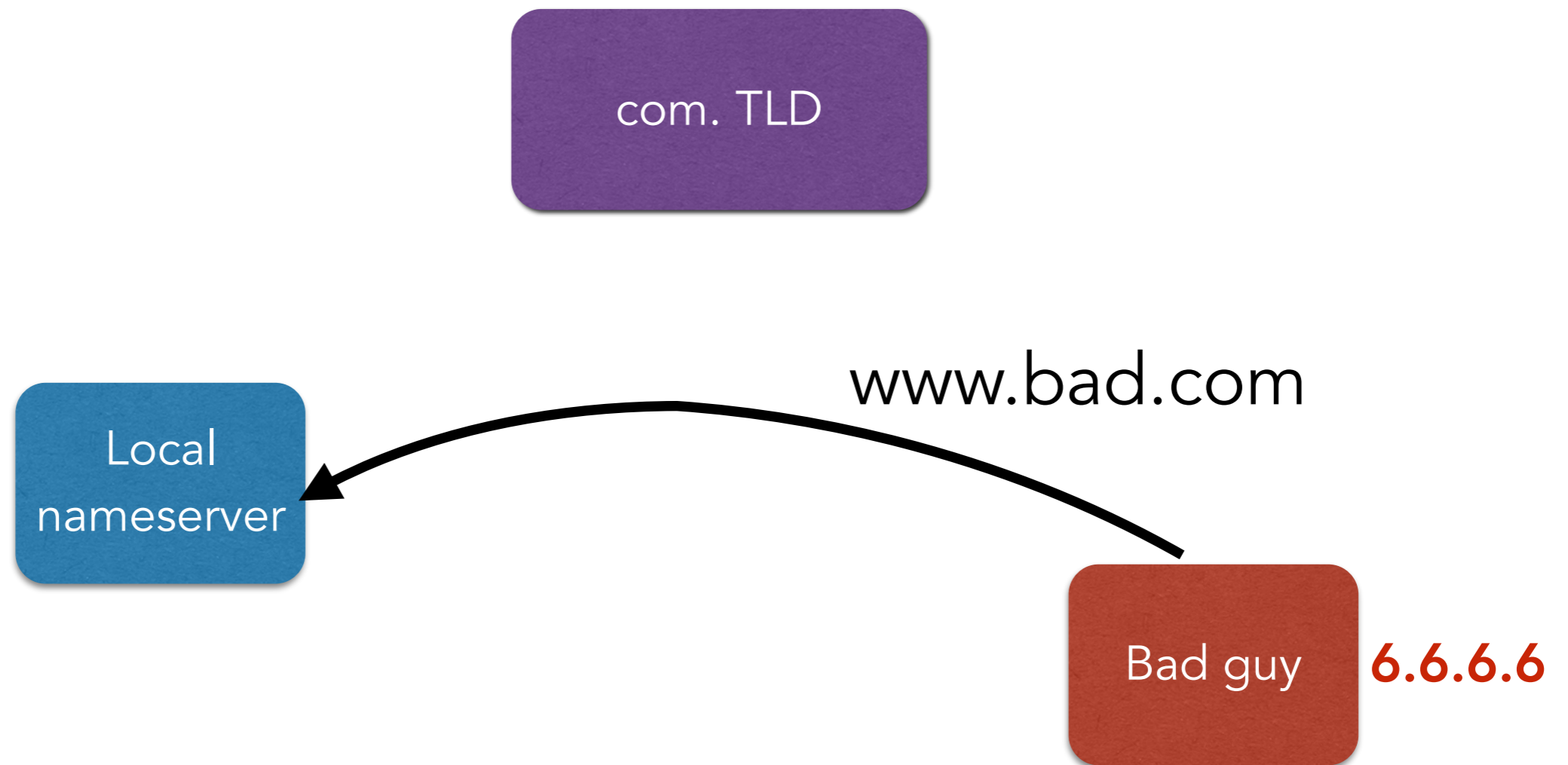
CACHE POISONING

Can we do more harm than a single record?



