

A Public Key Infrastructure based on the Secure DNS

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, asymmetric key cryptographic systems are widely used for the security of e-mail, WWW, and electronic commerce applications. For the proper use of asymmetric key cryptographic systems in these applications, one needs a system called a public key infrastructure. The public key infrastructure is a system in which a user can register his public key and obtain other user's public key. In the public key infrastructure, a user's public key certificate is generated by a certification authority and stored in a directory system. In this paper we propose to use the DNS, which is already providing naming services world-wide, as the directory system of a public key infrastructure covering users all over the world. The extensions required to the DNS to store certificates and certification revocation lists are explained and interfaces with which certification authorities can store new certificates and certification revocation lists are described. And the procedures with which a user can retrieve a certificate from the DNS are presented.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years as more people are connected to and use the Internet, the issue of the security in the Internet is becoming more important. Many mechanisms and tools are used to provide required security services in the applications of the Internet. They include firewalls, authentication mechanisms, cryptographic systems, security vulnerability checking systems, security audit systems, and intrusion detection systems. Among these mechanisms, to protect messages from eavesdropping and unauthorized modification of their contents, cryptographic systems are most widely used. Using cryptographic systems, it is possible to verify the identity of the remote party participating in a communication connection, verify the identity claiming to be that of the originator of a message, and protect messages from being disclosed or illegally modified/deleted. There are two types of cryptographic systems: symmetric key cryptographic systems and

asymmetric key cryptographic systems. In symmetric key cryptographic systems, the same key is used in the encryption and decryption of messages and its examples include DES and IDEA. This key should be kept secret by both parties participating in a communication connection. In contrast, asymmetric key cryptographic systems use complementary pairs of keys to separate the functions of encryption and decryption. One key, the private key, is kept secret like a key in symmetric key cryptographic systems. The other key, the public key, does not need to be kept secret. This two-key approach can simplify key management, by minimizing the number of keys that need to be managed and stored in a network, and can enable keys to be distributed via unprotected systems such as public directory services. Examples of asymmetric key cryptographic systems include RSA [1].

Asymmetric key cryptographic systems are widely used for the protection of many Internet applications such as electronic mail systems, WWW systems, and electronic commerce systems[2]. In systems using asymmetric key cryptographic systems, if a user A wants to communicate with a user B, A needs to know B's public key.

A can get B's public key from B directly or some trusted third party. Whatever the case may be, it is important to assure that B's public key does not come from an attacker who pretends to be the user B. This leads to public keys being distributed in the form of certificates. A certificate, generally speaking, is a data structure which is digitally signed by some party which users of the certificate will trust. A public key certificate, or just a certificate in our paper, is a data structure which binds the identifier of some party with a public key value. The certificate data structure is digitally signed by some other party known as a certification authority. Public key certificates can be stored and distributed in an unprotected way, including publication in a directory whose services are not necessarily trusted. Provided that a user knows in advance the authentic public key of the certification authority, that user can check the validity

of the signature on the certificate. If this checks correctly, the user can be confident that the certificate carries a valid public key for the identified party[1].

The system in which a user can register his public key and obtain other user's public key is a public key infrastructure. In the public key infrastructure, a user registers his public key to a certification authority, and the certification authority signs the user's public key with his private key and publishes it as the certificate of the user. The certificate is stored in a directory system, and other users can retrieve the certificate from this directory system. Although some proposals, e.g., an Internet PEM (Privacy Enhanced Mail) public key infrastructure, have been made to build a public key infrastructure covering users world-wide[3,4], only a small scale infrastructures have actually been built and used covering a small group of users belonging to an organization or using a certain Internet application. To be able to build a world-wide public key infrastructure, we need both a world-wide standard naming scheme for users and machines and a world-wide directory systems.

