

DNS Introduction

www.what-is-my-ip-address.com

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"Except for Great Britain. According to ISO 3166 and Internet tradition, Great Britain's top-level domain name should be gb. Instead, most organizations in Great Britain and Northern Ireland (i.e., the United Kingdom) use the top-level domain name uk. They drive on the wrong side of the road, too."

> DNS and BIND book Footnote to the ISO 3166 two-letter country code TLDs



The ISC about the new DNS survey method:

The new survey works by querying the domain system for the name assigned to every possible IP address. However, this would take too long if we had to send a query for each of the potential 4.3 billion (2^32) IP addresses that can exist. Instead, we start with a list of all network numbers that have been delegated within the IN-ADDR.ARPA domain. The IN-ADDR.ARPA domain is a special part of the domain name space used to convert IP addresses into names. For each IN-ADDR.ARPA network number delegation, we query for further subdelegations at each network octet boundary below that point. This process takes about two days and when it ends we have a list of all 3-octet network number delegations that exist and the names of the authoritative domain servers that handle those queries. This process reduces the number of queries we need to do from 4.3 billion to the number of possible hosts per delegation (254) times the number of delegations found. In the January 1998 survey, there were 879,212 delegations, or just 223,319,848 possible hosts.

With the list of 3-octet delegations in hand, the next phase of the survey sends out a common UDP-based PTR query for each possible host address between 1 and 254 for each delegation. In order to prevent flooding any particular server, network or router with packets, the query order is pseudo-randomized to spread the queries evenly across the Internet. For example, a domain server that handles a single 3-octet IN-ADDR.ARPA delegation would only see one or two queries per hour. Depending on the time of day, we transmit between 600 and 1200 queries per second. The queries are streamed out asynchronously and we handle replies as they return. This phase takes about 8 days to run.

See RFC 1296 about details of how traditional DNS surveys were made.

		- Worldw		
Top Host Name	es July 2002	Тор	Host Names Ja	an 1992
956841 www	3883 venus	384 venus	204 mac4	172 mac9
336393 mail	3867 dev	356 pluto	201 hobbes	172 mac11
56958 cpe	3795 zeus	323 mars	201 hermes	170 mac8
36107 router	3765 jupiter	288 jupiter	198 thor	169 phoen:
35004 ftp	3720 mars	286 saturn	198 sirius	169 mac12
33720 ns2	3656 10	285 pc1	196 gw	169 hal
33128 gw	3647 t3	282 zeus	195 calvin	168 snoop
27548 ns1	3567 www3	262 iris	194 mac5	168 mac13
23019 pc1	3511 loopback0	260 mercury	191 mac10	167 mac15
21775 pc2	3470 pop	259 mac1	190 fred	167 mac14
16432 smtp	3452 mercury	258 orion	189 titan	167 grump
15265 pc3	3438 intranet	254 mac2	189 pc3	163 ganda
15177 pc4	3404 demo	240 newton	186 opus	162 pc4
14979 broadcast	<u>-</u>	234 neptune	186 mac6	160 uranus
14891 pc5	3388 pc13	233 pc2	185 charon	159 mac16
14877 gateway	3330 pluto	224 gauss	185 apollo	158 sleep
14138 server	3308 exchange	222 eagle	179 mac7	158 io
big gap	3253 linux	213 mac3	179 athena	157 earth
3884 cisco		209 merlin	177 alpha	156 europa
		207 cisco	172 mozart	155 rigel

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Notice that the people used more fancy names 10 years ago. What can we conclude from this?



Through the 1970s, the ARPAnet was a small community of a few hundred hosts. A single file called *HOSTS.TXT*, contained a name-to-address mapping for every host connected to the ARPAnet. The familiar UNIX host table, */etc/hosts*, was compiled from *HOSTS.TXT*.

HOSTS.TXT was maintained by SRI's *Network Information Center* ("the NIC") and distributed from a single host, *SRI-NIC*. SRI is the Stanford Research Institute in Menlo Park, California. SRI conducts research into many different areas, including computer networking.