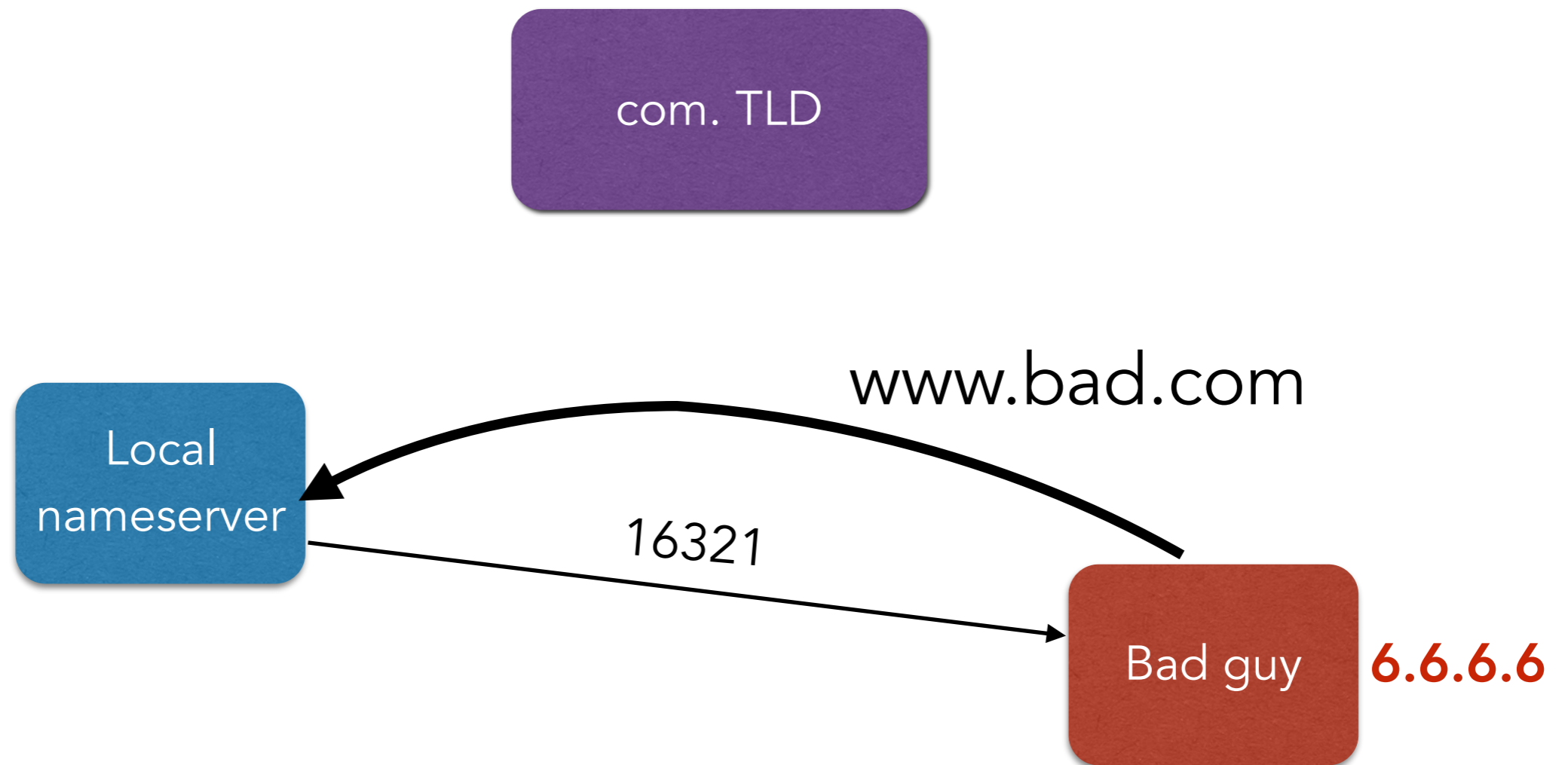
CACHE POISONING

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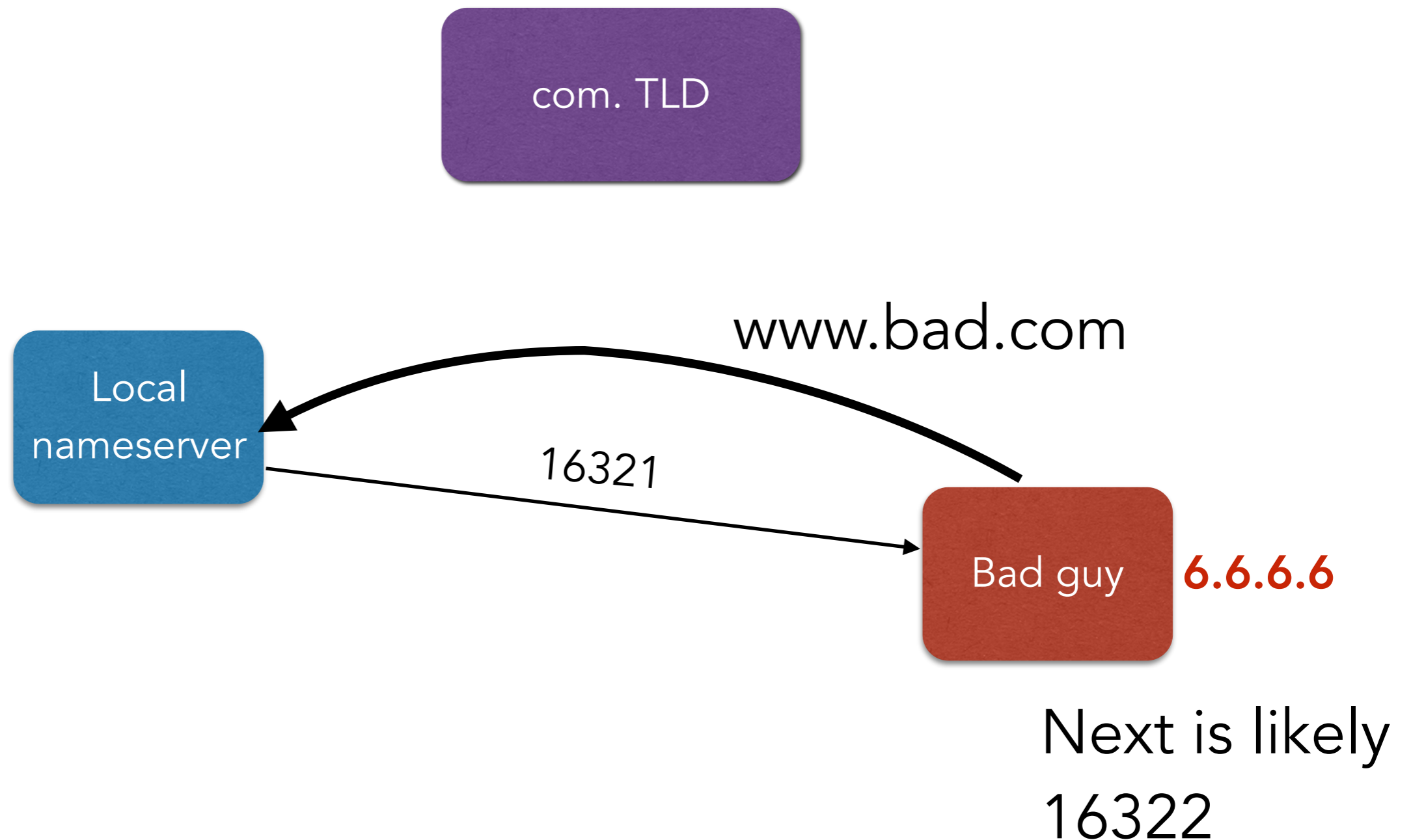
CACHE POISONING

