New Client Puzzle Outsourcing Techniques for DoS Resistance

Brent Waters
Department of Computer Science
Princeton University
bwaters@cs.princeton.edu

John A. Halderman
Department of Computer Science
Princeton University
jhalderm@cs.princeton.edu

Ari Juels
RSA Laboratories
ajuels@rsasecurity.com

Edward W. Felten
Department of Computer Science
Princeton University
felten@cs.princeton.edu

Abstract

We explore new techniques for the use of cryptographic puzzles as a countermeasure to Denial-of-Service (DoS) attacks.

We propose simple new techniques that permit the *outsourcing* of puzzles, meaning their distribution via a robust external service that we call a *bastion*. Many servers can rely on puzzles distributed by a single bastion. We show how a bastion, somewhat surprisingly, need not know which servers rely on its services. Indeed, in one of our constructions, a bastion may consist merely of a publicly accessible random data source, rather than a server. Our outsourcing techniques help eliminate puzzle distribution as a point of compromise.

Our method has three main advantages over prior approaches. First, our method is more resistant to DoS attacks that are aimed at the puzzle mechanism itself, withstanding more than 80% more attack traffic than previous methods, according to our experiments. Second, our method is cheap enough to apply at the IP level, though it also works at higher levels of the protocol stack. Third, our method allows clients to solve puzzles offline, so that users do not have to sit and wait while their computers solve puzzles.

We present a prototype implementation of our approach, and we describe experiments that validate our performance claims.

1 Introduction

Denial-of-service (DoS) attacks present a strong and well established threat to the Internet and e-commerce. One proposed countermeasure requires clients to commit resources to an interaction by successfully solving a computational problem known as a client puzzle [16, 23] before a server will in turn provide resources to the client. In this way, an attacker is unable to consume a large portion of the resources of a targeted server without commanding and investing considerable resources himself.

1.1 Shortcomings of Existing Solutions

While the deployment of client puzzles in attack scenarios seems promising, we have found that most proposed systems of this type have two basic shortcomings.

The first is that the client puzzle mechanism itself can become the target of a denial-of-service attack. In most systems either the puzzle creation or verification operation (or both) require the server to perform a cryptographic hash computation [23, 6, 13]. This opens the possibility that the puzzle verification mechanism itself will be the target of a denial of service attack, in which an attacker floods the server with bogus puzzle solutions which the server has to process. Thus existing client puzzle mechanisms merely replace one possible DoS attack with another one. Although the a DoS attack on the puzzle mechanism requires more attack resources

than before, this is still not an ideal situation. Our experiments, presented below in Section 4.1 demonstrate that puzzle verification increases the server's processing time per new TCP connection by approximately 80 percent.

A few systems [2] attempt to alleviate this problem by outsourcing the hash computation to a designated gateway. This solution, however, just pushes the same vulnerability to a different target. Additionally, a gateway in these systems needs to be aware of each server it might service and thus will not scale well. Deploying a robust gateway service in this manner seems infeasible.

The second shortcoming in current solutions is that clients must, in practice, solve them in on-line fashion. For example, if a website employs client puzzles, then a user who wants to visit the site has to sit and wait, before accessing the site, while his computer solves a puzzle. Thus puzzles use up not only computer time, but also users' time, which is much more valuable; and many users have little patience for website delays, so a site that imposes long puzzle delays will drive away its legitimate users.

The attacker, by contrast, does not have a user sitting at each computer, so he will not have to waste human time. Since human time is far more valuable than computer time, this means that a puzzle that costs the attacker some fixed price to solve will cost the legitimate users much more – not a situation the website's owner wants to see. (Some sites require human intervention, by using CAPTCHAs, but that raises other issues.)

1.2 Our Solution

In this paper we present a new way to use puzzles to mitigate denial-of-service attacks. Our solution has three main attributes:

- The creation of puzzles is outsourced to a secure entity we call a bastion. An arbitrary number of servers can use the same bastion, and can safely share the same set of puzzles, due to the special cryptographic properties of the puzzles. Once constructed, the puzzles will be digitally signed by the bastion so that they can be redistributed by anyone.
- Verifying a puzzle solution requires very little work for a server just a simple table lookup.
- Clients can solve puzzles off-line, so that users do not have to wait for puzzles to be solved.

 Solving a puzzle gives a client access, for a time interval, to a "virtual channel" on the server – that is, to a small slice of the server's resources – and the server makes sure that no virtual channel uses more than its fair share of the server's resources.

Previous schemes involve puzzle distribution on a per-request or per-session basis. Our approach is more coarse-grained, relying on virtual channels, which can be used as an abstraction to protect different types of resources. For example, a web server might limit the number of open TCP connections per channel or a database server could control the rate of database queries processed. When at high risk of DoS attack — or in the midst of an attack — a host in our system accepts communication only via a restricted collection of channels.

To contact a host through one of these channels, a client must provide a valid token. A token consists of the solution to the client puzzle associated with a particular channel and time interval. A client may easily attach tokens to every packet it transmits. The host can easily enumerate in advance the set of valid tokens, so the host can verify tokens and filter channel traffic very efficiently. The idea, then, is that an adversary with limited computational resources may successfully attack only a limited number of channels. The remaining channels may then support normal communications from benign clients. We note that multiple clients can use the same channel for communication. The primary purpose of channels is to use them to segregate adversary requests from user requests.

We justify the use of tokens by the following observation. In typical DoS attacks an attacker commandeers a cohort of "zombie" machines on the edge of the network, but generally does not compromise routers in the middle of the network. Based on this observation, we consider an attack model that assumes only limited eavesdropping by the adversary. (This assumption is explored further in Section 5.3.)

As explained above, puzzle-based DoS solutions provide a newly attractive DoS target, namely the point of distribution of puzzles itself. To address this problem, we propose a novel approach to client-puzzle distribution. We show how to outsource puzzle distribution to a independent web service that offers strong robustness, e.g., a highly distributed content-serving network or well-protected core server. We refer to this service as a bastion. A bastion may serve as a leverage point, reducing the basic robustness requirements needed to defend

a server against DoS.

We present three methods for outsourcing puzzle distribution, each with different requirements on the bastion and defending servers. Our preferred "D-H" construction, which is based on the Diffie-Hellman problem, has two important properties that allow it to avoid the shortcomings of previous client puzzle systems. The first is that the puzzle solutions of servers are made from a combination of the public key of a server and the solution to a puzzle posed by the bastion. When publishing a puzzle the bastion need not actually be aware of which servers will be using that puzzle. Since servers can effectively share puzzle challenges, only a constant number of puzzles need to be published for each round, and these can be distributed and replicated widely. This property, along with the quick solution checking of tokens, protects the puzzle distribution mechanism from attack.

The second property is that when a client solves a puzzle for a particular channel, the solution can be used at any server. The solution for a particular channel is combined with the public key of a server to produce a token solution specialized for that particular server. The client machine is then able to compute solutions ahead of time and adapt them on the fly to whatever server the user becomes interested in. The user will then experience no extra delay once he decides to go to a site.