ARPAnet administrators typically emailed any changes to the NIC, and periodically fetched the current *HOSTS.TXT* by FTP. Any changes were compiled into a new *HOSTS.TXT*, typically once or twice a week. The /etc/hosts file which is used by any UNIX host has been generated by using HOSTS.TXT.



Unfortunately this approach did not scale as the Arpanet were growing faster and faster. Every additional host not only caused another line in *HOSTS.TXT*, but also produced additional update traffic from and to *SRI-NIC*. Thus the total network bandwidth necessary to distribute

a new version of the hosts file is proportional to the square of the total number of hosts! In these days memory was very expensive and additionally modifying hostnames on a local network became visible to the Internet only after a long (distribution-) delay. Furthermore the name space was not yet hierarchical organized and this "directory" became chaotic.

For example name collisions occurred, that is two hosts in *HOSTS.TXT* could have the same name. While the NIC could assign unique addresses, it had no authority over host names. There was nothing to prevent someone from adding a host with a conflicting name and violating the rules of the name organization. For example if somebody adds a host with the same name as a major mail hub he could disrupt mail service for many users.

The decentralization of administration would eliminate the single-host bottleneck and relieve the traffic problem. And local management would make the task of keeping data up-to-date much easier. It should use a hierarchical name space to name hosts. This would ensure the uniqueness of names.



Paul Mockapetris, a member of USC's Information Sciences Institute, was responsible for designing the architecture of the new system. In 1984, he released RFCs 882 and 883, which describe the Domain Name System. Later. these RFCs were superseded by RFCs 1034 and 1035, the current specifications of the Domain Name System. RFCs 1034 and 1035 have now been augmented by many other RFCs, which describe potential DNS security problems, implementation problems, administrative gotchas, mechanisms for dynamically updating name servers and for securing domain data, and much more.

A few RFC example about basic DNS concepts:

- RFC 1034: Domain Names Concepts and Facilities
- RFC 1035: Domain Names Implementation and Specification
- RFC 1713: Tools for DNS debugging
- RFC 1032: Domain Administrators Guide
- RFC 1033: Domain Administrators Operations Guide
- The basic idea was simply to "split the HOSTS.TXT file is into thousand of fragments". DNS "replaces" the hostaddress to a human readable format and enables a mapping between names and addresses (and many other types of information).

Note: Domain Names are just indexes of the database, which may store whatever information—not only IP addresses!

- The domain system is also important to forward emails. There are entry types to define what computer handles mail for a given name, to specify where an individual is to receive mail, and to define mailing lists.
- But most often it is only used for "hostname resolution", that is, finding an IP address for a given domain name.



Note that IP **network** addresses are **flat**. Although we often call IP addresses structured, the net-IDs are indeed flat, that is, they have no further structure.

Moreover, IP address assignment had been done rather arbitrary without taking semantic or logical considerations into account. But what's most important: people cannot easily remember a 32 byte decimal number by heart.

The DNS maps the whole "flat" IP address space into a logical and **hierarchical tree** of **names**. The tree origins at the **root** domain, which is represented by a single dot ".", while all other domains—first level domains, second level domains, and so on—are attached below the root. The first level domains are also known as "Top Level Domains" (TLDs).

The leaves of this tree and each node in between can be specified by concatenating all names from here to the root. This is called a "Fully Qualified Domain Name" (FQDN).

Note: This tree does not reflect any physical or geographical location of hosts! For example ten different hosts might be physically located in different networks and each in a different country, but all can belong to the same domain!



How is this hierarchical tree implemented? All information is stored in worldwide **distributed name servers**, each of which knows only a fragment of course. This fragment is called a "**zone**" information. A "zone" is simply a part of the tree or a subdomain. Zones are explained later in more detail.

DNS allows flexible mappings between addresses and names—they do not need to be one-to-one! For example a router might be known by a unique name but is reachable by **multiple addresses** because it employs a number of interfaces.

Furthermore, a workstation might offer different services such as FTP, HTTP, MAIL, and so on, and each service is identified by a separate name, for example ftp.x.y.z, www.x.y.z or mail.x.y.z. These mappings are implemented by so-called **aliases**.