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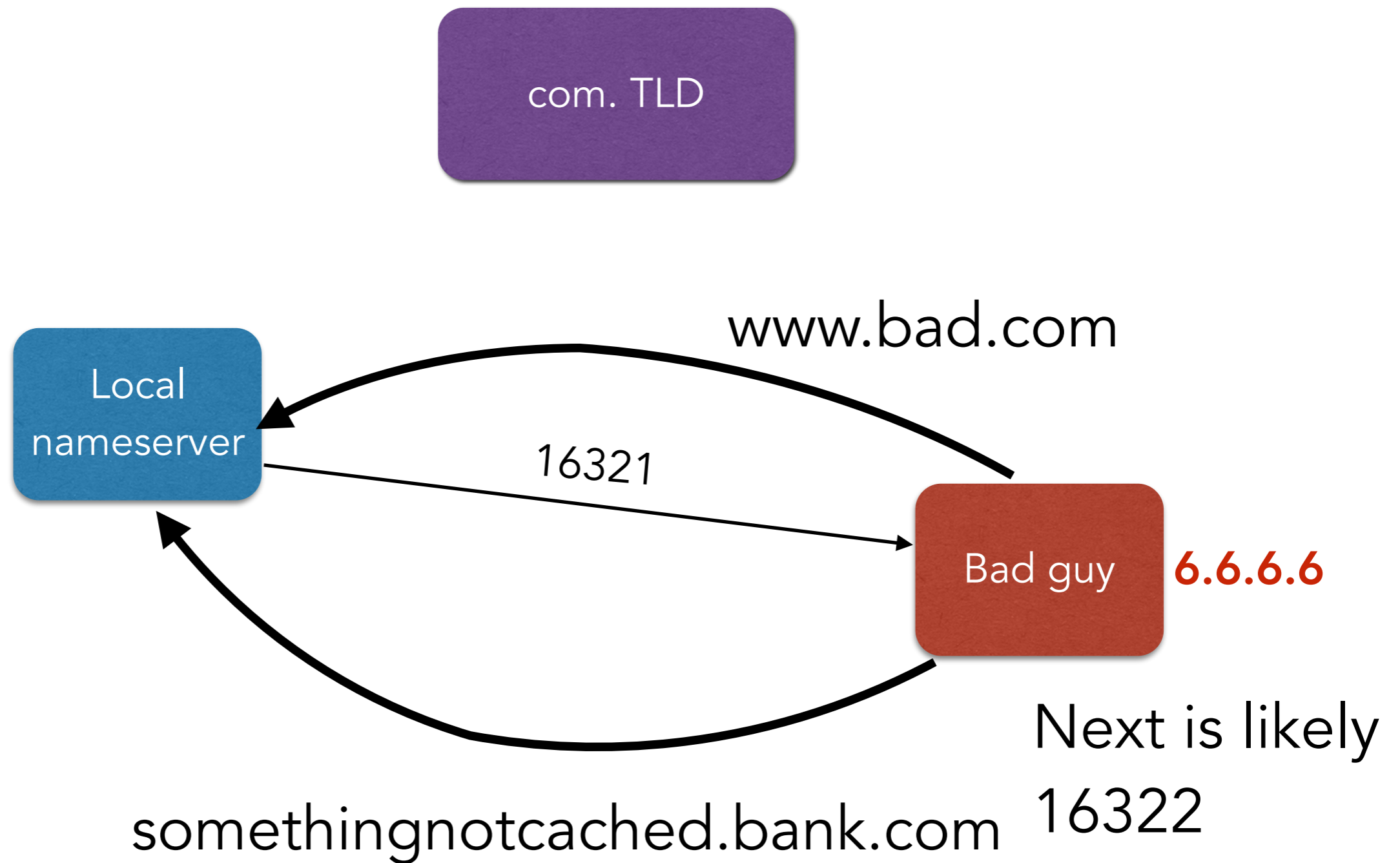
CACHE POISONING