We show our methods to be both theoretically sound and implementable in practice using existing Internet protocols with an added client-side and server-side components. (Our method maintains compatibility for unmodified clients, but their traffic does not receive the benefit of DoS-resistance.) We describe a prototype implementation of our system that protects the resource of TCP connections, and is transparent to client and server applications.

1.3 Organization

The paper is organized as follows. We describe our puzzle construction and distribution methods in Section 2. In Section 3 we describe how a system can be built using our D-H puzzle construction and we discuss some extensions to our scheme in Section 5. We follow by describing our TCP-level implementation along with experimental results in Section 4. Then we discuss a few ways in which our basic results can be extended in Section 5. Finally, in Section 6 we describe related work and conclude in Section 7.

2 Puzzle Construction

In this section we present our main D-H based puzzle construction scheme that will be the construction of choice for the rest of the paper. We begin by enumerating the several goals we would like our puzzle construction to meet. Next, we present our D-H based construction along with an identity-based variant of it. Finally, we present two other puzzle constructions that are not our primary solutions, but are still interesting to examine.

We emphasize that lack of space forbids our including formal definitions and security proofs here; thus what is presented are construction sketches only and heuristic hardness claims. This is not to discount the importance of a formal model here. On the contrary, formal definitions for puzzle hardness [22, 15] are only incipient in the literature, and would naturally require extension to the outsourcing scenario as a prerequisite for security analysis. This is simply beyond the scope of our investigation here.

Let us introduce some notation. Let f_k : $\{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^k$ be a one-way hash function whose range consists of k-bit strings. It is convenient to model f as a random oracle. The value k is a security parameter; we drop this subscript where appropriate for visual clarity. A parameter l serves to govern the hardness of the puzzle constructions we describe.

For a channel c and timeslot τ and defending server ID, let $\pi_{ID,c,\tau}$ denote a published and authenticated puzzle. Let $\sigma_{ID,c,\tau}$ denote the corresponding solution (which we assume to be unique).

We let y_{ID} denote the public key associated with a particular defending server ID, while x_{ID} denotes the corresponding private key; we let y and x be the respective keys of the bastion. We omit the subscript ID where context makes it clear.

2.1 Goals for our scheme

Puzzle outsourcing for our purposes introduces a new set of constraints and requirements.

To begin with, recall that every timeslot and channel in our solution has only one associated puzzle. Hence for any given timeslot the total number of puzzles is equal to the number of valid channels—perhaps on the order of thousands, according to the parameterizations we envision and describe below. In strict contrast to previous puzzle-based DoS systems, the defending server in our scheme can afford to invest fairly considerable computational resources in puzzle construction and solution. Even the compu-

tation of a modular exponentiation per puzzle would be acceptable. We therefore have the flexibility to introduce puzzle constructions based on public-key cryptography in our scheme.

At the same time, outsourcing imposes a new set of goals for puzzle construction. We enumerate the most important of these here:

- 1. Unique puzzle solutions: The practicality of our solution depends on the ability of a defending server to precompute puzzle solutions prior to their associated timeslot, and subsequently to check their correctness via table lookup. As a result, it is important that puzzles have unique solutions (or a very small number of correct ones).
- 2. **Per-channel puzzle distribution:** It is desirable for the bastion to be able to compute and disseminate puzzle information on a per-channel basis. In other words, the bastion should be able to publish information for a particular channel number c that may be used to deduce the corresponding puzzle for any defending server. (Different servers should have different puzzle solutions, though, so that one server's ability to enumerate its own puzzle solutions does not open other servers up to attack.)

With this property, the bastion need not even know which defending servers rely on its services. This reduces the amount of information the bastion must compute and publish, as well as the need for explicit relationships or coordination between defending servers and bastions.

3. Per-channel puzzle solution: Another desirable property that is for the work done by a client to apply on a per-channel basis, rather than a per-puzzle basis. In particular, we would like a client that has solved a puzzle for a particular channel to be easily able to compute the token for the same channel number on any server. As noted above, this does not mean that tokens should be identical across servers – only that there should be considerable overlap in the brute-force computation need to solve the puzzle for a given channel-number across servers. In particular, it is not desirable for one server to be able to use its shortcut to compute the tokens associated with another server, as this would result in a diffusion of trust across all participating servers, rather than in the bastion alone.

The per-channel puzzle solution property is useful because it allows a client to begin solving puzzles before deciding which server to visit.

4. Random-beacon property: It is possible to achieve a property even stronger than perchannel puzzle distribution. Ideally, puzzles might not require explicit calculation and publication by a bastion. They might instead be derived from the emissions of a random beacon.

We use the term random beacon to refer to a data source that is: (1) Unpredictable, i.e., dependent on a fresh source of randomness; (2) Highly robust, i.e., not subject to manipulation or disruption; and (3) Easily accessible on the Internet. A puzzle construction based on a random beacon would eliminate the need for an explicit bastion service. (Apart from the architectural advantages, this could have the benefit in some circumstances of eliminating any point of legal liability for reliable puzzle distribution.) Hashes of financial-market data, which are broadcast from multiple sources, or even of highly robust Internet news sources would be candidate random beacons.

Note that not only would the bastion (random beacon) here not have to know what defending servers are relying on its services, it wouldn't even have to know that its data are being used to construct puzzles!

- 5. Identity-based key distribution: When puzzles are based on the public key of a defending server, the public key itself must be distributed via a robust directory. A desirable alternative is identity-based distribution, i.e., the ability to derive the public-key of a particular defending server from the server name and a master key that is common to all defending servers. This is very closely analogous to the well-known primitive of identity-based encryption [10].
- 6. Forward security: A final desirable property is forward security. By this we mean that timelimited passive compromise of a bastion should not undermine the DoS protection it confers.

2.2 A D-H based construction

We now describe a puzzle construction based on Diffie-Hellman key agreement [14]. It possesses all of the properties above except the random-beacon property, i.e., it has properties 1,2,3,5 and 6.

Let G be a group of (prime) order q. Let g be a published generator for the group, and l be a parameter denoting the hardness of puzzles for this construction. (As we explain below, we require a strong, generic-group assumption on G.)

We propose a simple solution in which the bastion selects a random integer $r_{c,\tau} \in_R Z_q$ and a second, random integer $a_{c,\tau} \in_R [r_{c,\tau}, (r_{c,\tau}+l) \bmod q]$. (Recall that l is the hardness parameter for the puzzle.) Let f' in this case be a one-way permutation on Z_q , and let $g_{c,\tau} = g^{f'(a_{c,\tau})}$.

The intuition is as follows. The value $g_{c,\tau}$ may be viewed as an ephemeral Diffie-Hellman public key. A puzzle solution for defending server ID is the D-H key that derives from its public key y_{ID} and the ephemeral key $g_{c,\tau}$. Solving a puzzle means solving the associated D-H problem. To render the problem tractable via brute force, the bastion specifies a small range $[r_{c,\tau}, (r_{c,\tau} + l) \mod q]$ of possible seed values for its ephemeral key. In other words, the bastion publishes $\pi_{c,\tau} = (g_{c,\tau}, r_{c,\tau})$.