The Internet Domain Name System (DNS) provides a standard method for naming machines and has a world-wide directory system from which users can get the IP address of a machine using its domain name or vice versa. Recently a proposal has been made to extend the DNS so that users can retrieve public keys and/or certificates from the DNS securely[5,6]. So this DNS with security extensions, which will be called the 'secure DNS' in our paper, will be an excellent candidate for building a world-wide public key infrastructure. But the current proposal of the secure DNS (1) does not include user certificates, (2) does not provide a certification authority interface with which certification authority can publish certificates and certificate revocation lists(CRLs), and (3) does not provide guidelines how users can obtain user certificates from the secure DNS. In this paper we will further extend the secure DNS so that these three deficiencies can be made up for and, therefore, the secure DNS can be used as a building block in the world-wide public key infrastructure.

The organization of the paper is as follows. Section 2 and Section 3 briefly introduce the public key infrastructure and the secure DNS, respectively. Section 4 explains our approach for extending the secure DNS so that it can be used as a directory system in the public key infrastructure and followed by the conclusion in Section 5.

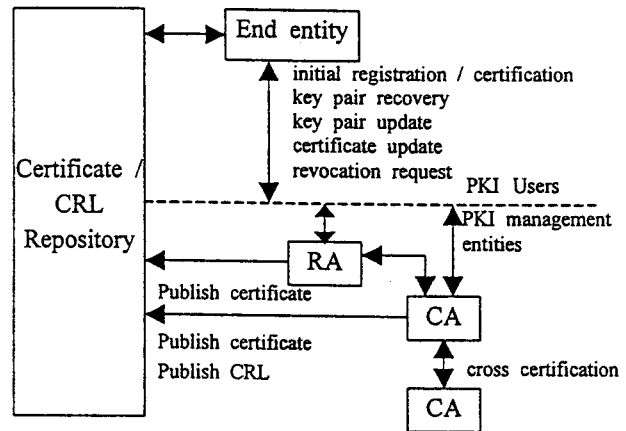


Figure 1. Components of a public key infrastructure

2. The Public Key Infrastructure(PKI)

Figure 1 shows the components of a PKI and relationships among them in X.509 standards[7,8]. Each component is defined as follows.

- End entity : User of PKI certificates and/or end user system that is the subject of a certificate
- CA : Certification authority
- RA : Registration authority, i.e., an optional system to which a CA delegates certain management functions
- Repository : A system or collection of distributed systems that store certificates and CRLs and serves as a means of distributing these certificates and CRLs to end entities

An end entity performs the following management operations with either CA or RA.

- Initial registration/certification : This is the process whereby an end entity first makes itself known to a CA or RA. The end result of this process is that a CA issues a certificate for an end entity's public key, and returns that certificate to the end entity and/or posts that certificate in a public repository.
- Key pair recovery : As an option, a user's private key may be backed up by a CA and the user can recover his private key in case that he loses it.
- Key pair update : Every key pair needs to be replaced with a new key pair, and a new certificate needs to be issued.
- Certificate update : As certificates expire they may be refreshed if nothing relevant in the environment has changed.
- Revocation request : An authorized person can advise a CA of an abnormal situation requiring certificate revocation.

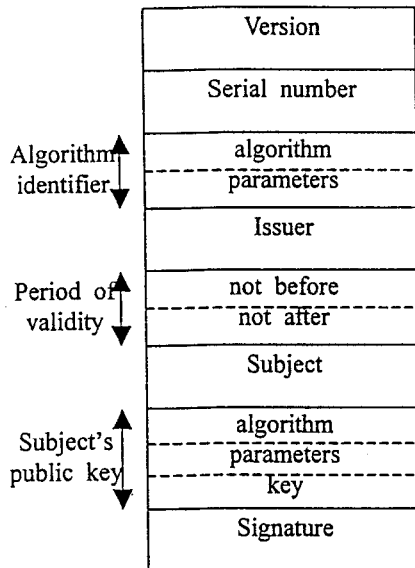


Figure 2. X.509 Certificate

The X.509 certificate format is as in Figure 2

- Version : Differentiates among successive versions of the certificate format: the default is 1988.
- Serial number : An integer value, unique within the issuing CA, which is unambiguously associated with this certificate.
- Algorithm identifier : The algorithm used to sign the certificate, together with any associated parameters.
- Issuer : The CA that created and signed this certificate.
- Period of validity : Consists of two dates: the first and last on which the certificate is valid.
- Subject : The user to whom this certificate refers
- Public-key information : The public key of the subject, plus an identifier of the algorithm for which this key is to be used.
- Signature : Covers all of the other fields of the certificate, and consists of a hash code of the other fields, encrypted with the CA's private key.

