CTF: State-of-the-Art and Building the Next Generation

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Abstract

Capture the flag (CTF) style events have become increasingly popular events for recruitment, training, evaluation, and recreation in the field of computer security. Today, there exists a vast array of CTF software; this software may be divided generally into game engines and challenge components. Game engines, which determine the overall style of the competition, can be categorized into those which support dynamic challenges and those which support static challenges. A small number of game engines are open and available for any party to develop their own challenges on, though most are proprietary solutions.

Over the course of the last 8 years, the Cyber Defenders group at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory hosted an annual CTF event for its interns, in the process evaluating different CTF types and engines and ultimately developing data on the state-of-the-art in this field. While these events resulted in a large degree of success with regard to the goals mentioned above, a critical evaluation of the software both used by the Cyber Defenders and generally across the entire field revealed several shortcomings of current CTF practices. In particular, current software may be improved with regard to challenge realism, costs and accessibility, educational applications, and research potential. Proposed herein is a new game engine which addresses these shortcomings. This paper details the architectures for and current progress towards implementing this game engine.

1 Introduction

Modern research in computer science education emphasizes the need for collaborative and engaging modes of instruction providing hands-on experiences to students and trainees [58]. One way to do this effectively is through gamification, wherein implementing aspects of education using methods common to games has been shown to generally result in desirable outcomes [26]. In computer science, gamification is often implemented in the form of competitions; typically, such competitions are dedicated to a sub-discipline such as algorithms, robotics, or, as discussed herein, computer security [51].

Cybersecurity competitions—often labeled, sometimes erroneously, \textsuperscript{1} capture-the-flag competitions—provide much needed education and training in a field dominated by a general lack of human resources and, therefore, available expertise [53]. These competitions create a more competent, sizable, and diverse cybersecurity workforce by providing valuable training, experience, education, and recruitment for current and future security experts [40]. Specifically, the competitions place those current and future cybersecurity professionals into a adversarial, competitive, and ideally realistic environment wherein they use the tools and methodologies generally encountered in the field to deal with artificial situations. This, in turn, (1) attempts to hone skills which often prove useful in mitigating and responding to real threats and (2) has the potential to encourage students/trainees to pursue the subject matter academically and professionally by simply being fun, exciting, and concretely do-able.

1.1 Background and Motivation

Over the course of the last 8 years, the Cyber Defenders program\textsuperscript{2} at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory conducted a 3-day computer security competition annually in order to train and expose stu-
dent interns to the field. Almost all of the content and all of the game engines for these competitions were generated by third parties, including the TracerFire CTF by Sandia National Laboratories and the Dirtbags Competition by Los Alamos National Laboratory, with supplemental challenges prepared in-house [32, 34]. For the last 3 years, this same group also participated in a summer-long security competition, with challenges developed completely in-house and game infrastructure initially developed in-house before migrating to the PicoCTF game engine [16]. Most recently, the group administered similar challenges at the Bay Area Maker Faire [36] and at the Department of Energy National Science Bowl [50], with competitors from younger audiences. While we consider all of these competitions successful as much as they accomplished the stated goals, they also revealed several shortcomings in security competition game engines.

1.2 Overview

In this paper, we contribute a current survey and evaluation of the state-of-the-art for computer security competition game infrastructure software given the experiences of the Cyber Defenders group. Ultimately, we conclude that the CTF frameworks may have been vastly improved over the current state-of-the-art to meet educational and research goals and we propose a new CTF framework—emphasizing framework and content availability and extensibility as well as data collection for research purposes—to make these goals a reality. Our implementation approach to these implements is occurring in phases; the current status of our implementation is detailed as well.