For a client (or attacker) to solve the puzzle requires brute-force testing of all of the seed values. In particular, for a given candidate value a', the client tests whether $g_{c,\tau} = g^{f'(a')}$. For a particular defending server ID, the solution to the puzzle is $\sigma_{ID} = y_{ID}^{f'(a_{c,\tau})}$.

A defending server, of course, can use its private key x_{ID} as a shortcut to the solution of the puzzle. The defending server can compute $\sigma_{ID} = y_{ID}f'(a_{c,\tau}) = g_{c,\tau}x_{ID}$. In other words, it essentially computes a Diffie-Hellman key. Thus, for a defending server, solution of a puzzle requires essentially just one modular exponentiation.

On average, puzzle solution by a client (or attacker) requires l/2 modular exponentiations over G.

Because of the need for very precise characterization of puzzle hardness, we believe that any concrete computational hardness claim would have to depend on a random-oracle assumption on f' and also a generic-model assumption for the underlying group G [31]. It is thus important to choose G appropriately. (Several common types of algebraic groups are believed to have the ideal properties associated with the generic model, e.g., most elliptic curves and the order-q subgroup G of the multiplicative group Z_n^* , where p = kq + 1 for small k [31].)

Remark on application of f': Applying f' in the computation of ephemeral key $g_{c,\tau} = g^{f'(a_{c,\tau})}$ is a requirement to break algebraic structure among seed-to-key mappings. If we chose $g_{c,\tau} = g^{a_{c,\tau}}$, for example, then it would be possible to cycle through candidate seed values by computing $g^{r_{c,\tau}}$ and repeatedly multiplying by g.

2.3 Identity-based public keys

We very briefly and very informally sketch here a technique for distribution of the public keys $\{y_{ID}\}$ of defending servers in an identity-based manner. In other words, we show how y_{ID} may derive from a string representing the identity ID (e.g., a domain name) and a master private key. A trusted dealer may distribute individual private keys to servers using the master key. This technique can be viewed as a variant of our D-H based construction.

Employing the notation of [10] (with which we assume familiarity here for the sake of brevity). Let $\hat{e}: G \times G \to G'$ be an admissible bilinear mapping in the sense defined in [10] where G and G' are two groups of large prime order q. For G suitably chosen as a subgroup of the additive group of points of an elliptic curve E/F_p for prime p, \hat{e} may be constructed using the Weil pairing. Recall that when the system is correctly parameterized, it is believed that the Bilinear (Computational) Diffie-Hellman (BCDH) Assumption holds, an essential hardness property for our proposal here. Roughly stated, given $P \in_R G$ and points aP, bP, and cP for $a, b, c \in_R Z_q$, it is hard to compute $\hat{e}(P, P)^{abc}$.

Let x' be the private key of the trusted dealer, and let y' = x'g be an associated public key. Finally, let $d: \{0,1\}^* \to G$ be a one-way function mapping identifier strings to group elements in G.

In this scheme, the public key of defending server with identifying string ID is computed simply as $y_{ID} = d(ID)$. The associated private key, computable by the trusted dealer, is $x'y_{ID}$.

As before, we let $a_{c,\tau} \in_R [r_{c,\tau}, (r_{c,\tau}+l) \mod q]$. The ephemeral key computed by the bastion assumes the form $g_{c,\tau} = f'(a_{c,\tau})g$. The bastion publishes $\pi_{c,\tau} = (g_{c,\tau}, r_{c,\tau})$, just as it does in the D-H puzzle.

The difference for the identity-based variant lies in the form of the puzzle solution. This is defined here to be $\sigma_{ID,c,\tau} = \hat{e}(y_{ID},g)^{x'f'(a_{c,\tau})}$. (This solution may be hashed for compactness.) After solving for $a_{c,\tau}$, a client may compute this as $\hat{e}(y_{ID},y')^{f'(a_{c,\tau})}$. The defending server may use its knowledge of x_{ID} as a shortcut. In particular, $\sigma_{c,\tau}^{(ID)} = \hat{e}(x_{ID},g_{c,\tau}) = \hat{e}(y_{ID},g)^{x'f'(a_{c,\tau})}$.

By analogy with our D-H construction, the work for brute-force solution here is on average l/2 multiplications over the elliptic-curve based group G.

2.4 Other Schemes

In this subsection we discuss two other puzzle constructions that are of interest. The first is a hash-function-inversion puzzle construction. This construction is worth examining since its basic methods are closest to previous work on client puzzles. However, the construction does not meet properties 2,3,4, or 5. The most serious limitation is that it does not meet property two. Therefore, the bastion must compute a set of puzzles for each participating server.

The other construction we present is based upon time-lock puzzles. The most interesting property of this construction is that it meets property 4 in that puzzles challenges can be made from a random beacon. However, it does not meet property 3 and the client must compute puzzle solutions that are particular to the server he is visiting.

2.4.1 Hash-function-inversion puzzle construction

It is possible to perform outsourcing by means of partial hash-function inversion problems like those employed in previous puzzle-based approaches to DoS, e.g., [2, 23]. The idea, briefly stated, is as follows. Let $\sigma_{c,\tau}$ be the j-bit secret key for j>l. A puzzle is computed as $f(\sigma_{c,\tau})$. To calibrate the hardness of the problem so as to require 2^{l-1} hash-function computations on average, all but l bits of $\sigma_{c,\tau}$ are revealed. Thus, for instance, a puzzle might take the form $\pi_{c,\tau}=(f(\sigma_{c,\tau}),\sigma'_{c,\tau})$, where $\sigma'_{c,\tau}$ consists of all but the first l bits of $\sigma_{c,\tau}$.

To outsource the construction of such puzzles, we simply let x_{ID} be shared between the defending server and bastion. (The secret x_{ID} might be computed as a function of y and y_{ID} via D-H key agreement.) We let $\sigma_{ID,c,\tau}=f(c,\tau,x_{ID})$. With this approach, the defending server can quickly compute the set of solutions to puzzles for a given timeslot τ without communicating with the bastion.

2.4.2 Time-lock puzzle construction

We now propose a puzzle construction that has properties 1,2,4, and 6 above. It achieves the random-beacon property. It has the disadvantage of no identity-based variant and no per-channel puzzle solution property. Thus, this solution requires ex-

plicit distribution of public keys for defending servers and a client cannot start solving puzzles prior to determining which server to access.

This construction is a simple adaptation of the time-lock puzzle scheme proposed by Rivest, Shamir, and Wagner [29]. A public key y_{ID} consists of an n-bit RSA modulus N_{ID} . (See [29] for discussion of restrictions on the choice of N.)

In the original RSW construction, a random value $a \in_R Z_n$ serves as a basis for the puzzle. The prescribed task for solution of the puzzle is the computation of a secret value $b = a^{2^l} \mod n$. Here, b serves essentially as a key to the puzzle. The parameter l governs the hardness of the puzzle; in particular, a solver must perform l modular squarings in order to compute b and "unlock" the puzzle.