The standard uses the following notation to define a certificate:

$$CA \langle\langle A \rangle\rangle = CA \{V, SN, AI, CA, T_A, A, A_p\}$$

where

$Y \langle\langle X \rangle\rangle$ = the certificate of the user X issued by certification authority Y

$Y\{I\}$ = the signing of I by Y. It consists of I with an encrypted hash code appended

Each certificate includes a period of validity. Typica

lly, a new certificate is issued just before the expiration of the old one. In addition, it may be desirable on occasion to revoke a certificate before it expires for one of the following reasons:

- The user's private key is assumed to be compromised.
- The user is no longer certified by this CA.
- The CA's private key is assumed to be compromised.

Each CA must maintain a list consisting of all revoked but not expired certificates issued by that CA. These lists are called CRLs and should be posted on the directory. A CRL contains the following information.

- Signature : Identical to the Signature field in certificates. This specifies the algorithm used to compute the signature on this CRL.
- Issuer : Identical to the Issuer field in certificates.
- This update : Contains the time the CRL was issued, specified as UTC.
- Next update : Contains the time the next CRL is expected to be issued, specified as UTC.

The following two fields repeat as a pair once for each revoked certificate:

- User certificate : Contains the serial number of the revoked certificates.
- Revocation date : Contains the UTC time the certificate was revoked.

One disadvantage of the X.509 system is that a large and complex PKI should be available before users can register and retrieve public key certificates. PGP proposes and uses a clever and simple method for managing public keys[9, 10]. In PGP, users can obtain other user's public key certificate from that user, other users, or key servers using e-mail, FTP, etc. But a PGP certificate does not include neither user names nor signatures. A PGP certificate just includes a public key, its algorithm, and its validity period. So a PGP certificate should be accompanied by one or more user ID packets and zero or more signature packets. A user ID packet has a user ID string which is normally an e-mail address. A user can have many e-mail addresses but only one public key. In this case all these e-mail addresses will be associated with this public key. A public key along with its user ID can be optionally signed and this signature can be stored in a signature packet. One reliable method for distributing public keys in PGP environments is using trusted key servers. Users register their public keys to the key servers and obtain other users' public keys from the key servers. When a user registers a publi

c key to a key server, he sends the public key and a user ID packet securely to a key server. Then the key server signs the certificate and the user ID packet and distributes them on other users' demand. One big difference between X.509 and PGP is that X.509 requires a large hierarchy of certification authorities but PGP key servers need not form a hierarchy and build trust relationships among them. Therefore PGP users can start with only one key server.

In PGP the convention for revoking a public key is for a user to issue a key revocation certificate, signed by the user. This certificate has the same form as a normal signature certificate but includes an indicator that the purpose of this certificate is to revoke the use of this public key.

3. The Secure DNS

The secure DNS provides the following three security services.

- Key distribution : Entities such as zones, hosts, and users have a pair of a private key and a public key. The public keys are stored in the DNS server and distributed on demand.
- Integrity and data authentication of the information stored in the DNS server : All the resource records that are the information stored in the DNS server are signed by the DNS server and this signature is stored as a separate resource record.
- Integrity and data authentication of DNS queries and responses : The DNS header and content of a DNS query or response is signed by the private key of the DNS client or DNS server, respectively.

More detailed explanation of these security extensions follow.

3.1. Key distribution

All the entities such as zones, hosts, and users have a pair of private key and a public key and the public key is stored as a KEY resource record in the DNS server.

foo.host.example. IN KEY RDATA

RDATA contains the public key of foo.host.example with the format in Figure 3.