A "Domain" is everything under a particular point in the tree and relates to the naming structure itself, not the way things are distributed.

A "**Domain Name**" is the name of a node in this tree—the index of the database. It consists of all concatenated labels from the root to this node and must not exceed 255 characters.

Thus a domain name is made up of several "**Labels**", which need only be unique at a particular point in the tree. That is, both "name.y.z" and "name.x.y.z" are allowed. Labels must not exceed 63 characters.

Note that DNS is not case sensitive—although DNS originates from UNIX systems. That is, "www.nic.org" is the same as "WWW.NIC.ORG"

Due to SMTP restrictions, domain names may contain only characters of the following sets: {a-z}, {A-Z}, {0-9}, and the dash character "-". Additional language specific characters might be supported in future implementations.



The root domain "." is always the rightmost "label" of a FQDN, although most applications such as web browsers do not care about it. However, any DNS configuration is absolutely sensitive of the proper use of this dot. Any domain name without the root-dot is regarded as relative domain name.

The root is realized by **13 root servers** (as of 2002) which are world wide dispersed for performance and redundancy reasons.

However...9 root name servers are indeed located in the USA...



The Arpanet defined seven generic top level domains, short gTLDs, which were originally only assigned inside the USA.

com edu	Commercial Educational
org	Non Profit Organizations (NPOs)
net	Networking providers
mil	US military (e. g. navy.mil, army.mil)
gov	US government organisations (e. g. nasa.gov, nsf.gov)
int	International organizations

In 1996, the restrictions for gTLDs have been relaxed (except mil and gov), for example even commercial organisation can use the net and org TLDs. Additionally the two letter coutry code, which is defined in defined in ISO-3166 is also used. Currently, there are 244 country specific registries.

Also new TLDs have been introduced recently: **AERO** for the airport industry, **BIZ** for businesses, **COOP** for "Cooperatives", **INFO** for unrestricted use, **MUSEUM** for (*surprise*) museums, **NAME** for individuals, and **PRO** for "Professionals" such as accountants, lawyers, physicians, and so on.

The **us** domain has fifty subdomains that correspond to the fifty U.S. states. Each is named according to the standard two-letter abbreviation for the state which has been defined by the U.S. Postal Service.

Country and state domains typically reflect geographical locations—but not necessarily!



Obviously root and TLD name servers cannot hold all information about a domain, and even many organizations are as big that it is not reasonable to maintain a whole domain database at a single server. Because of this, administration is simplified by delegating the authority of a subdomain—also called a zone—to another nameserver.

That is: name servers generally deal with zones-not domains!

The so-called "**Start of Authority**" (**SOA**) record of a name server specifies the realm of the particular zone. Or in simpler words: Each name server stores information about a zone and each zone is therefore a "Start of Authority".

A zone can span over a whole domain or just be part of it. In this case a zone is like a **pruned domain**. It contains all names from this point downwards the domain-tree except those which are delegated to other zones (i.e. to other name servers).

Also the org name servers control different zones. Imagine if a root name server loaded the root domain instead of the root zone: it would be loading the entire name space! Now if a name server is asked for data in some subdomain, it can reply with a list of the right name servers to talk to.



There are two ways for hostname resolution: recursive and iterative queries.

The recursive query is more **burdening** for the server which is being queried, because this server is asked to do the whole job of name resolution by its own. Of course it may also forward this query and the next server must perform the whole work.

A name server configured to forward all unresolved queries to a designated name server is called a "**forwarder**".

Being requested by an iterative query is much easier. The queried server only has to reply using the best information **currently known**. If the queried name server isn't authoritative for the data requested, the initiator will have to query other name servers to find the answer.

Most name servers will recurse, since this permits them to *cache* the various resource records used to access the foreign domain, in anticipation of further similar requests.

The BIND 8 name server can be configured to refuse recursive queries.



The diagram above shows a real world example of name resolution, starting at the root name servers. Of course not any request needs to start at the root since most ISP name servers cache a lot of information or know at least the addresses of authoritative name servers.

But in our example we start at the top. The whole process can be verified by using standard DNS tools such as **dig**.