Knowledge of the factorization of n provides a shortcut to compute the secret b. For large l, computation of $e = 2^l \mod \phi(n)$ and then $a^e \mod n$ is much faster than brute-force squaring.

As explained above, the original RSW construction aims at creating a kind of digital time-capsule, that is, a cryptogram solvable only in the distant future thanks to advances in computing power. RSW propose that the puzzle constructor determine how hard the puzzle should be, use the shortcut in order to create an encryption key associated with the puzzle, and then erase all data associated with the shortcut, thereby sealing the time-capsule.

The main goal in the RSW design was to render the solution process difficult to parallelize, so that the ability to unlock the puzzle would truly depend upon raw advances in computing power. This property is achieved thanks to the sequential nature of the modular squarings required for the solution. (A puzzle based on hash-function inversion, for example, would not achieve this goal, as it could be divided among many different computing devices.)

We exploit an altogether different property of the RSW construction (one probably not explicitly designed by its inventors). We observe that a time-lock puzzle may be derived very simply from a random string (used to derive a) and an RSA modulus. No explicit computation by the bastion is required to create a valid time-lock puzzle. This is very different from the case, for instance, with our D-H solution above, which requires computation of an ephemeral D-H key, or from a hash-function-inversion puzzle, which requires the hashing of a secret value.

Given this observation, the puzzle construction

¹Note that a related inversion-based puzzle construction is employed in [18]. That construction does not in general have a unique solution for a given puzzle, and therefore cannot be used conveniently for our purposes, as explained below.

is quite simple. Let r_{τ} be a suitably long random string emitted by a random beacon in timestep τ (say, n+k bits in length for security parameter $k \approx 128$). We let $r_{ID,c,\tau} = f_{n+k}(ID,c,\tau,r_{\tau})$. We then compute $\pi_{ID,c,\tau} = a_{c,\tau} = r_{ID,c,\tau} \mod N_{ID}$.

The solution $\sigma_{ID,c,\tau}$ to this puzzle is just $(a_{c,\tau})^{2^l} \mod N_{ID}$. A client (or attacker) must compute this by repeated squarings. The defending server may compute it quickly using its shortcut.

Note that from a single random value, puzzles may be computed for an arbitrarily large number of channels. The security parameter l may be set by a defending server as desired. For the defending server, the work to solve a puzzle only requires a modular reduction (whose size is parameterized by l) and an RSA exponentiation. For a client (or attacker), solving the puzzle requires l modular squarings.

3 System Description

In this section we describe how a system using our puzzle constructions will work in practice and analyze the effectiveness of our scheme. To be concrete we use the D-H puzzle construction, but without the identity-based variant. We first describe the system parameters and operation. Then we give a practical example where we look at parameter values that might be used in practice.

In our scheme each server will have n communication channels. The solutions to channels will be valid for a time period of length t. Typically, the period will be coarse grained so that t will be on the order of several minutes. We use T_i to denote the i-th time period.

At the beginning of the period T_i the bastion will publish puzzle challenges that have solutions which will be valid during T_{i+1} . The clients solve the puzzles distributed at the beginning of T_i during the rest of T_i and use these solutions during T_{i+1} . The server will correspondingly populate its token list for time period T_{i+1} during T_i .

For simplicity we will assume that all client machines have the same processing power to devote to puzzle solving and we view an attacker is a compromised client machine. We let s denote the average number of solutions a client can solve during a period. The puzzle difficulty (determined by the range of possible puzzle solutions) will be set low enough such that every client machine will be guaranteed to solve at least one puzzle. To guarantee this we need

to have $s \ge 2$. During each cycle clients will choose random channels to solve a puzzle for.

When a user indicates to a client that it wants to contact a specific server, the process is as follows. The client must first obtain the public key for the server (for the denial-of-service system). The client then adapts the solutions it has computed to this public key. The extra amount of computation to customize a solution for a particular public key – and thus server – is just one exponentiation. The token corresponding to the solution for the particular server and a given channel will be attached to requests made by the client.

If the server is not under attack it will just ignore the tokens and operate as a standard server. Suppose now that an attacker controls A attacker machines and begins a Denial-of-Service attack. If the attacker machines are well-coordinated then the attacker will be able to solve As solutions per time period on average. If the attacker focuses an attack on time periods T_{i+1} by solving puzzles for T_{i+1} over two time periods T_i and T_{i+1} then at one point the attacker can get 2As solutions.

One type of attack that the attacker can do is request as many resources as possible using its legitimate channels. Under this attack the server will need to have a policy for how it divides out resources between channels. For example, if the TCP layer is being protected, the server might limit the rate of SYN packets processed per channel. We see that our channels are the units that resources are allocated over. Although developing a good resource allocation policy is important, it is beyond the scope of this paper.

When the attacker machines are aggressive in requesting resources they can potentially collect all the resources allocated to the channels that they have solutions for. In this case a client that solves for the same channel as an adversary will not be able to get any resources using that channel. If an adversary focuses an attack on one particular time period it can occupy $\frac{2as}{n}$ of the channels.

If a client makes a request on a channel that is not occupied by an adversary and the policy permits the request the server can process the request immediately. Since the puzzles were solved for in the last period the user will not experience any delay from the

²In reality some machines will have more processing power to devote to puzzle solving than others. The choice of parameters will need to strike a balance between accommodating slower legitimate client machines and making the puzzles difficult enough to defend against attackers.

client puzzle system. We emphasize that the policy of allocating resources to each channel controls the rate of resources whereas in traditional client puzzle systems that rate control is related directly to the hardness of puzzles and thus directly effects the user latency.

The attacker might decide to attack the puzzle defense mechanism itself. If this is the case the attacker can flood the server with requests. If the requests have fake token solutions then the overhead associated with our scheme is that of performing a memory lookup to check the token's validity. In contrast other schemes require a hash computation at this step. We emphasize that the computations required by the server to generate the list of tokens in our scheme is related to the number of channels that are created and not the number of requests that an attacker machine can make. Another flooding attack is for an adversary to make repeated requests using a valid token. In this case the overhead associated with our scheme is that of checking the resources allocated to a particular channel which again should be minimal.

We summarize the client and server operations as follows.

Client

- During period T_i downloads random puzzles from the bastion service and solves them with spare computational resources.
- During time period T_{i+1} uses the solutions that were solved during the previous period T_i .
- When a user wishes to make a request from a
 certain server the client machine checks to see if
 the server has a public key for DoS prevention. If
 so the client combines its puzzle solution and the
 server's public key to get a token for a particular
 channel on the server. The token is appended to
 the request.
- If the client has multiple puzzle solutions for multiple channels and one is not working on a particular server, the client may retry the request using a different token for a different channel.

Server

• During time period T_i downloads all the puzzles for the channels and computes a token list from them using its private key. The list is used during the next period T_{i+1} .