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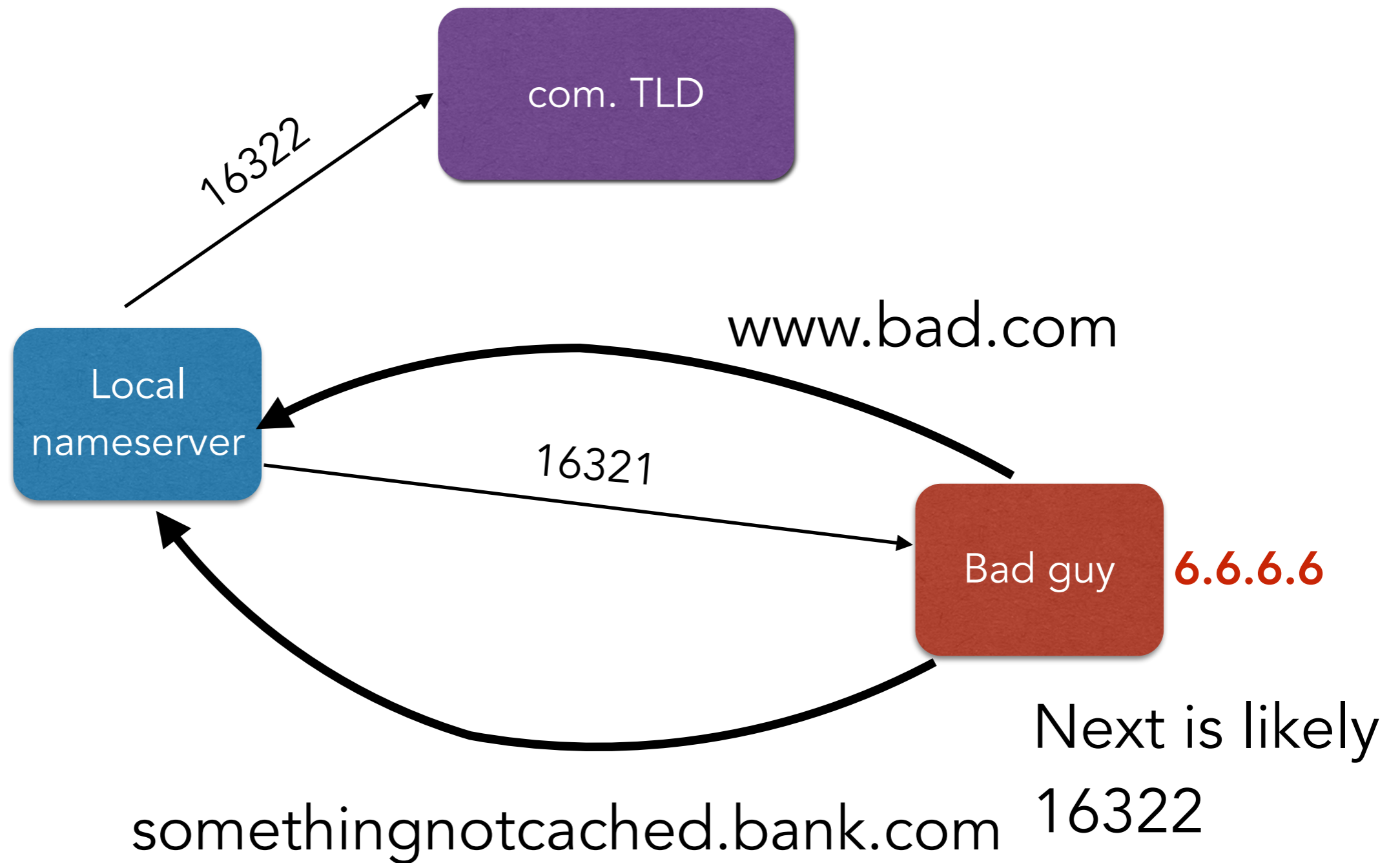
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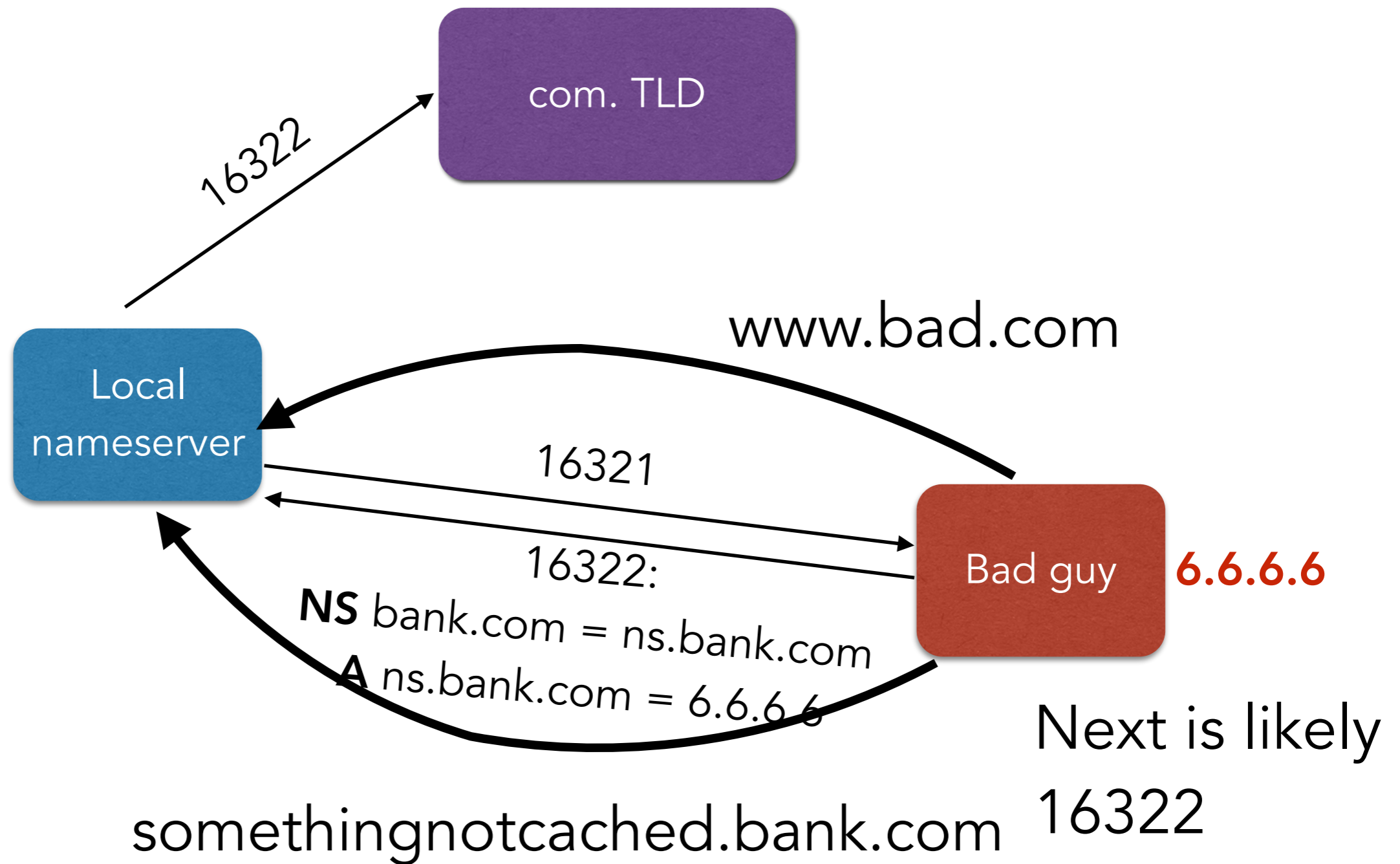