After a reference to another NS, this (recursing) NS learns the IP address of a new NS which is authoritative about a new zone. This is precious information and therefore it is cached.



Caching greatly reduces the resolving duration and unburdens the root name servers.



Reverse lookups are commonly used by WWW servers to log its users in a file or IRC servers that want to restrict their service to a certain domain, for example a closed discussion group exclusive for IEEE.ORG members.

In order to support reverse lookups the old **arpa** domain is reused today, which is connected to the **in-addr subdomain**. All IP addresses are attached as labels to in-addr.arpa.

The **ARPA TLD** was originally only used while changing from HOSTS.TXT to DNS. All hosts were originally members of the arpa domain, then all hosts moved to the specific TLDs. Today ARPA is reused for inverse lookups.

Reverse delegation is becoming increasingly important as organizations attempt to verify the origin of requests to their servers by looking up the domain name associated with the IP address making the request. Among the services this applies to are FTP and mail.

Customers may not be able to access services if reverse lookup on their host IP numbers is not setup.



The "in-addr.arpa." domain is the reverse tree for IPv4 addresses. The name derives from "Inverse (IP) address", and "ARPA" was once of the organizations behind the creation of the Internet.

The whole IP address space is represented as a four-level tree which is attached to the in-addr.arpa domain name. Each byte of the IP address is interpreted as ordinary label, allowing normal lookups. But at the leaves of this tree a **pointer** (**PTR**) is found, which points to the official domain name of this host.

For simplicity the domain names should be organized on byte boundaries, however, today tricks are used to assign even names for subnets that are not aligned on byte boundaries.

This is called the "**classless in-addr**" trick and is not discussed here. Hint: Just introduce an artificial 5th level in the tree...



The most important implementation for DNS is the Berkeley Internet Name Domain (BIND), which has been created by Paul Vixie. BIND consists of a server (**named**, "d" stands for "daemon") and a client, the **resolver library**.

The "resolver" is a collection of functions like **gethostbyname(2)** and **gethostbyaddr(2)** and is used by all Internet applications, such as Telnet, FTP, webbrowsers, and others.

By the way: Windows systems use their own DNS implementation based on BIND.



The diagram above shows the **principle** design of a DNS server and resolver according to the **IETF**.

All DNS messages use port **53**. Zone transfers use TCP for reliability and simple queries which are originated from clients use UDP for speed.

Note that replies that are longer than **512 bytes** (check the implementation!) might also be send via TCP.

Early (up to version 4) BIND implementations did not cache query responses. All modern DNS implementations do cache—unless disabled.



There are exactly two types of name servers which are authoritative for a zone: the **Primary** Master and the **Secondary** Master. With BIND 8/9 the terms **master** and **slaves** are used instead.

Each zone must have exactly one primary name server. All configuration is done in the master files or "zone files" of the primary.

A secondary name server for a zone gets the zone data from another name server that is authoritative for the zone, called its master server. The master server is either a primary or a secondary name server. When a secondary starts up, it contacts its master name server and, if necessary, pulls the zone data over. This is referred to as a **zone transfer**.

Note that secondary name servers are not second-class name servers. DNS provides these two types of name servers to make administration easier. Just configure set up a primary master name server and specify some secondaries. Once they are set up, the secondaries will transfer new zone data when necessary.

A name server can be a primary master for one zone and a secondary for another, hereby providing enough redundancy to tolerate failures.

Secondary NS are initially suggested in RFC 1035.



Records are divided into **classes**, each of which defines various information types. Today only the Internet class (**IN**) is important, while the others--Chaosnet (CH) and Hesiod (HS)—have only historic significance, and has been used at the MIT.

Within a class, records also come in several types, which correspond to the different varieties of data that may be stored in the domain name space.