- If the system load is low and there is no DoS attack then the server ignores the tokens and processes requests as though there were no DoS prevention system.
- During an attack the server only accepts requests that have valid tokens for solutions. The request tokens for a particular channel is quickly checked against the table of valid tokens. The amount of resources granted will be limited on a per channel basis.

3.1 An Example

To make our ideas more concrete we present a practical example of what types of parameters might be used in our scheme.

The length of a time cycle, t, will typically be on the order of minutes. Larger values of t will allow the server more time to compute more tokens and thus offer more channels. Since the number of channels an attacker machine can occupy can be controlled by adjusting the puzzle difficulty, the larger t is the smaller proportion of channels an adversary can control. A large value of t has the disadvantage that a machine booted up will have to wait longer before it can get a valid solution, however, once it starts solving puzzles it will solve them for the proceeding cycle so there will be no delay after the second period following bootup. Additionally, if all the channels that a client has a solution for are occupied by an adversary then it will need to wait for a full cycle before it can try new channels.

Using a large number of channels is advantageous in that the more channels there are the smaller a chance that a legitimate client will solve a puzzle for the same channel as an adversary. In general the number of channels a server can offer is limited by both the memory on the server for storing token lists and bookkeeping information for the resources allocated to each channel and the computational resources that a server can devote to populating the list. In our D-H solution the computational resources of the server will be the limiting factor. As a rough estimate a 2.1GHz Pentium processor was measured to be able to compute a 1024-bit DH key agreement in 3.7ms [11]. If a server was able to devote 1 minute or 5 percent of processing power for every cycle then it could populate tokens for about n = 16,000 channels. 3

³If we used the identity-based variant the time to compute a pairing would be around an order of magnitude more than the exponentiation so we would have around an order of magnitude less channels. Therefore, the identity-based variant is

Using these parameters we now want to figure out what a client's chances are solving for a puzzle that is not occupied by an adversary. If we set s=2 every client will solve at least one puzzle (since it can search the whole range of possible solutions for one puzzle) and half the clients will solve at least 2 puzzles. If a attack is made with 50 zombie machines then the attack at its peak will occupy $2\times50\times2=200$ puzzles resulting in it occupying $\frac{200}{16,000}\times100=1.25$ percent of the channels. The chances of a legitimate client not having any solutions for channels not occupied by adversaries is at most $(.5\times.0125+.5\times.0125^2)\times100\sim.625$ percent.

4 Implementation

We have constructed a functioning prototype implementation of our design as it is described in section 3. The implementation consists of a suite of programs that run on the Linux operating system. They use the GNU MP Bignum library [28] for multiple precision arithmetic and the Netfilter framework [27] for network packet mangling.

Our system protects against attacks at the TCP level by regulating the rate at which new TCP connections may be established. To accomplish this, each client inserts tokens derived from its puzzle solutions into an option field of the TCP SYN packet (the first packet sent in the connection establishment process). Servers check for the presence of a valid token and use the token to separate connections into channels for rate limiting. Each channel will only accept one new connection every n seconds, where n is set by the server operator. This policy is appropriate for protecting services that use a constant amount of resources for the duration of each connection.

The first program in our suite is the bastion, which creates new sets of puzzles at a regular interval. The number of puzzles in each generation, their hardness, and the time between new generations are configured by the bastion operator. Our bastion writes a set of puzzle files that are distributed by a normal web server using HTTP. We chose this design because it can be easily scaled to serve large numbers of clients by using multiple web servers or existing high-availability content distribution schemes. In each time period, the bastion creates a separate file for each puzzle, so clients only need to download the puzzle they have selected to solve, as well as a digest file containing all the puzzles, so servers only need to make one HTTP request to retrieve the entire set of

currently not as practical, but might become so in the near future as processing power increases. puzzles.

The next program is a packet-tagging application that runs on client machines. It runs two threads: a puzzle solver and a packet rewriter. The puzzle solver waits for the bastion to post a new puzzle generation then randomly selects a puzzle and computes its solution. The packet rewriter tags outgoing SYN packets with tokens that prove the client has solved a puzzle.

The client processes packets with the Netfilter ip_queue library, which allows it to run entirely in user space. When the client detects an outgoing SYN packet, it appends a 20-byte option to the TCP header. The option consists of two tokens computed from puzzle solutions and the server's public key, along with the index of each solved puzzle in the bastion's puzzle set. We use two tokens - one solution from each of the previous two generations – to ensure that the server will accept the connection even if it has switched to a new generation somewhat sooner or later than the client. The tokens consist of the first 48 bits of the puzzle solutions. Their size is sufficiently large to prevent guessing of tokens during the time period when each puzzle is valid, yet short enough to fit in the TCP header.

Finally, we have a pair of applications that run on each server. They consist of a user space program that precomputes puzzle solutions and a kernel module that filters incoming packets. The server's user space program monitors the bastion for a new generation of puzzles and retrieves the complete set of puzzles when it is available. Then it precomputes the solution to each puzzle using the server's private key. When a subsequent generation of puzzles is posted by the bastion, the user space application transfers the previous set of solutions to the kernel module, which begins requiring that clients send solutions to puzzles from this generation.

We implemented server side packet filtering as a kernel module for speed and robustness. The module receives incoming IP packets using a hook into the Netfilter framework. We receive each packet immediately after the network subsystem has routed the packet and determined that it is destined for the local machine, and before the packet reaches higher-level protocol subsystems like TCP. If a packet is a SYN, the module begins to filter it by scanning the header for our option field and extracting the tokens and their indexes. Each token is validated by comparing it to the entry in the table of precomputed tokens corresponding to the supplied index. If either token matches, its index becomes the number of the

connection's channel, and the rate limiting mechanism is applied to determine whether the connection will be accepted. Packets that exceed the rate limit or have bad tokens are immediately dropped.

4.1 Experiment

As stated before, a potential pitfall of Denial-of-Service prevention mechanisms is that they themselves will become the targets of DoS attacks. In puzzle-based solutions, if the overhead of checking puzzle solutions is too great, an attacker can overwhelm the server with a flood of packets containing bad solutions. To see how well our implementation fared against such an attack, we performed tests comparing it to two related anti-DoS mechanisms: conventional client hash puzzles and Linux's syncookies.

In our experiment we measured the load on a test server that was the target of TCP SYN flood attacks of varying intensity. The server was an 866MHz Pentium III running Redhat Linux 9.2 (kernel version 2.4.20-31.9). It was connected to three attacker machines via a 100-megabit Ethernet switch. The attack strength was modulated by employing combinations of attackers with different CPU power. Each SYN packet was tagged with an invalid puzzle token.

Our mechanism requires processor time to precompute the puzzle solutions for each generation, but exactly how much time is required depends on the puzzle parameters set by the bastion. To account for this, we measured our system in two configurations: a scenario where the server needed to calculate its tokens for 10,000 channels over a time period of 20 minutes, and a baseline configuration specially compiled to disable any token calculations. (The latter scenario rejects all TCP connections, so it is only useful for benchmarking.)

