**Question 1  DNS Walkthrough**

Your computer sends a DNS request for “www.google.com”

Q1.1 Assume the DNS resolver receives back the following reply:

```
com. NS a.gtld-servers.net
a.gtld-servers.net A 192.5.6.30
```

Describe what this reply means and where the DNS resolver would look next.

**Solution:** The IP address for “www.google.com” is not known. However, “a.gtld-servers.net” is a name server for .com, and that is where the resolver should ask next, at the IP address 192.5.6.30.

Q1.2 If an off-path adversary wants to poison the DNS cache, what values does the adversary need to guess?

**Solution:** The adversary will need to guess the identification number (16 bits). Some resolvers even randomize source ports.

The reason an off-path attack is difficult is because the ID (and port numbers) have to match exactly, but once the legitimate reply reaches the resolver and is cached, the server is no longer vulnerable to the poisoning attempts.

Q1.3 Why do we not use TCP for DNS? Why not use TLS to make the DNS connection secure?

**Solution:** DNS uses UDP instead of TCP because UDP does not require a 3-way handshake and this leads to better performance.

DNS is designed to be lightweight and TLS adds a lot of overhead with encrypting and decrypting packets.

Furthermore, we do not know which name servers to trust and TLS provides no protection against that. This is a fundamental difference between object security and channel security.

There is a DNS-over-HTTPS protocol that can be used today and is becoming increasingly popular.
Q2.1 Alice wants to access Berkeley’s diversity advancement project DARE, dare.berkeley.edu. Her laptop connects to a wireless access point (AP).

Alice worries that a hacker attacks the DNS protocol when her laptop is looking for the IP address of dare.berkeley.edu. Assume that DNSSEC is not in use.

○ **Question:** Which of the following can attack the DNS protocol and have Alice’s browser obtain an incorrect IP address for DARE? (Select 0 to 8 options.)

- The wireless access point.
- An on-path attacker on the local network.
- The local DNS resolver of the network.
- The root DNS servers.
- berkeley.edu’s DNS nameservers.
- An on-path attacker between the local DNS resolver and the rest of the Internet.
- A MITM between the local DNS resolver and the rest of the Internet.

**Solution:** Anything that can spoof a DNS response from the resolver or a nameserver. In this case, all of these options have that capability.

Q2.2 Now assume that berkeley.edu implements DNSSEC and Alice’s recursive resolver (but not her client) validates DNSSEC.

○ **Question:** Which of the following can attack the DNS protocol and have Alice’s browser obtain an incorrect IP address for DARE? (Select 0 to 8 options.)

- The wireless access point.
- An on-path attacker on the local network.
- The local DNS resolver of the network.
- The root DNS servers.
- berkeley.edu’s DNS nameservers.
- An on-path attacker between the local DNS resolver and the rest of the Internet.
- A MITM between the local DNS resolver and the rest of the Internet.

**Solution:** Any on-path attacker can see DNS traffic and spoof responses from the resolver. The on-path attacker between the resolver and nameservers can’t spoof any nameserver responses because of DNSSEC.
Q2.3 An attacker wants to poison the local DNS resolver’s cache using the Kaminsky attack. We assume that the resolver does not use source port randomization, so the attacker will likely succeed.

Using the Kaminsky attack, the attacker wants to poison the resolver’s cache for the domain www.berkeley.edu.

The attacker constructs a website with lots of images as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{<img src="http://fake1.berkeley.edu">} \\
\text{<img src="http://fake2.berkeley.edu">} \\
\text{<img src="http://fake3.berkeley.edu">} \\
\text{<img src="http://fake4.berkeley.edu">} \\
\cdots
\end{align*}
\]

⋄ **Question:** If the attacker wants the resolver to accept their spoofed response, the transaction id (16-bit value) must be the same as the resolver’s request transaction id. If the attacker can only send \( k \) responses before the name server responds, what is the probability that the attacker’s response will be accepted by the resolver?