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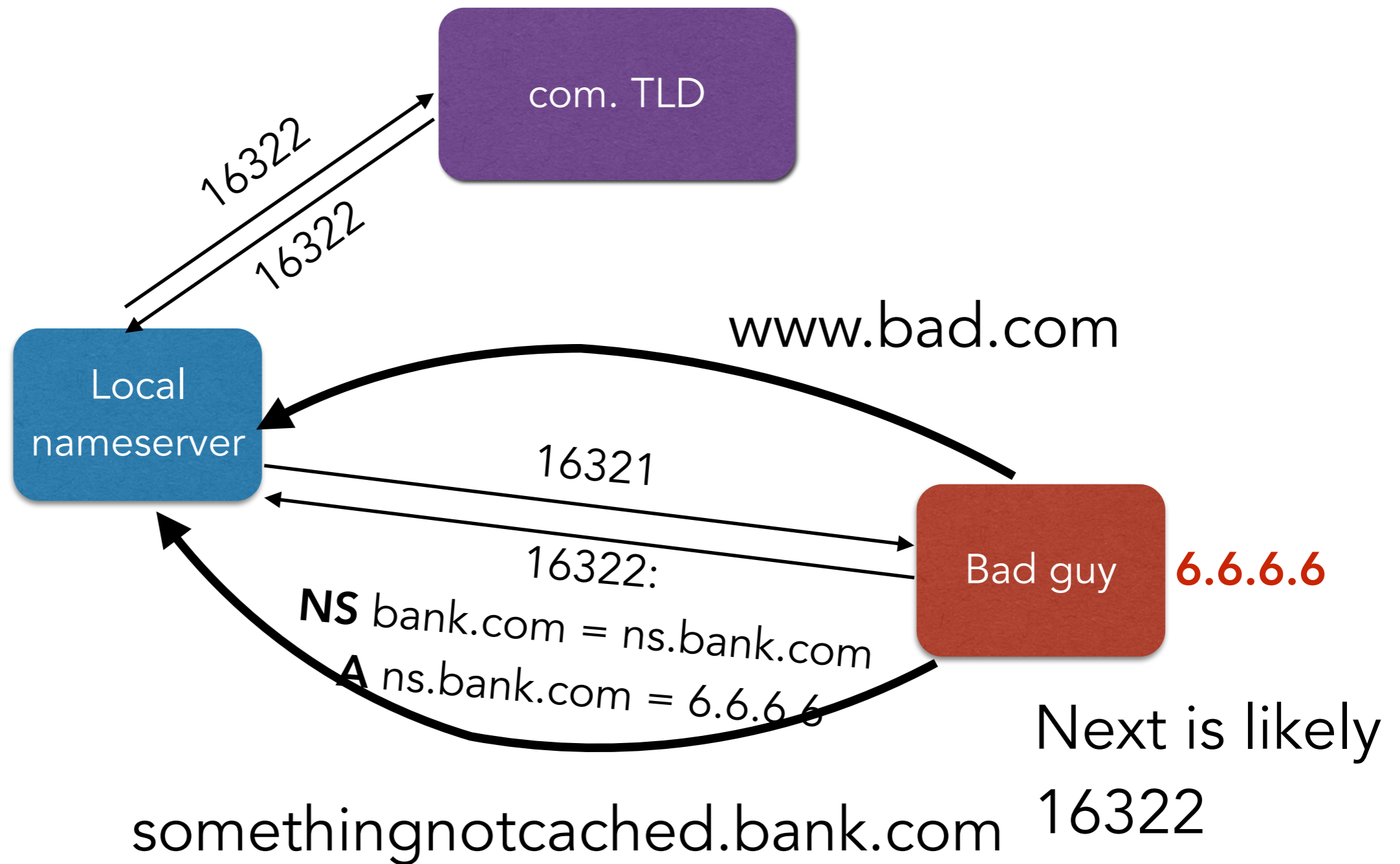
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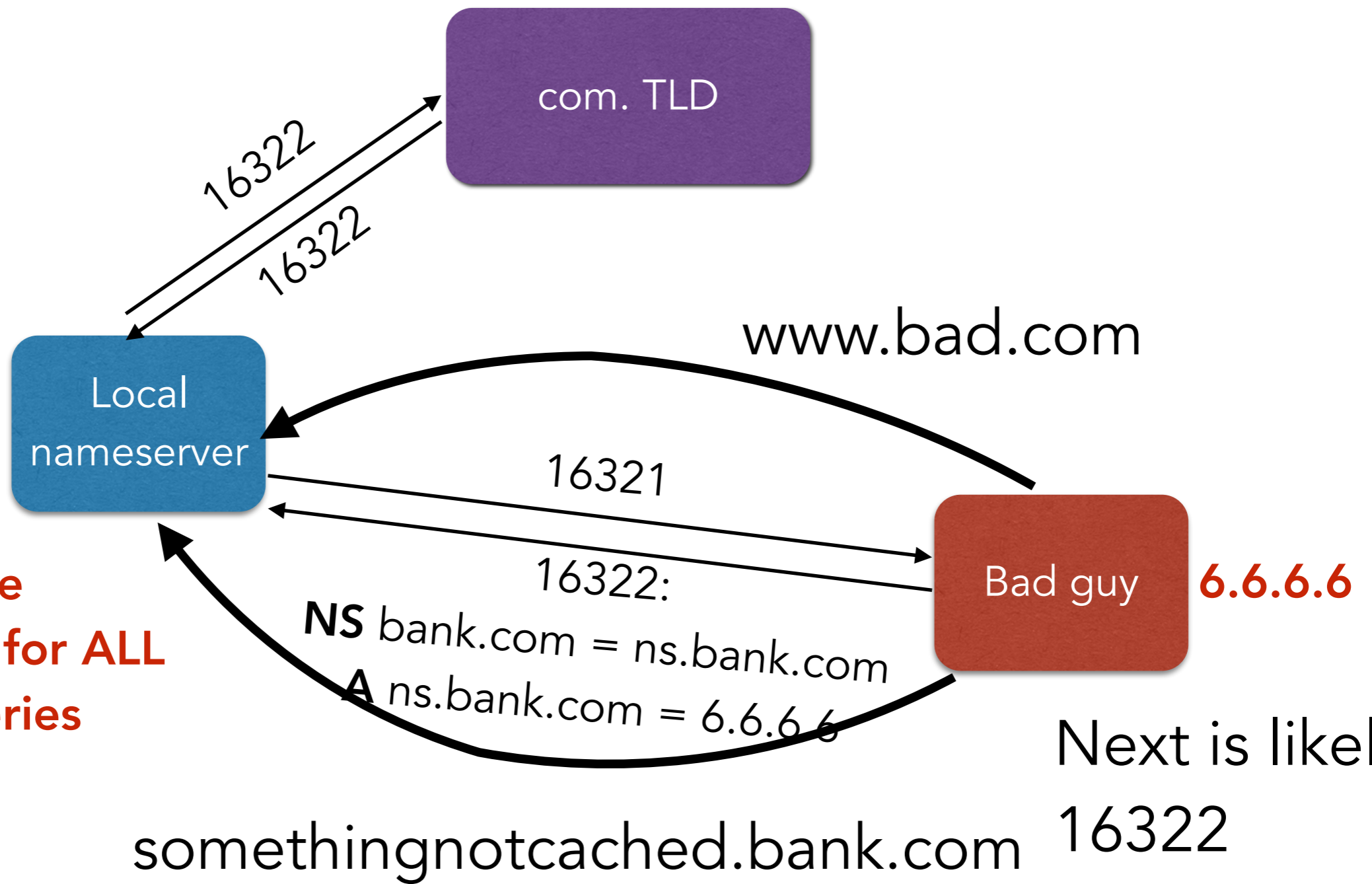
CACHE POISONING