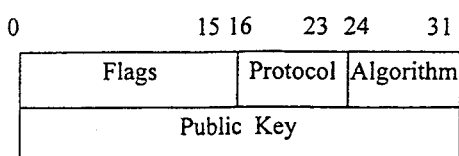


Figure 3 KEY RDATA format

The flag indicates whether the key belongs to a user, a host, or a zone and specifies for what purposes this key can be used. The protocol indicates what protocol including DNS can use this key. The algorithm specifies the asymmetric key algorithm of the public key.

The DNS server also stores certificates for entities and CRLs. They are stored as resource records of a CERT type as follow

foo.host.example. CERT RDATA

and RDATA contains following information.

- Type : Specifies whether the certificate is a X.509, SPKI, or PGP type.
- Key tag : Specifies which public key in the KEY resource records the public key in this certificate corresponds to.
- Certificate or CRL.

3.2. Integrity and data authentication of resource records

The integrity and data authentication of resource records in a DNS server is basically provided by SIG resource records. A SIG resource record contains a signature for some other resource record. The signature is made with the private key of the zone which the signed resource record belongs to. A SIG resource record is stored with the following format

foo.host.example. IN SIG RDATA

and the RDATA contains the following information.

- Type : Specifies whether the type of the signed resource record is an NS, A, MX, or CNAME type.
- Algorithm : Indicates what hash algorithm and asymmetric key algorithm are used for the signature.
- Signature expiration : Tells when the signature expires.
- Time signed : Specifies when the signature was made.
- Signer's name
- Signature

When a name server returns KEY, A, CNAME resource records as an answer, it also sends the corresponding SIG resource records and the resolver receiving the answer checks the integrity of the answer by verifying the signatures in the SIG resource records.

3.3. Integrity and data authentication of a query/responses

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The content of a DNS query/response and the DNS header are signed by the private key of the DNS client or server so that the integrity and data authenticity of the query/response can be guaranteed.

4. Building a PKI using secure DNS servers as a Repository

In this Section we explain how we can build a PKI using DNS servers as a public key repository.

4.1. Storing certificates and CRLs in a DNS server

We assume that certification authorities in an X.509 PKI form a hierarchical structure like the servers in the DNS. We also assume that PGP users registers and stores in the repository their public keys through PGP certification authorities. One certification authority is associated with only one DNS server and, therefore, stores the certificates and CRLs that it publishes through this DNS server. But there can be DNS servers which do not have any associated certification authority. For example, in a university having many departments, there can be one DNS server for the university and many child DNS servers for the departments. If there is one certification authority for the whole university, this certification authority is associated with the university DNS server while the department DNS servers do not have any certification authorities associated. If a DNS server and a certification authority are associated with each other, the DNS server registers its public key to that certification authority and has the public key certificate of that certification authority while the certification authority's name is registered in that DNS server.

A user or service is identified with its e-mail address which is unique in its zone. And this unique e-mail address is used as the subject name in the certificate. In the case of PGP, this does not cause any problem, because PGP already uses e-mail address as the subject name of certificates. But this can be a problem with X.509 certificates, because the distinguished name, which is an ordered list of {attribute, value} pair, is used in the subject field and it is quite different from the e-mail address in the Internet. But this problem can be solved using the optional Subject Alternative Name field which allows additional identities to be bound to the subject of the certificate. We store the unique e-mail address in the Subject Alternative Name field and leave the Subject field empty in an X.509 certificate.