To determine system load, we counted how many loop iterations per second were performed by a process set to the lowest scheduling priority, both when the system was idle and during the attacks. In most scenarios we took the average load over a three minute period. However, to account for the uneven CPU load during token calculation in our solution, we took the average over the entire 20 minute time period when tokens were being computed.

To simulate a conventional (non-outsourced) client puzzle mechanism, we modified our kernel module to replace the puzzle verification code with a SHA-1 hash computation on 56-bytes of arbitrary data. After this computation the module drops the packet. To test syncookies we performed no filtering

of our own and allowed Linux to send an ACK packet containing a cookie in response to each SYN.

The results of our experiment are plotted in Figure 4.1 together with a linear regression for each series. At almost all rates of attack, our solution outperformed both the SHA-based puzzles and syncookies, which had nearly equal performance 4 .

We found syncookies contributed an average of 1% load for every 541 packets per second. For the same cost, the SHA-based puzzle mechanism processed about 530 packets per second, and our method processed about 1014 packets per second. However, precomputing puzzle solutions for our scheme added a constant load of about 2.5%, regardless of attack strength. Extrapolating from this data, our scheme (with precomputing) can withstand approximately 87% more attack packets per second than SHA-based puzzles before reaching full system load, and 83% more than syncookies.

5 Extensions

5.1 Flexible number of channels

To this point we have assumed that all servers will use the same number of channels. In reality we would like to give some more flexibility to the servers. Some servers might want to tradeoff more processing time in order to provide more channels and thus handle more attackers. The primary challenge is to allow this, but in such a way that our D-H construction still has the property that a solution can be applied to any server.

We can do this in the following manner. Suppose that the maximum number of channels that a server might solve is n and that the bastion publishes n puzzles as before. We will refer to these as the primary puzzles. Clients will randomly choose puzzles to solve from among this group. Now suppose we want to allow for a server to have $\frac{n}{d}$ solutions for some d. The bastion can then create $\frac{n}{d}$ new puzzles except that instead of giving a range hint for the solutions it will encrypt these secondary puzzle solutions with the solutions of the primary puzzles. For example, if y_j denotes the solution to puzzle j in the secondary set and z_i the solution to puzzle i in the primary set then we would produce d encryption of y_j with the keys $z_{d\times j}, \ldots, z_{d\times (j+1)-1}$. Using this technique the solutions for primary channels can ef-

⁴It may seem curious that the SHA-based puzzles and syncookies follow nearly identical load profiles. The reason is that the dominant cost of syncookies is also a SHA-1 hash computation for every packet.

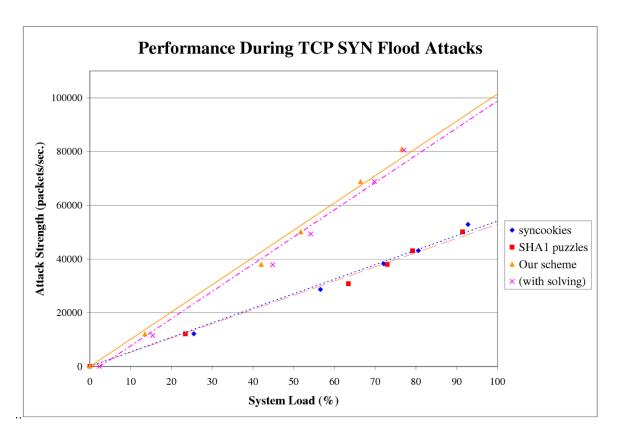


Figure 1: Graph showing the number of attack packets per second that yield a given system load using syncookies, traditional hash puzzles, and our approach.

lower number of channels.

5.2Challenges in IP-Level Deployment

Although our implementation applies clients puzzles at the TCP level, regulating the creation of new TCP connections, the same method could be applied at other levels of the protocol stack, including the IP level. This is not true of previous puzzle-based approaches: since their puzzle solutions are more expensive to verify, a server or router could not afford to perform a puzzle verification for each IP packet. Our approach, by contrast, would require only a table lookup per packet, and so would be feasible at the IP level.

The biggest challenge we face in deploying our method at the IP level is where in the IP packet to put the token (i.e, the puzzle solution). There aren't enough unused bits in the IP header, so the logical way to attach the token is to make it an IP header option. (This approach is feasible in both

fectively be combined to allow for a server to have a IPv4 and IPv6, but it is a bit more natural in IPv6.) A header option will be ignored by routers that do not understand it; but any router or end host will be able to extract it and check it against the list of acceptable tokens.

> To make this feasible for a high-capacity site, the extraction and checking of the token would have to be included in the fast-path mechanism of a router. Whether this is feasible depends on the details of how the router is designed. Space does not permit us to delve deeply into this issue, except to say that it appears to be possible on some routers but difficult on others. We leave the construction of a high-speed IP-level implementation for future work.

5.3 Eavesdropping attacks

As stated in the introduction we use an attack model where we assume that eavesdropping on the Internet is difficult for typical DoS attackers. However, it is still useful to consider what happens if eavesdropping occurs, in what situations it might occur, and measures that can be used by a client to prevent being eavesdropped upon.

If an attacker is able to eavesdrop on packets sent by a client to the server under attack, then he effectively converts the client into a drone that solves puzzles for him. This will have two repercussions. First, the attacker will be able to get another channel and consume more resources on the system as a whole. Second, the attacker will occupy the same channel as the client from which he steals tokens and that client will likely be shut out of that channel. Therefore, there is a special incentive for clients not to have their tokens eavesdropped upon.

Since core routers on the Internet are difficult to compromise, the the most likely source for eavesdropping attacks are on the edge of the Internet such as a local LAN. If a client suspects that his packets are being eavesdropped upon, then it could send them securely to some part of the net that it believes to be uncorrupted. One way of doing this is to tunnel packets through IPsec [32]. We do not recommend for the server itself (or a nearby router) to act as an endpoint for such a tunnel, as the IPsec protocol could become a DoS vulnerability itself.

6 Related Work

In the data-security world, the term *puzzle* commonly refers to cryptograms that are solvable with a moderate level of effort. Most cryptographic systems rely on intractable computational problems; for example, the RSA cryptosystem relies on the (apparently) hard problem of factoring products of large primes. In constrast puzzles may enhance system security by raising a non-trivial, but surmountable barrier to acquisition of some resource. This helps render a resource freely available while thwarting efforts at unfair or malicious exploitation.

In this paper we consider the use of puzzles as a countermeasure to DoS attack. Dwork and Naor [16] were the first to propose the use of puzzles for this purpose – in particular, for mitigating spam. Briefly stated, successful delivery of a piece of e-mail in their scheme requires that the sender attach a valid puzzle solution. A would-be spammer therefore faces the deterrent of a large and expensive amount of computation.

Since computational time costs money (directly or indirectly), the Dwork and Naor scheme may be thought of as akin to a micropayment system for postage. Back [7] independently devised and implemented a similar system known as Hash Cash. Gabber et al. describe an extension of the idea in which puzzles are used to establish relationships between corresponding users so as to permit effective isola-

tion of spam.