**Solution:** Since the transaction id is a 16-bit value, there are \( 2^{16} \) possible ids. The probability that the attacker’s response will be accepted is \( \frac{k}{2^{16}} \).

⋄ **Question:** If the attacker can send multiple responses which use each possible transaction id, why would the attacker want to load many, even thousands of images on their website rather than just a few.

**Solution:** The attacker is racing to send a response with the valid transaction id to the resolver. If the name server responds first, the attacker can not poison the cache. Therefore, the attacker embeds thousands of images on their website so that they have that many chances to get the correct response to the resolver before the name server.

⋄ **Question:** Assuming that the attacker has constructed a website with the image tags given above, can the attacker poison the resolver’s cache for the domain www.google.com?

**Solution:** No, due to Bailiwick checking. The sources of the images use the name server berkeley.edu and the resolver only accepts records if they are in the name server’s zone. www.google.com is not in the name server’s zone of berkeley.edu.
Question 3  NSEC3

In class, you learned about DNSSEC, which uses signature chains to ensure authentication for DNS results. Recall that when using NSEC3, in the case of a negative result (the name requested doesn’t exist), the name server returns a signed pair of hashes that are alphabetically adjacent to the requested name’s hash.

For example, suppose the procedure is to use SHA1 and then sort the output treated as hexadecimal digits. If the original zone contained:

```
barkflea.foo.com
galumph.foo.com
primo.foo.com
```

then the corresponding SHA1 values would be:

```
barkflea.foo.com = e24f2a7b9fa26e2a0c201a7196325889abf7c45b
galumph.foo.com = 71d0549ab66459447a62b639849145dace1fa68e
primo.foo.com = 8a1011003ade80461322828f3b55b46c44814d6b
```

Sorting these on the hex for the hashes:

```
galumph.foo.com = 71d0549ab66459447a62b639849145dace1fa68e
primo.foo.com = 8a1011003ade80461322828f3b55b46c44814d6b
barkflea.foo.com = e24f2a7b9fa26e2a0c201a7196325889abf7c45b
```

Now if a client requests a lookup of snup.foo.com, which doesn’t exist, the name server will return a record that in informal terms states “the hash that in alphabetical order comes after 71d0549ab66459447a62b639849145dace1fa68e is 8a1011003ade80461322828f3b55b46c44814d6b” (again along with a signature made using foo.com’s key).

The client would compute the SHA1 hash of snup.foo.com:

```
snup.foo.com = 81a8eb8b8bf3dd1f80c6d21320b3bc989801caae9
```

and verify that in alphabetical order it indeed falls between those two returned values (standard ASCII sorting collates digits as coming before letters). That confirms the non-existence of snup.foo.com.

Q3.1 How does NSEC3 help prevent enumeration attacks? Which properties does the hash function need to have?

**Solution:**

Since the client only receives hashes of the domain names, they can’t learn what the original domain names are unless they can break the one-wayness of the hash function.
Q3.2 Describe how an adversary with access to a dictionary might still be able to perform an enumeration attack. What conditions must hold true for the domain names?

Solution:
An adversary can conduct a *dictionary attack*, either directly trying names to see whether they exist, or inspecting the hash values returned by NSEC3 RRs to determine whether names in a dictionary (for which the attacker computes hash values offline) indeed appear in the domain. The domain names must be part of the dictionary in this case.

Q3.3 Is there a modification we can make to prevent the dictionary based enumeration attack that was constructed in subpart 2?

Solution:
We can implement NSEC3 "White lies" which takes the hash of the name and then dynamically computes H(name) + 1 and H(name) - 1 to return a record that states that no name exists between these computed values. This stops enumeration attacks because the values H(name) + 1 and H(name) - 1 are not necessarily associated to the hashes of valid domains.

A drawback to this is that online signing is required since H(name) + 1 and H(name) - 1 cannot be precomputed offline and stored for each possible name/hash.