Can we do more harm than a single record?



CACHE POISONING

Can we do more harm than a single record?



Will cache "the person to ask for ALL bank.com queries is 6.6.6.6"

SOLUTIONS?

- Randomizing query ID?
 - Not sufficient alone: only 16 bits of entropy
- Randomize source port, as well
 - There's no reason for it stay constant
 - Gets us another 16 bits of entropy
- DNSSEC?

DNSSEC

www.cs.umd.edu?

Root DNS
server "."

The diagram illustrates the first step of a DNS lookup process. A red dotted line extends from the 'DNSSEC' title across the top of the slide. A solid black arrow points from the left towards a blue rounded rectangular box on the right. Above the arrow is the text 'www.cs.umd.edu?'. Inside the blue box, the text reads 'Root DNS server "."'. A red dotted line continues from the right side of the blue box.

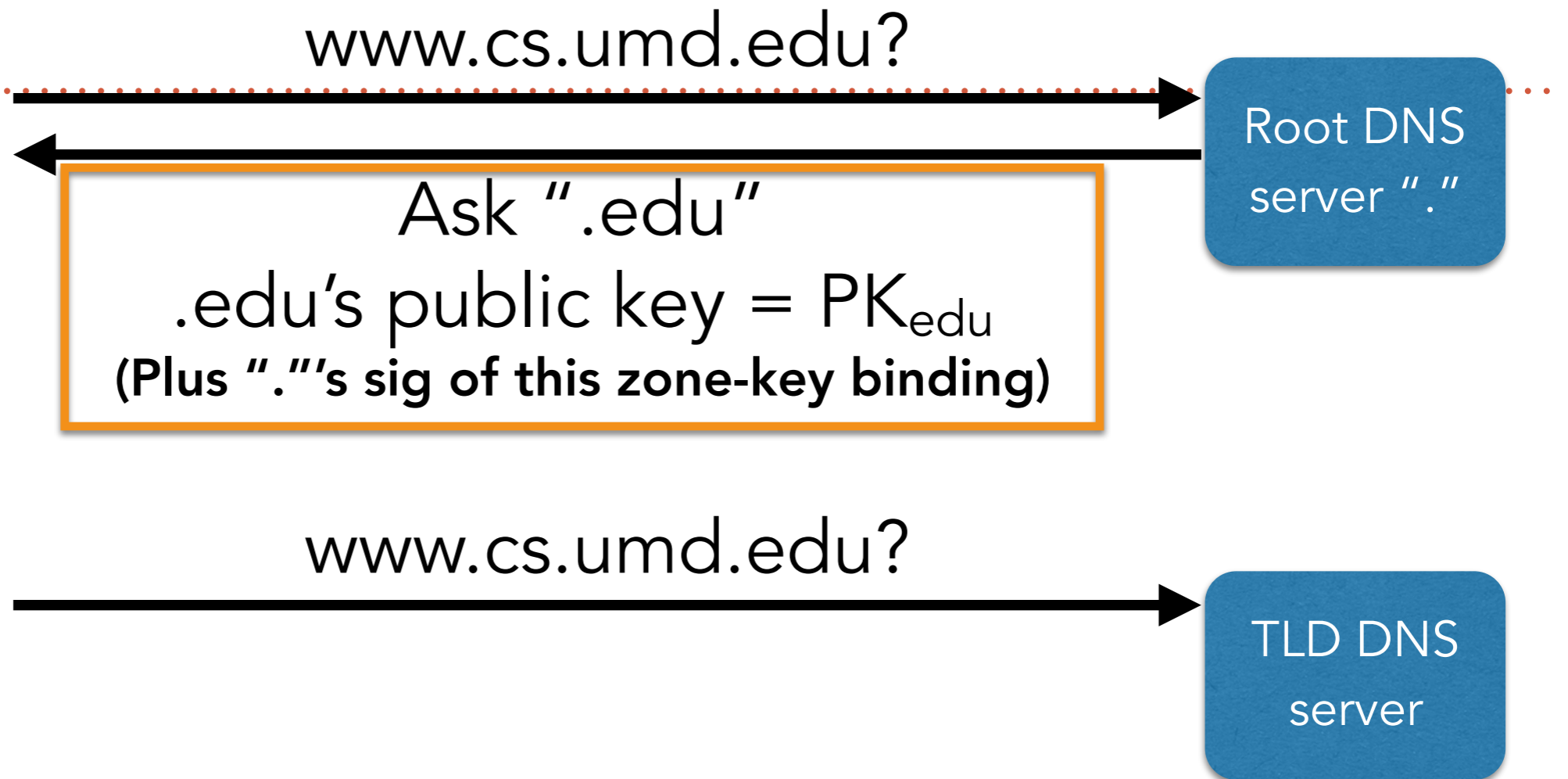
DNSSEC

www.cs.umd.edu?