Differently from the IETF draft, we use two resource record types, CERT and CRL, for certificate and CRL resource records, respectively. In the following X.509 example, if a university with a domain name hongik.ac.kr has a user with an e-mail address `shim@hongik.ac.kr` and a certification authority with a service name `ca@hongik.ac.kr`, then the university DNS server will have the following entries in its database.

```
shim.hongik.ac.kr. CERT RDATA-1
                    ; certificate for the user shim
ca.hongik.ac.kr. CERT RDATA-2
                    ; certificate for the certification
                    ; authority
ca.hongik.ac.kr. CRL RDATA-3
                    ; CRL published by
                    ; ca.hongik.ac.kr
```

We use different resource record type names for certificates and CRLs because we want to easily tell apart whether the RDATA associated with a certification authority is a certificate or a CRL. The RDATA for the CERT and CRL type resource records have two fields: type and data. The type field specifies whether the certificate or CRL is X.509, PGP, SPKI, or other type and the data field has the actual certificate or CRL. We did not include the key tag field as in the IETF draft because we believe that it is not necessary to store the same public key of a certificate in a separate KEY resource record again.

A DNS server regularly examines all the certificates in its database to check if the validity time of certificates has expired. If it finds such a certificate, it deletes that certificate from its database.

4.2. Publishing certificates and CRLs

In X.509 a certification authority stores certificates and CRLs in the associated DNS server. A user registers his public key by sending it to an X.509 certification authority. The certification authority generates a certificate by signing the public key and sends the certificate to the associated DNS server. When the DNS server receives the certificate from the certification authority, it verifies the validity of the certificate by checking the signature in the certificate with the certification authority's public key. If the verification is successful, it retrieves the owner name of the certificate from the Alternative Subject Name field in the certificate and stores the certificate in its database as the resource record of a CERT type. When a DNS server receives a CRL from the certification authority, it verifies the validity of this CR

L in the same way and stores in its database as the resource record of a CRL type. The certification authority's name is used as the name for this CRL resource record. The DNS server also deletes from its database any public key certificates which were revoked in the received CRL.

A PGP user registers his public key by sending the public key and one more user IDs associated with this public key to the PGP certification authority. The certification authority generates one certificate for each user ID in the user ID packet. For example if a public key is registered with two user IDs, shim@hongik.ac.kr and shim@cs.berkeley.edu, two CERT type resource records will be prepared as follows:

```
shim.hongik.ac.kr.      CERT  RDATA
shim.cs.berkeley.edu.  CERT  RDATA
```

The type field of RDATA has the value PGP and the data field has the public key, the user ID packet containing both shim@hongik.ac.kr and shim@cs.berkeley.edu, and the signature packet generated by the certification authority. The certification authority sends these two CERT type resource records to the associated DNS server.

This DNS server first checks the signature of two certificates and stores them in the appropriate DNS servers.

So the first certificate will be stored in the DNS server in charge of the zone 'hongik.ac.kr' and the second certificate will be stored in the DNS server managing the zone 'cs.berkeley.edu'. So this registration requests should be forwarded to the proper DNS servers as in the case of DNS queries.

A user revokes his public key by sending a key revocation certificate to the PGP certification authority. Because this revocation certificate is already signed by the user, the certification authority checks the signature, extracts all the user IDs associated with this public key, generates one CRL type resource records for each user ID, and stores them in the appropriate DNS servers as when PGP certificates are stored in the appropriate DNS servers. So if shim's public key is revoked, then the following two CRL resource records will be generated by the PGP certification authority and stored in the appropriate DNS servers.

```
shim.hongik.ac.kr      CRL    RDATA-1
shim.cs.berkeley.edu  CRL    RDATA-1
```

A DNS server has two interfaces: an operational interface and a management interface. The operational interface is used by a DNS client to submit DNS queries and receive DNS replies and uses UDP in general. The

management interface is used by a certification authority to store certificates and CRLs in a DNS server. Instead of defining a new interface for the management, we use the extended feature of the DNS which allows dynamic updates of DNS databases[11]. When a user or manager wants to send some request to a DNS server, he prepares a query message by calling the resolver library routine 'res_mkquery' with appropriate parameter values. The res_mkquery is used as follow:

```
res_mkquery(op, dname, class, type, data, datalen, n
ewrr, buf, buflen)
```