2 Current State of the Art

In examining the current state-of-the-art, we combined our experiences derived from years of conducting CTF events and developing CTF software with a survey of 36 contemporary CTF competitions. These competitions were selected through informal surveying of LLNL employees and students at the University of Arizona who compete (or have competed) in external CTF competitions as well as through academic literature review; all CTFs mentioned were evaluated by the authors of this paper (who viewed competitions’ websites, related academic literature, discussed competitions with employees/students who had participated in them, and attempted to run and build challenges for competitions with open source frameworks) in order to determine competition type and format as well as whether the competition featured policy-based content and was open source. For competitions with open-source software, the authors also evaluated the requirements for using the software. The results of our analysis are summarized in Table 2. These results first and foremost demonstrate the pervasiveness of CTF competitions through their sheer number—and, though we examined numerous CTF events, countless more exist as well. Secondly, these results reinforce the ideas presented in Section 1—namely, that the goals of these competitions vary but tend to focus on educational experience. Similarly, the format of the competitions vary from in-person team competition to remote (via the Internet) competitions with individual participants. Beyond this, our study of the current state-of-the-art focused on aspects of competition that, over the years, the Cyber Defenders group found limiting or otherwise problematic. To this end, the research revealed several trends in computer security competitions: (1) CTF software implementations are designed to support either static or dynamic challenge modes; (2) CTF competitions require a lot of expertise and resources to administer, and CTF content generation tends to be limited by framework extensibility; (3) despite a focus on education and training, current CTFs are highly focused on competition; and (4) researchers are attempting to leverage CTF events to study computer security, both in education/training efficacy and beyond.

2.1 Challenge Mode

Generally, competition infrastructure supports either static or dynamic challenge types. The former modality is defined by teams solving challenges in isolation with files or systems that are "offline" in the sense that there exists no real-time changes to them. Points are gained by completing particular tasks with these files and systems. The latter, by contrast, involves active systems which competitors attack and defend in real-time in order to gain points; these points are awarded for successfully carrying out these attacks and defenses. No competition studied offered both

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3This list, though sizable, is not exhaustive and the authors plan to maintain a similar list on the Catalyst website, revised to include other competitions as they become aware thereof. In particular, thus far the examined CTFs tend to be English language; the authors were unable, using their methodology, to examine CTFs which did not have English-language documentation.

4An illustrative example consists of finding an encrypted flag in a network traffic dump.

5For instance, a team may be awarded points for gaining access to a SSH service on a vulnerable machine owned by a
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competition Name</th>
<th>Static</th>
<th>Dynamic</th>
<th>Policy</th>
<th>Open Source</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
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Table 1: Listed are 36 CTF implementations with information regarding whether the given engine supports static or dynamic content, whether the content supported contains policy-based problems, and whether the challenge engine and content is open-source. The requirements column contains (for available open-source entries) several alphabetical characters which indicate requirements; these include: F—filesystem configuration, including knowledge of framework file structures and formats; V—virtual machine or docker use; N—networking, such as DHCP configuration; C—command line execution without GUI support; D—native database access; P—high performance or additional hardware for scalability; W—webapp knowledge, such as installing and managing a web server; I—instructions/documentation lacking in clarity; S—single script setup available; and E#—extensible framework which allows new challenge creation and requires some work to place content into the framework software, where the digit indicates difficulty of new challenge creation on a scale of 1-5. Collectively, the Requirements column details who might be able to host the given CTF framework, whether it is possible to and the difficulty of integrating new challenges, and at what cost for both.
2.1.1 Shortcomings

While there exist examples of highly successful CTF events which use both of these challenge types, neither completely aligns with realistic computer security scenarios. Outside of competition, computer security professionals can expect to encounter a huge variety of real-world challenges, which encompass both the static and dynamic challenges presented here. For instance, a system manager would likely have to know how to look through network and extract some semantic meaning (such as attribution or compromised component identification) for reports, aligning with the experiences provided by static challenges, but that individual would likely also have to know how to fix security vulnerabilities in the system, aligning with the dynamic challenge experiences. Simply offering only one mode limits the applicability of the competition experience to the real world.