All DNS operations are formulated in terms of **Resource Records** (**RRs**, RFC 1035), furthermore, each query is answered with a copy of matching RRs. RRs are the smallest unit of information available through DNS

Some Important RR Types A Value Meaning Type Α 1 Host address NS 2 Authoritative name server 5 CNAME Canonical name for an alias SOA 6 Marks the start of a zone of authority **WKS** 11 Well known service description PTR 12 **Domain name pointer HINFO** 13 **Host information MINFO** 14 Mailbox or mail list information MX 15 Mail exchange TX 16 **Text strings** 24 (C) Herbert Haas 2005/03/11

The table above shows some important RR types. Most important is the **address** (A), which specifies an IP address for address resolution, and the **name server** (NS), which specifies other name servers, authoritative for another zone. NS records are used for delegations and constitute the "glue" of the hierarchical tree.

CNAME entries are used to assign a certain host an alias, for example "WWW".

SOA marks the "Start of Authority" and is used as a preamble in each zone file.

Pointer (PTR) records are used for inverse queries, and Mail Exchange (MX) entries are used to specify mail transfer agents, which are responsible to forward mails.



In the absence of other information, resolution has to start at the root name servers. The Internet has **thirteen** root name servers (as of this writing) spread across different parts of the network. Two are on the MILNET, the U.S. military's portion of the Internet; one is on SPAN, NASA's internet; two are in Europe; and one is in Japan. Clearly when root servers go offline there is no name resolution anymore, therefore redundancy is cruxial.

Each root server might be implemented by several physical servers. The utilization of these root servers varies from some kbit/s (rarely) to some Mbits/s (average) up to 100 Mbit/s and more (peaks). Root servers are typically connected to several ISPs, some of them provide free transit service. Furthermore, a backup power supply is needed e.g. battery and generator in the case of outage of commercial power supplies.

Server	Operator	Cities
А	VeriSign Global Registry Services	Herndon VA, US
В	Information Sciences Institute	Merina Del Rey CA, US
С	Cogent Communications	Herndon VA, US
D	University of Maryland	College Park MD, US
Е	NASA Ames Research Center	Mountain View CA, US
F	Internet Software Consortium	Palo Alto CA, US - San Francisco CA
G	U.S. DOD Network Information Center	Vienna VA, US
Н	U.S. Army Research Lab	Aberdeen MD, US
Ι	Autonomica	Stockholm, SE
J	VeriSign Global Registry Services	Herndon VA, US
K	Reseaux IP Europeens	London, UK
L	IANA	Los Angeles CA, US
М	WIDE Project	Tokyo, JP



The slide above shows an actual example (fragment) of a **root.hints** file. Note the five-column specifications of each entry, which is typical for all DNS entries.

From left to right each line specifies:

- 1. The domain for which this information applies
- 2. The TTL in seconds, how long this entry is valid if it is cached
- 3. The network class (almost always IN for Internet)
- 4. The type of entry-here NS for Name Server and A for Address
- 5. The data itself, whose meaning has been specified by column four (type)



Current efforts of the ICANN is to assure one **single root** for the Internet. Recently unofficial root name servers "polluted" the Internet with non officially registered TLDs and caused wrong hostname resolutions.

Some companies persuade their users to have their resolvers point to their alternate root instead of the authoritative root.

Others (New.net for example) create special browser plug-ins and other software workarounds to accomplish the same effect.



A name server processing a recursive query discovers a lot of information about the domain name space as. Each time it is referred to another list of name servers, it learns that those name servers are authoritative for some zone, and it learns the addresses of those servers.

In order to accelerate future client request and to reduce DNS traffic, all these information is cached.

With version 4.9 and all version 8 BINDs, name servers even implement **negative caching**, that is, if an authoritative name server responds to a query with an answer that says the domain name or data type in the query doesn't exist, the local name server will temporarily cache that information, too.

Every piece of DNS information has a **Time To Live** (**TTL**) assigned which specifies the number of seconds this information may be cached before it must be discarded. With BIND 8.2 the TTL is only used for negative caching.

Deciding on a TTL is essentially deciding on a trade-off between performance and consistency. A small TTL ensures that data is consistent across the network, because remote name servers will time it out more quickly and be forced to query authoritative name servers more often for new data. On the other hand, this will increase the DNS traffic and processing load and lengthen the resolution time on the average.



The picture above shows an example domain "foo" having two name servers "ns" and "stan", each responsible for another zone. Ns is authoritative for the foo.org zone and stan is authroitative for the pub.foo.org zone.