Among the many parameters, two parameters need extensions: operation_code(op) and type. Operation_code specifies what operation is to be requested. The usual values for this parameter are QUERY or IQUERY specifying a standard query or an inverse query, respectively. But this parameter has been already extended for the dynamic updates of DNS servers and can have values such as UPDATE, UPDATEA, UPDATED, etc. The value UPDATEA is used to request to add some resource records and the value UPDATED is used to request to delete a specific resource record. To store CERT or CRL type resource records, the management request just needs to specify the operation_code of the request message to be UPDATEA. The type parameter specifies on what type of resource records the specified operation should be performed. And the possible values for the type parameter should be extended to include two new resource record types: CERT and CRL. And this extension should be made in the file /include/arpa/nameserv.h. Packets containing certificates will be short but packets containing CRLs can be long in X.509 because a CRL can contain many revoked certificates. So we use TCP for the ma

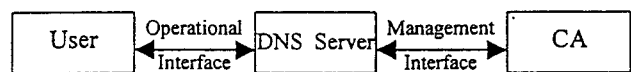


Figure 4. Interfaces for DNS server management protocol.

4.3 Retrieving certificates from DNS servers

To retrieve certificates or CRLs from a DNS server, a

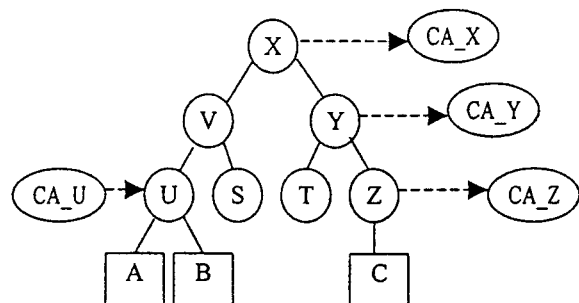


Figure 5. An example hierarchy of DNS servers

DNS client makes a query message using the resolver library routine, `res_mkquery`. The `operation_code` parameter is set to be `QUERY` and the `type` parameter is set to be either `CERT` or `CRL` depending on whether the client wants to retrieve a certificate or CRL.

First we explain how a X.509 certificate can be retrieved from DNS servers. Figure 5 shows a hierarchy of DNS servers named S, T, U, V, X, Y, and Z. Among them, the DNS servers, U, X, Y, and Z, have their associated certification authorities. Two users, A and B, are registered in the zone U.V.X and one user C is registered in the zone Z.Y.X. We assume that the user A has the certificates of its own certification authority CA_U and the root certification authority, CA_X. If A wants B's certificate, the query is sent to the DNS server U and U returns B's certificate signed with CA_U's private key. Because A has the public key of CA_U, it can check the validity of the reply.

If A requests the certificate of the user C who is not in the same zone, the request can be processed in an iterative method or a recursive method. In the case of the iterative method, the query is processed as in Figure 6 and each message carries information as follows:

- (1) U requests the root DNS server X of C's certificate.
- (2) The root returns the address of Y.
- (3) U requests Y of C's certificate.
- (4) Y returns the address of Z
- (5) U requests Z of C's certificate.
- (6) Z returns C's certificate

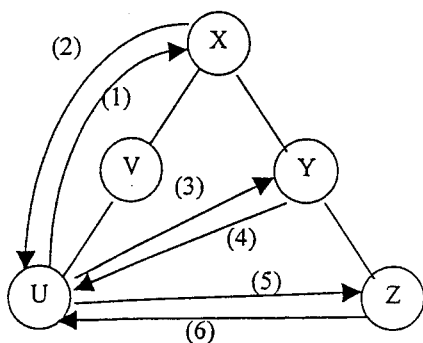


Figure 6. Processing a DNS query in the iterative method

Now in the message (6), Z will return C's certificate signed by CA_Z's private key. But because the user A does not have CA_Z's public key, he cannot check the validity of the received certificate. So he needs CA_Y's certificate to check the validity of CA_Z's public key, because CA_Z's public key will be signed by CA_Y.