2.1.2 Policy

The detrimental effect the static-dynamic limit has another side effect, compounding the negative effect on realism in the competition experience. Policy challenges involve questions of legal permissiveness and policy efficacy from a variety of viewpoints; security professionals often come into contact with difficult policy questions—such as the legal ramifications of various "hackback" methods [33]—and are called upon to deal with these types of problems in reality. However, policy challenges by definition require a fairly substantial scope in order to consider the realistic effects of those challenges. Because allowing only static or dynamic challenges limits the scope of the competition by omitting particular aspects of real-world problems, policy questions can only exist in much more limited forms in current competition formats.

2.2 CTF Costs and Extensibility

One significant barrier to leveraging CTF competitions in education, training, and other financial or expertise-constrained applications is the cost associated with hosting CTF competitions. These costs generally involve (1) hardware costs for hosting the competition, (2) the human resource expense required to administer the competition, and (3) the availability of and/or investment associated with competition material for the particular event. Among each of these categories, there exist both recurring and nonrecurring (stagnant) costs. How the costs are structured depends on the goals and desires of the CTF hosts, as well as strategies in dealing with these categories. Hardware costs may be viewed as recurring or stagnant, depending on hardware upgrade cycles and the use of rental or cloud infrastructure; administrative costs tend to be recurring for each CTF event; content development may be a recurring cost if the host desires new content on a regular basis. In creating a CTF framework, keeping cost requirements low allows the framework to be employed in circumstances where it would otherwise not be possible to administer a CTF. Herein, the cost aspects of CTFs are discussed categorically, in order to identify ways to minimize costs. Further empirical research into specific costs of hosting various CTFs presents future work.

2.2.1 Hardware Costs

Generally, potential CTF competitions must consider two main hardware costs: (1) the hardware required to host the CTF, and (2) the client terminals that competitors will use to compete. With regard to the latter, strategies such as using low-cost Raspberry Pis [37] with freeware Kali Linux operating systems [39] as terminals has allowed the Cyber Defenders group to administer CTFs with low terminal hardware costs. Having competitors bring their own terminals (which is feasible but less desirable in educational settings due to environment setup and uniformity problems) effectively eliminates this cost in some settings. In short, these costs are highly influenced by the CTF format; the game software does little to influence terminal costs except inasmuch as certain challenges may require specialized hardware to solve.

The former cost involving CTF hosting hardware, by contrast, is highly influenced by the CTF software. As suggested by related work, dynamic challenges often require significant hardware resources, while static challenges do not [42]. Our findings with regard to static challenges agree: The Cyber...
Docker containers or, as suggested in related work, more efficient forms such as new server hardware—even if that server hardware ing to a network tends to be much lower than the cost a significant margin, as the marginal cost of connect-ware costs will outweigh network hardware costs by though it is likely that the additional server hard-
tional costs unless it is possible to virtualize them the particular challenge) will generally incur addi-
work backbone required to connect the server to the
framework's main competition server lightweight will allow it to be flexible; resource intensive chal-
challenges may be deployed in events with greater hard-
resources, while more constrained events may employ less resource-heavy challenges.

Another factor in CTF hosting hardware is the net-
work backbone required to connect the server to the competition terminals. The particular requirements for this will vary from CTF to CTF, according to the format of the event. Some competitions, for instance, connect to competitors in various geographic locations over the Internet. The Cyber Defender CTF events have, by contrast, been hosted in closed, controlled local area networks over hardware ethernet connections. This cost can grow dramatically with competition size, with additional competitors requiring additional network switches and cabling. Some of this cost, however, may be mitigated by employing wireless networking, which is not limited by network cables or the number of ports on network switches. Generally, the network hardware cost is not dras-
tically affected by CTF software; in dynamic chal-
challenges, some consideration must be given to placing resources on the network, as more servers and net-
work segmentation (the amount of which depends on the particular challenge) will generally incur addi-
tional costs unless it is possible to virtualize them though it is likely that the additional server hard-
ware costs will outweigh network hardware costs by a significant margin, as the marginal cost of connect-
ing to a network tends to be much lower than the cost of new server hardware—even if that server hardware

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8 Virtualized here refers to either traditional virtualization or, as suggested in related work, more efficient forms such as Docker containers [42].