The Dwork-Naor and Back systems permit precomputation of puzzles, namely the solution of puzzles at a time arbitrarily antedating the sending of the e-mail they are associated with. This achieves the goal of imposing a computational cost on the sending of spam. It is problematic, however, for defense again the common form of DoS in which an attacker seeks to disable a server by overwhelming its resources during some restricted period of time. This DoS attack, often referred to as a flooding attack, is a common real-world DoS problem. It is our main focus in this paper.

Juels and Brainard [23] addressed the problem of puzzle precomputation permitting flooding with an idea called "client puzzles"; these are puzzles based on session-specific parameters, that can be applied to interactive protocols like TCP and SSL. Aura, Nikander, and Leiwo [6] propose variants aimed specifically at DoS attacks against authentication protocols. Dean and Stubblefield [13] focus on the application of client puzzles to SSL (or TLS), and investigate the thorny deployment issues it poses. Wang and Reiter [36] also consider puzzle deployment for DoS protection in authentication. They devise a system in which clients bid for resources by solving puzzles of appropriate difficulty.

More recently, researchers have proposed a few variants on basic puzzle constructions. Abadi et al. [1] describe a new puzzle construction aiming at a levelling effect among computational platforms (i.e., at permitting more equal resource allocation among fast and slow machines). The puzzles they propose rely primarily on the resource of high speed memory, which tends to be more equally distributed among computing platforms than raw computational power. Dwork et al. [15] propose some improved constructions in follow-up work. Finally, CAPTCHAs [35] are a kind of puzzle that depend upon human work, rather than machine computation, for their solution. All of these puzzle variants may be adapted to our proposal in this paper.

A scheme that we draw on directly for one of our proposed puzzle constructions is the *time-lock* puzzle construction of Rivest, Shamir, and Wagner [29]. The goal of RSW was to create a kind of time capsule for data. In particular, they wished to construct a cryptogram that would be solvable only at a distant future date – say, in the year 2025. To do so, they proposed use of Moore's Law to estimate future computing power. They show how to craft a puzzle whose solution relies strictly on sequential computa-

tion and therefore on raw advances in computational speed, rather than on parallelization.

We do not in fact draw on the functional characteristics designed by RSW for their scheme. Instead, we draw on an incidental algebraic property. An RSW puzzle has the unusual characteristic of being implicitly derivable from an entirely random bitstring and a public key. We explain our use of this features in section 2.4.2.

We omit discussion here of many cryptographic and other uses of puzzles apart from combatting DoS, e.g., [17, 20, 22, 26].

6.1 Approaches to IP-layer DoS

Puzzles represent only one approach to DoS mitigation, and they have previously seen use mainly at the application or session-establishment level, rather than at lower protocol levels. A goal of our proposal is to provide techniques efficient enough to be deployed to help low protocol layers, such as TCP or even IP. We discuss some of the existing techniques for IP-layer protection here.

One of the best known approaches to addressing IP-layer attacks is referred to as traceback. This involves the supplementation of packet data to permit tracing of the origins of an attack [3, 9, 12, 30, 33]. Pushback [25] and Path Identification (Pi) [37] are related IP-level approaches to DoS. They facilitate gathering of forensic data, but suffer from the drawback that that they require modifications to the routing infrastructure. Anomaly detection [8, 21] is another actively researched approach to IP-level DoS that involves classification and suppression of suspicious network traffic.

A very practical approach to attacks against certain protocols (and used in real-world systems to protect the TCP SYN protocol) is known as a *syncookie*. In order to validate the claimed IP address of a client, a server transmits a (cryptographically computed) cookie to the address. The client must transmit this cookie to the server in order to have its service request completed. Thus, while not aimed at IP-layer DoS, syncookies exploit low-level network services to achieve their protection.

An important emerging thread of research on DoS that underlies our work involves redirection of potentially hostile traffic to robust loci capable of withstanding attack and providing filtering services, as in Stone [34], Andersen [4], and Keromytis et al. [24]. Recently Adkins, Lakshminarayanan, Perrig, and Stoica [2] show how to combine this approach

with puzzles; among other ideas, they advocate leveraging the (proposed) Internet Indirection Infrastructure (i3) in such a way that a challenge puzzle is issued for each connection request. Our proposal is similar in flavor, but more lightweight and consequently coarser in nature. A key difference is that we advocate outsourcing from the defending server only the process of puzzle distribution, rather than broad management of incoming traffic.

In this respect, our proposal is similar to that of Anderson, Roscoe, and Wetherall [5]. They propose that a client use a token in order to validate a path to a server; this token serves as a packet-level nonce employable for purposes of filtering by "verification points." A token in the ARW approach serves essentially the same function as a puzzle solution in our own. The security model is similar as well: Anderson et al. assume that adversaries do not eavesdrop extensively on network links. A key difference is the way in which tokens are distributed. ARW propose incremental deployment of an infrastructure of "Request-to-Send" (RTS) servers (and do not detail the critical policy question of how transmitters are authorized to obtain tokens from RTS servers). Bastions in our proposal are analogous to RTS servers. Indeed, our proposal may be viewed as a more practical alternative to RTS servers: Bastions dispose of the need both for an infrastructure of actively intercommunicating servers and for explicit policies about token distribution.

Gligor [19] also considers the problem of the overhead of conventional client puzzle schemes and proposes an outsourcing scheme. However, his scheme relies on a third party that is positioned to verify the source IP address of the requester. We do not suppose the existence of such a party.

6.2 Our work

Most previous puzzle-based approaches to DoS (as well as other ideas like syncookies) have sought to defend against application-layer attacks. As such, they operate under the assumption that a defending server can dispense puzzles effectively even in the course of a DoS attack. What is assumed to be in jeopardy is the ability to provide resource-intensive services such as SSL connections.

As mentioned, though, most real-world DoS attacks to date have occurred at the IP or TCP layers. With this in mind, our proposal aims to provide DoS protection efficient enough to be applicable down to the lowest protocol layers, and even in the face of attacks that obstruct all effective outbound commu-

nication. Thus we cannot take for granted the ability of the defending server to dispense puzzles.

For this reason we adopt the approach of outsourcing the process of puzzle distribution to a robust external service. Viewed another way, our goal is to enable a defending server to leverage the strong robustness of a bastion. We wish to accomplish this in a lightweight manner. In our solution, the bastion only assumes responsibility for distributing puzzles rather than performing any services or other content distribution on behalf of defending servers. This is important in rendering our solution practical and flexible. (In practice, a bastion might be furnished by a highly distributed and robust content server such as Akamai, or a core Internet service like DNS. If the bastion timestamps and digitally signs puzzles, then puzzles may in principle be redistributed from any point on the Internet.)

Unlike most previous solutions applicable at the IP layer (e.g. traceback), ours does not require routing-infrastructure changes. Instead like most puzzle-based solutions, our solution requires special software deployment on clients.