In summary he needs the certificate path as follows:

CA_X<<CA_Y>>, CA_Y<<CA_Z>>, CA_Z<<CA_C>>

The user A can get this complete certificate path by making each DNS server return the certificate of its associated certification authority whenever it returns the address of other DNS servers or users' certificates. So X, Y, and Z will return the certificate of CA_X, CA_Y, CA_Z, respectively. Because A has the root certification authority's certificate, the root DNS server need not return the certificate of the root certification authority. All these certificates will be gathered at the user A and the validity of the C's certificate can be verified. C's certificate is stored in the answer section and the certificates of all the certification authorities will be stored in the

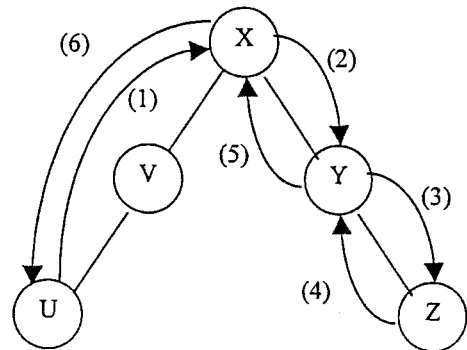


Figure 7. Processing a DNS query in the recursive method additional section in the DNS reply message.

In the case of the recursive method, the query is processed as in Figure 7 and each message contains information as follows:

- (1) U asks the root server, X, of C's certificate
- (2) X asks Y of C's certificate.
- (3) Y asks Z of C's certificate.
- (4) Z returns C's certificate to Y.
- (5) Y relays C's certificate to X.
- (6) X relays C's certificate to U.

The user A requires the same certificate path as in the iterative method. It can be made possible by making each DNS server append its associated certification authority's certificate when it returns a user certificate or relays an answer. So in our example the user A will find the certificates of CA_X, CA_Y, and CA_Z in the additional section of the DNS reply in addition to the certificate of the user C in the answer section of the same DNS reply.

But when a user wants a PGP certificate, he just need

s to retrieve the certificate and does not need the whole certificate path as in the X.509.

When a DNS server cannot find the requested certificate, an error message will be returned. And the integrity of the data authenticity of the reply message including this error message will be assured by the security features of the secure DNS. If the integrity of this reply message is not maintained, an attacker can capture any reply message including a certificate, throw this reply away, and send a false reply saying that the DNS could not find the requested certificate. And this scenario will be a denial of service attack to the DNS servers.

When a user receives a certificate from a DNS server, he can store it in its public key table and use it again in later times. But a problem arises, because he cannot know whether the public key has been revoked after he received the public key from the DNS server. We can consider several solutions to this problem. The first method is not to use the information in the public key table and ask the DNS server to bring the requested public key every time a user requests the public key. The second method is to contact the DNS server which gave the certificate and bring the CRLs from it. Then the user checks whether the public key has been revoked using the CRLs. The disadvantage of this second method is that he needs to contact a DNS server and bring CRLs which can be very long whenever he intends to use a public key in its public key table and this method incurs more communication overhead than the first method. But an advantage of this second method is that when it gets CRLs, it can find and delete any certificates which were received from the same server but were revoked thereafter. The third method is for a DNS server to distribute the CRLs to clients whenever it receives a new CRL from a certification authority. But this method is not practically possible to implement, because it is difficult for the name server to determine the list of clients who will be interested in this new CRL.

5. CONCLUSION

In this paper we explained how the DNS could be used as a distributed repository of public key certificates and CRLs in a world-wide public key infrastructure. We assumed that a certification authority is associated with one DNS server and stores all the certificates and CRLs it publishes in that DNS server. We use the e-mail address of a user as the subject name of a certificate. And the DNS uses CERT and CRL resource record types to store certificates and CRLs. A certification a

uthority uses the extended dynamic update protocol in the DNS and TCP to store certificates and CRLs. New parameter values are added to the resolver library routines and the procedures which processes the DNS query to retrieve certificates are extended so that a user can request certificates from the DNS and receive the certificate path. The security features of the secure DNS are used to maintain the integrity and data authenticity of the DNS queries and replies. One of the problems that remain to be solved is how to efficiently CRLs to the interested users.

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