9 Additional detail regarding specific knowledge-based setup requirements is located in Table 2’s “Requirements” column.
content available for an event. Creating content requires huge investment; the PicoCTF development team, for their flagship event, consists of 21 individuals [14]. While this level of investment is permissible for large events, more informal and smaller events as may be found in educational or training settings often cannot afford such investment. Challenge content sharing and reuse can, potentially, fill this gap. Currently, however, this is only done in limited form, with CTF framework developers offering example challenges to build from. Moreover, challenge sharing introduces other unresolved problems—how does one deal with previously published solutions; how does one alter the content to fit new narratives or audiences; how easy is it to import and setup challenges; how can challenge creators most efficiently share their content? Current content sharing paradigms only offer static code for reuse, which requires significant time and effort (and expertise) for modification and integration into a CTF event.

In addition to general content-creation costs, CTF organizers may incur additional costs if they wish to provide content which does not fit into current frameworks. In addition to limited support for pre-build content, current framework design tends to highly enforce particular software design formats, to the detriment of extensibility. ICTF, for example, requires challenges to plug into its Debian makefile combined with Python configuration and scoring format [49]. While some extensibility exists for ICTF in that the services can be in any desired format, the framework itself requires the challenge content service to run on the main CTF server and be scored in a single, standard way. Moreover, the service is limited to a single instance, in what might be described as a "king-of-the-hill" instance. Attempting to build challenges outside of this format—such as hosting individual services for each team, or connecting physical services to the network for scoring—requires significant integration coding.

In addition to all of this, current documentation of CTF frameworks for content creation varies greatly. Combined with the constrained and proprietary formats for CTF framework integration, a CTF organizer may face significant costs in developing content for an event.

2.3 Modes of Gameplay

Part of what makes CTF events effective in pedagogical settings derives from the competitive nature introduced by gamification. However, the Cyber Defender program’s experience reflects that there exists a limit to the efficacy of competition. When competitors do not have sufficient background to compete, as is the case when introducing individuals to completely new concepts and topics, competition can have a negative effect on educational outcomes [47]. This concept became apparent in several of the 3-day intensive CTFs administered by the Cyber Defenders group, wherein the organizers observed teams and individuals withdrawing from the competition due to poor performance relative to others, in the process halting the educational elements provided by the event for those individuals. While prior work enumerates factors which lead to this type of educational stalling, it is not always possible to ensure these ideal conditions when hosting a CTF with the goal of teaching unfamiliar concepts to competitors. It may, however, be possible to remove some gamification from the CTF environment when teaching difficult concepts, and thus leverage the CTF environment for education without alienating poor performers. None of the current competitions examined offer any such mode.

2.4 CTF Based Research

Currently, it is common practice to collect some data from CTF events for research purposes. Illustrative examples of this include extensive surveys with sophisticated psychological metrics analyzing whether CTF events are effective recruitment tools [9]; self-reported assessments in The MIT Lincoln Laboratory Capture-the-Flag Exercise [54]; focus-group interviews on teamwork in the ICTF event [30]; and situational awareness measurements in the CCDC competition generated using team scores, questioning of team members, examining network and individual device logs, and audiovisual data collected at the event [25]. Despite the apparent desire to leverage CTF events for research, very little work has been done beyond collecting informal (and often self-reported) data from the events. In previous years, the Cyber Defenders group has also collected such data, but desired to collect additional data in order to expand research potential. In particular, the group believes CTF events provide a potential test-bed for computer security research generally, with significant implications, in particular, to experiment repeatability and vulnerability detection as competitors utilize both known and unknown security vulnerabilities to solve problems in a realistic but sandboxed environment [10]. However, the state-of-the-art provides no methods for collecting data useful for this purpose.