7 Conclusion

We have examined the problem of defending a server against Denial-of-Service attacks using a new technique of client puzzles. We observe that since puzzle distribution itself can be subject to attack, any viable system must have a robust method of puzzle distribution. We developed a new model for puzzle distribution using a robust service that we call a bastion. The bastion distributes puzzles and solutions to the puzzles allow clients access to communication channels. Within this model we develop different cryptographic techniques for puzzle dispersement. Our primary method, the D-H puzzle construction has the advantages that the bastion does not need to be aware of the server's using the system and that solutions to puzzles can be computed off-line resulting in minimal user delay. Finally, we implemented a prototype of our system that works on today's Internet and experimentally demonstrated the advantages of our solution.

References

- M. Abadi, M. Burrows, M. Manasse, and T. Wobber. Moderately hard, memory-bound functions. In NDSS '03, pages 107–121. Internet Society, 2003.
- [2] D. Adkins, K. Lakshminarayanan, A. Perrig,

- and I. Stoica. Taming IP packet flooding attacks. In *HotNets-II*. ACM Press, 2003.
- [3] M. Adler. Tradeoffs in probabilistic packet marking for IP traceback. In *STOC '02*, pages 407–418. ACM Press, 2002.
- [4] D. G. Andersen. Mayday: Distributed filtering for Internet services. In USENIX Symposium on Internet Technologies and Systems (USITS), 2003.
- [5] T. Anderson, T. Roscoe, and D. Wetherall. Preventing Internet denial-of-service with capabilities. In *HotNets-II*. ACM Press, 2003.
- [6] T. Aura, P. Nikander, and J. Leiwo. DoSresistant authentication with client puzzles. In 8th International Workshop on Security Protocols, pages 170–181. Springer-Verlag, 2000.
- [7] A. Back. Hashcash a denial-of-service countermeasure, 2002. Original system developed in 1997. Manuscript. Referenced 2004 at http://www.hashcash.org/hashcash.pdf.
- [8] P. Barford, J. Kline, D. Plonka, and A. Ron. A signal analysis of network traffic anomalies. In Internet Measurement Workshop, 2002.
- [9] S. Bellovin, M. Leech, and T. Taylor. ICMP traceback messages, 2003. Internet Draft.
- [10] D. Boneh and M. Franklin. Identity based encryption from the Weil pairing. SIAM J. of Computing, 32(3):586-615, 2003.
- [11] Wei Dai. Crypto 5.1 benchmarks. Web site at http://www.eskimo.com/ wei-dai/benchmarks.html.
- [12] D. Dean, M. Franklin, and A. Stubblefield. An algebraic approach to IP traceback. *Information* and System Security, 5(2):99–137, 2002.
- [13] D. Dean and A. Stubblefield. Using client puzzles to protect TLS. In 10th USENIX Security Symposium, pages 1–8, 2001.
- [14] W. Diffie and M.E. Hellman. New directions in cryptography. *IEEE Transactions on Informa*tion Theory, 22:644–654, 1976.
- [15] C. Dwork, A. Goldberg, and M. Naor. On memory-bound functions for fighting spam. In D. Boneh, editor, CRYPTO '03, pages 426–444. Springer-Verlag, 2003.

- [16] C. Dwork and M. Naor. Pricing via processing or combatting junk mail. In Ernest F. Brickell, editor, CRYPTO '92, pages 139–147. Springer-Verlag, 1992.
- [17] M.K. Franklin and D. Malkhi. Auditable metering with lightweight security. In R. Hirschfeld, editor, *Financial Cryptography '97*, pages 151– 160. Springer-Verlag, 1997.
- [18] E. Gabber, M. Jakobsson, Y. Matias, and A. Mayer. Curbing junk e-mail via secure classification. In R. Hirschfeld, editor, *Financial Cryptography* '98. Springer-Verlag, 1998.
- [19] Virgil D. Gligor. Guaranteeing access in spite of service-flooding attacks. In *Security Protocols Workshop*, 2003.
- [20] D. Goldschlag and S. Stubblebine. Publicly verifiable lotteries: Applications of delaying functions. In R. Hirschfeld, editor, Financial Cryptography '98. Springer-Verlag, 1998.
- [21] A. Hussain, J. Heidemann, and C. Papdopolous. A framework for classifying denial-of-service attacks. In ACM SIGCOMM, 2003.
- [22] M. Jakobsson and A. Juels. Proofs of work and bread pudding protocols. In *Communications* and *Multimedia Security*, pages 258–272. Kluwer Academic, 1999.
- [23] A. Juels and J. Brainard. Client puzzles: A cryptographic countermeasure against connection depletion attacks. In Proceedings of the 1999 ISOC Network and Distributed System Security Symposium, pages 151–165, 1999.
- [24] A. D. Keromytis, V. Misra, and D. Rubenstein. SOS: Secure overlay services. In ACM SIG-COMM, pages 61–72. ACM Press, 2002.
- [25] R. Mahajan, S.M. Bellovin, S. Floyd, J. Ioannidis, V. Paxons, and S. Shenker. Controlling high bandwidth aggregates in the network. ACM Computer Communication Review, 32(3):62–73, 2002.
- [26] R. Merkle. Secure communications over insecure channels. *Communications of the ACM*, 21(8):294–299, April 1978.
- [27] The Netfilter/Iptables Project. Web site at http://www.netfilter.org.
- [28] The GNU MP Project. Web site at http://www.gnu.org/software/gmp/gmp.html.

- [29] R.L. Rivest, A. Shamir, and D. Wagner. Timelock puzzles and timed-release crypto. Technical Report MIT/LCS/TR-684, MIT, 1996.
- [30] S Savage, D. Wetherall, A. Karlin, and T. Anderson. Practical network support for IP traceback. In ACM SIGCOMM 2000, pages 295–306, 2000.
- [31] C.-P. Schnorr and M. Jakobsson. Security of discrete log cryptosystems in the random oracle and generic model. In *The Mathematics of Public-Key Cryptography*. The Fields Institute, 1999.
- [32] IP Security Protocol Charter. Web site at http://www.ietf.org/html.charters/ipsec-charter.html.
- [33] D. X. Song and A. Perrig. Advanced and authenticated marking schemes for IP traceback. In *IEEE INFOCOM*, pages 878–886, 2001.
- [34] R. Stone. CenterTrack: An IP overlay network for tracking DoS floods. In *USENIX Security* '00, 2000.
- [35] L. von Ahn, M. Blum, N.J. Hopper, and J. Langford. CAPTCHA: Using hard AI problems for security. In E. Biham, editor, Eurocrypt '03, pages 294–311. Springer-Verlag, 2003.
- [36] X. Wang and M. K. Reiter. Defending against denial-of-service attacks with puzzle auctions. In *IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy*, pages 78–92, 2003.
- [37] A. Yaar, A. Perrig, and D. Song. Pi: A path identification mechanism to defend against DDoS attacks. In *IEEE Symposium on Security* and Privacy, pages 93–109, 2003.