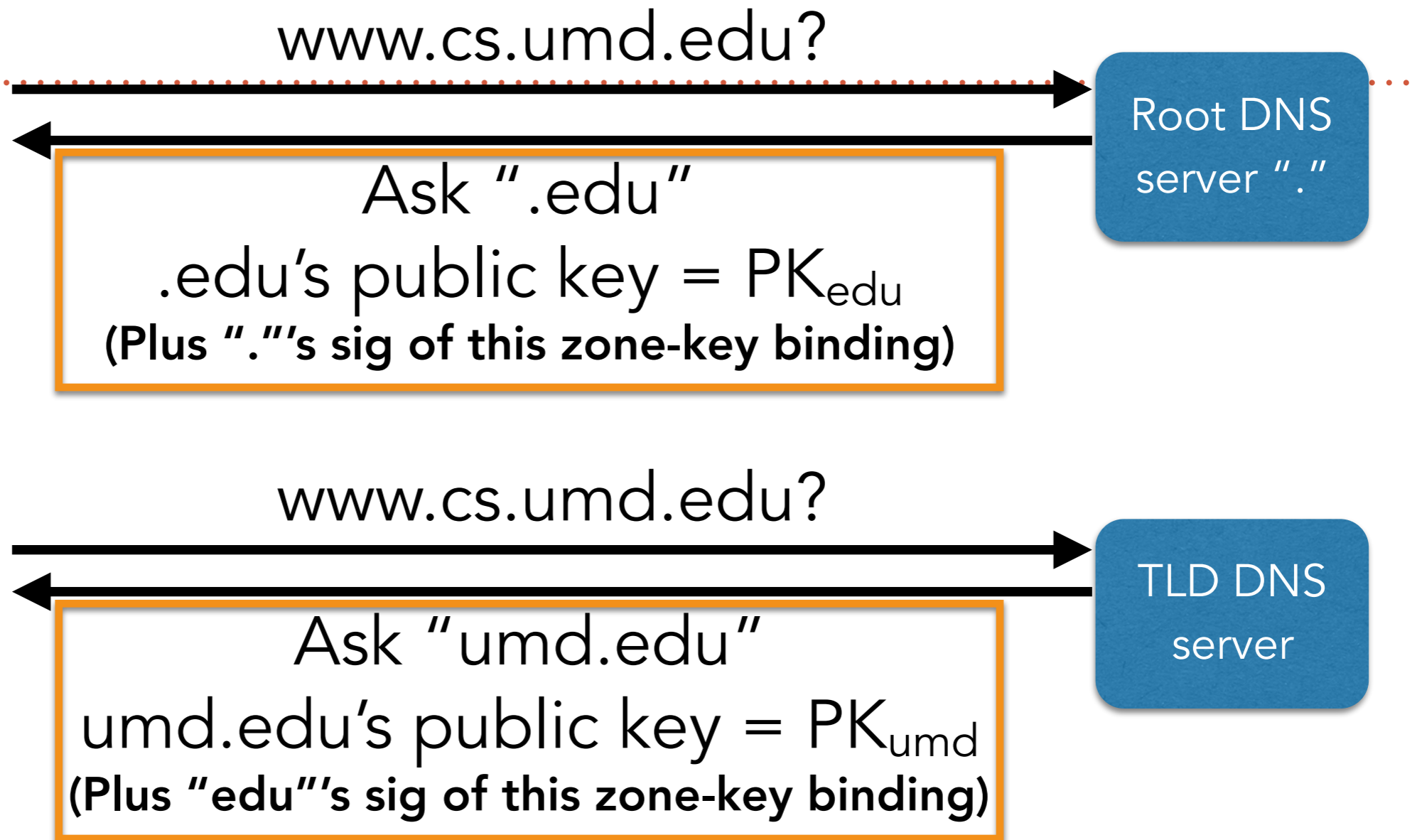
Root DNS
server "."

Ask ".edu"
.edu's public key = PK_{edu}
(Plus "."'s sig of this zone-key binding)