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10PicoCTF’s 2013 event involved more than 10,000 competitors [15].
3 The Catalyst Framework

Given the current state-of-the-art presented here, the Cyber Defenders group began designing and implementing a new, highly extensible CTF framework in the summer of 2016, naming the project the Catalyst Security Challenge Framework. Addressing these problems, we focused on challenge extensibility to support any feasible challenge type, keeping costs low through architectural efficiency and framework ease of use, offering different modes of gameplay for educational use, and data collection methods for research. Despite significant amounts of progress implementing several of the proposed framework’s components—currently, only the data collection component is mature—the architectural design is still in draft-form and will likely change before being finalized.

3.1 Framework Components

The proposed Catalyst framework contains several components, as shown in Figure 1: (1) the main competition server and database; (2) service hosts, which may be either physical or virtualized; (3) competitor terminals; (4) administrator terminals; and (5) network infrastructure.

All interaction between organizers and the framework may be done via a web-based UI, making the system easy to use for almost any level of user. Also included in the main server are typical network management components such as DHCP and DNS, which are configurable via the UI. Competition organizers use the web interface on the main competition server to select challenges from local files or remote code repositories. Before the competition begins, administrators register service hosts with the main server through either a command-line or web interface; the main server may be instructed to generate and register virtual machine hosts automatically. The administrators then assign challenges to registered hosts. After this configuration phase completes, the competition server connects to and runs the challenge configuration script on the assigned hosts in a provisioning stage. Depending on game configuration, competitors may also be required to register terminals, which would be provisioned with components such as data collection software and helpful tools.

3.2 Challenge Types and Extensibility

Our approach to challenge type involves offering an extensive and scoring API in order to support any type of challenge and supplementing that API with built-in support for several particular problem types that generally occur in static competition. Challenges are all presented on the game server’s web page during competition for competitors to view; static challenge components are also shown on the main server web page.

3.2.1 Challenge Customization

In order to allow custom challenge configuration, each challenge component is also configured with variables supplied by the CTF organizer. In practice, this is done by having the organizer override default values supplied with a given challenge; these are passed to the challenge as a configuration file collocated with a given challenges’ configuration script. The script can pass the configuration to other components as necessary; the end result is that content developers may add dynamic content which organizers can change to fit different competitions.\(^{11}\)

3.2.2 Scoring API

In order to provide the maximum amount of extensibility, the proposed framework includes a web-based scoring API. In the provisioning phase, the main server executes challenge-specified commands to launch a scoring program. This scoring program connects to the scoring API on the localhost, where it can instruct the system to add points. The scoring program should probe competition services or be connected to by those services in order to grade them and issue appropriate scores.\(^{12}\) Then, the scoring program connects to the Catalyst Scoring API via a JSON-formatted HTTP request on the localhost, instructing that API to award points [24, 20]. Because JSON and HTTP (and TCP) are well standardized and supported in almost every programming language, challenge developers are free to develop as they please, having only to conform to an incredibly simple web API.

3.2.3 Static Challenges

In addition to the scoring API, challenges may also utilize static components on the main competition web server. These components include the challenge description, specific questions with an answer form,\(^ {13}\) as an illustrative example, a vulnerable webapp may be configured with particular text components with fit a CTF storyline. As an example, a scoring program may probe a web service on a team’s host determine it is functioning fine, and add points for that grade. The answer form may be configured to accept text, files, and other types of questions such as multiple-choice.

\(^{11}\)As an illustrative example, a vulnerable webapp may be configured with particular text components with fit a CTF storyline.

\(^{12}\)As an example, a scoring program may probe a web service on a team’s host determine it is functioning fine, and add points for that grade.

\(^{13}\)The answer form may be configured to accept text, files, and other types of questions such as multiple-choice.
Figure 1: Catalyst primarily consists of a main server, various service servers, and terminals. The exact form of these pieces in actual hardware is not specified, as the software may be deployed in any number of different physical and virtual environments. Colors here indicate team affiliation for particular components.

Figure 2: This figure depicts the current progress on data collection visualization. The Gantt Chart features a timeline of in-focus programs for given users, along with event (challenge) start/completion indicators, a user input bar chart, a screenshot for the selected point on the timeline, and running process information.

A flag portal to submit flags that might be hidden elsewhere in the challenge, and hints which may apply to any of these or the service components. The specific question and answer questions can be graded via simple matching or via manual grading.\textsuperscript{14} Natural language processing methods may eventually be added for automated grading of long answers.

\textsuperscript{14}Manual grading may also take into consideration external activity such as presentations.
3.2.4 Competition Mode

When configuring a CTF, organizers configure the main Catalyst server with the desired difficulty level, according to educational need. This variable controls the verbosity of challenge components, showing additional hints for easier difficulties and removing all hints for more experienced—and competitive—levels. Additionally, the difficulty level will determine whether and how to present team and/or individual scores. A low difficulty level will disable the scoreboard altogether, mitigating problems associated with overly competitive environments.

3.3 Data Collection and Evaluation

In order to provide greater research potential and performance assessments, data collection components are also included in the Catalyst Framework. This component, which has already been implemented and is currently in testing, collects several pieces of data from each competitor terminal, including: (1) the current in-focus program; (2) associated process information, including file access; (3) background process information; (4) user input (keyboard and mouse); (5) periodic screenshots; and (6) challenge completion information. This data, curated on the game server, may be mined or visualized. Figure 2 shows the data visualized in a task-completion context with each user on a timeline showing activity from challenge beginning to challenge completion.

In all, these pieces of data capture summarizes what a given competitor does on their terminal device. Mining this could, for instance, demonstrate what tools or methods the competitor used to solve a given problem. If the given problem is regarded as a hard, research worthy problem, then the data could be used for that research. Ultimately, these competitions could be used as a form of crowdsourcing research on how to solve difficult problems. Other research, such as into teamwork factors, may benefit from more data inputs such as audio or video capture; integrating sources for this data is not yet supported but will be added in the future.

3.4 Policy Based Challenges

As mentioned in Section 2.1.2, however, policy content may be valuable in many circumstances in order to more accurately reflect computer security as a profession. Policy challenges are difficult to implement without a realistic scenario, as they become disjointed and unintelligible without strong concepts of what competition entities (participants, teams, administrators, software and hardware components, for example) represent with regard to the policies in play. The Catalyst framework is designed with policy challenges in mind: Catalyst includes challenge configurability (discussed in Section 3.2.1) which allows CTF content creators to readily adapt scenarios to better fit policy challenges. Catalyst’s combined-mode competition also fuels policy by allowing more realistic scenarios which parallel the situations for which policies were designed. Finally, the native support Catalyst contains for written answers and manual grading allows the proper forms to easily support policy challenges.

4 Conclusion

Gamification in computer security education generally leads to positive learning outcomes; the experiences of the Cyber Defender group over 8 years of CTF competition supports this notion. However, current CTF software frameworks can be improved in several ways in order to make CTFs more extensible to support novel challenges, easier and cost effective to implement and thus available to more groups, more flexible to be a valuable teaching tool in more contexts, and more valuable as a research tool through better data collection. The Catalyst Framework attempts to meet these ambitious goals, and several components are actively being tested at this time.

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15To illustrate, one of the Cyber Defenders CTF events included a challenge wherein teams were to act as a law enforcement agency in order to provide training regarding chain-of-custody, attribution, and the Computer Fraud and Abuse Act. This challenge was difficult for students because the other challenges at best provided a subset of what such an agency would be doing, and participants became confused when that material did not align with the policy challenges.
References