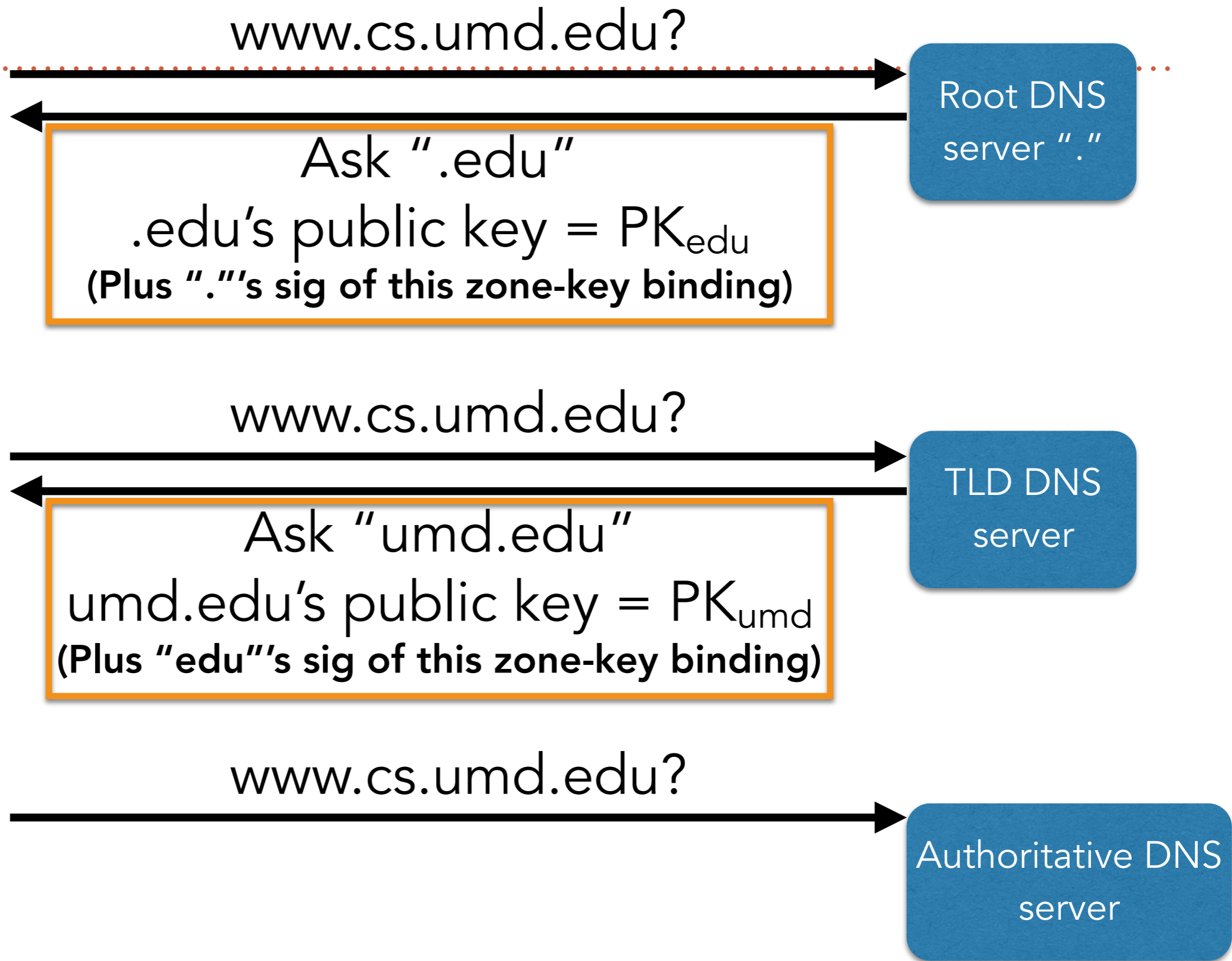
DNSSEC



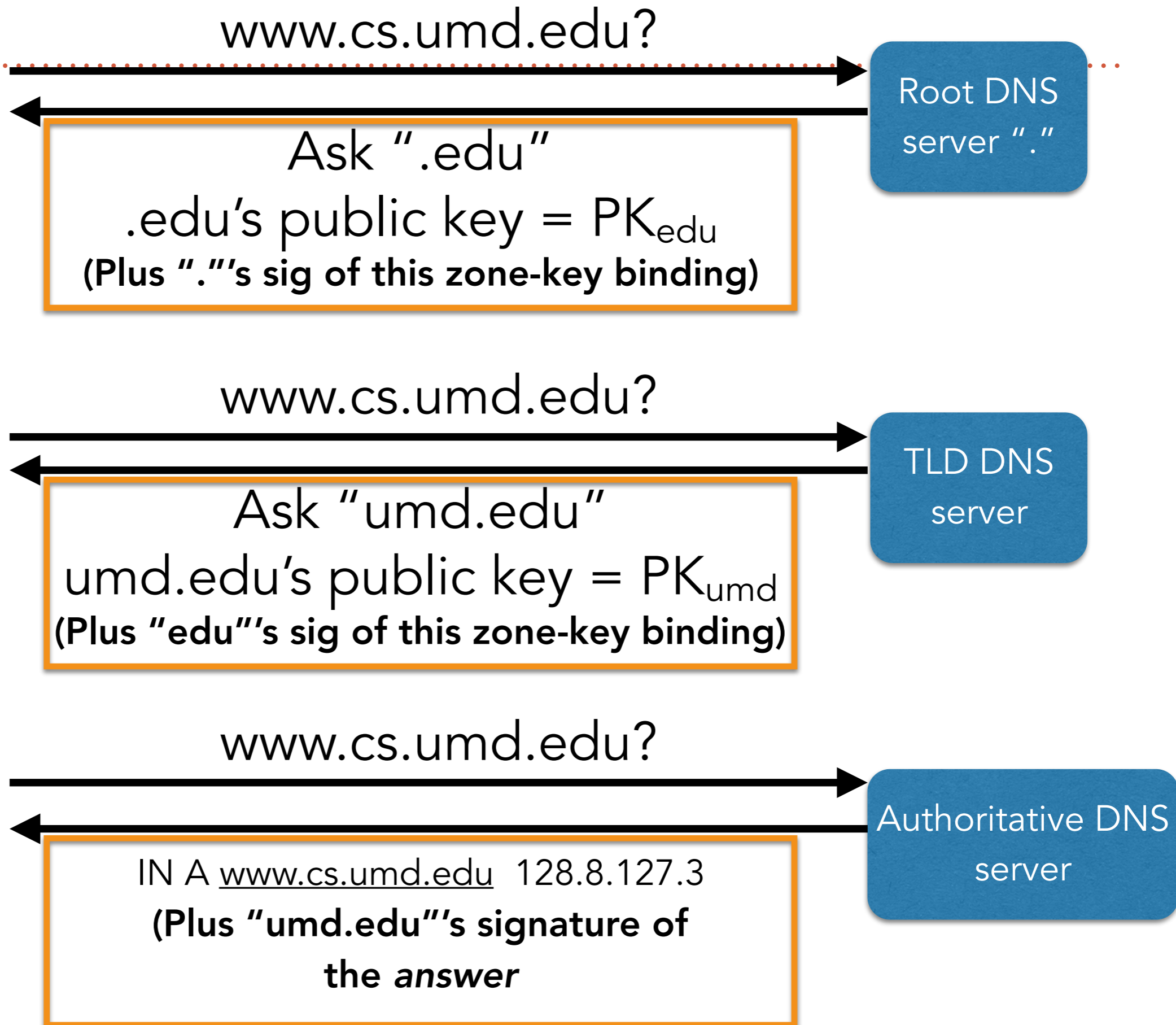
DNSSEC



DNSSEC



DNSSEC



DNSSEC

www.cs.umd.edu?

Root DNS
server "."

Ask ".edu"
.edu's public key = PK_{edu}
(Plus "."'s sig of this zone-key binding)

www.cs.umd.edu?

TLD DNS
server

Ask "umd.edu"
umd.edu's public key = PK_{umd}
(Plus "edu"'s sig of this zone-key binding)

www.cs.umd.edu?

Authoritative DNS
server

IN A www.cs.umd.edu 128.8.127.3
(Plus "umd.edu"'s signature of
the answer)

**Only the
authoritative
answer is
signed**

PROPERTIES OF DNSSEC

- If everyone has deployed it, and if you know the root's keys, then prevents spoofed responses
 - Very similar to PKIs in this sense
- But unlike PKIs, we still want authenticity despite the fact that not everyone has deployed DNSSEC
 - What if someone replies back without DNSSEC?
 - Ignore = secure but you can't connect to a lot of hosts
 - Accept = can connect but insecure
- Back to our notion of incremental deployment
 - DNSSEC is not all that useful incrementally