The following slides show example BIND configurations.



The slide above shows an example configuration in the ns.foo.org name server. Note the "**glue records**" that assign IP addresses to the NS records so that delegations make sense.



Before BIND 8.2 all these values were configured in **seconds**. Post BIND 8.2 releases also allow time values in **hours**, **minutes**, **days**, and **weeks** (h, m, d, w).

When the TTL expires the DNS must remove the respective entries from the cache. This is also true for negative data ("negative caching").

This is different with BIND 8.2 and later: The TTL is actually a "Negative Caching TTL" and is only valid for the negative caches.

Example Config (3)				
	; zor	ne file for	the 78.32.216.in-addr.arpa domain	
	@ 1 10 20 99 100	IN SOA n IN NS IN PTR IN PTR IN PTR IN PTR IN PTR	<pre>s.foo.org admin.kenny.docs.foo.org.</pre>	
(C) Herbert Haas 2	150	IN PTR	cartman.docs.foo.org.	32

The slide above shows an example configuration in the ns.foo.org name server, used for **inverse** resolution.

Note the PTR entries.

mple	Сс	onfi	g (4)
; zone fil			
0	IN S	DA stan	.pub.foo.org hostmaster.stan.pub.foo.org.
			(1034
			3600
			600 3600000
			86400)
; Name Sei	rvers		88480)
, Manie Dei	IN N	s	stan
	IN N	5	ns.foo.org. ; secondary NS
; glue red	cords		
stan	IN A		216.32.78.99
nameserver	r IN	CNAME	stan
; other ho	osts:		
kyle	IN	A	216.32.22.50
	IN	MX	1 mail.foo.com
	IN	MX	2 picasso.art.net
	IN	MX	5 mail.ct.oberon.tuwien.ac.at
butters	IN	A	216.32.22.51
garison	IN IN	A HINFO	216.32.22.52 VAX-11/780 UNIX
	IN	WKS	216.32.22.52 TCP
	TIN	WLS	(telnet ftp netstat finger pop)
wendy	IN	А	216.32.34.2
1.0.0.4	IN	HINFO	SUN UNIX

The slide above shows other example entries found in the stan.pub.foo.org name server.

Note the additional information, such as **MX** records, host information (**HINFO**), and well-known services (**WKS**).

Consider the security relevance of HINFO and WKS.



Every zone needs **at least two** nameservers. One is called the primary or master, the other is the secondary or slave. Today we should use the terms master and slaves only.

Delegations are implemented using NS records, which specify authoritative (master or slave) name servers for some specific zone of this domain. Additionally A records are necessary to specify the associated IP addresses. These A records are the so-called "**glue records**".



Network Solutions Inc is responsible (and hereby the only registry) for the TLDs com, net, org, and edu. Network Solutions Inc. also acts as registrar for these TLDs. Since June 1999 the ICANN allowed other registrars for the TLDs com, net, and org (see http://www.internic.net/regist.html for a list).



Domain name registration is independent from IP address assignment and usually any provider can act as a registrar, who applies for a registration at the regional network information center (RIPE, APNIC, InterNIC) in behalf of the customer.

The overall control over the DNS has recently been directed to the **ICANN**, the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers. Check out http://www.icann.org.



There are two standard DNS tools available on most workstations. The Domain Information Groper (**DIG**) is the most important one and typically found on any UNIX and LINUX distribution.

The syntax is:

```
dig [@server] domain [<query-type>] [<query-class>][+<query-option>]
[-<dig-option>] [%comment]
```

The other important tool is **NSLOOKUP** and also found on Windows operating systems. NSLOOKUP is operated interactively, just enter "help" for a command and option list.





- RFC 881 The Domain Names Plan And Schedule
- RFC 882 Domain Names Concepts And Facilities
- RFC 883 Domain Name Implementation and Specification
- RFC 897 Domain Name System Implementation Schedule
- RFC 921 Domain Name System Implementation Schedule (Rev)
- RFC 973 Domain System Changes And Observations
- RFC 974 Mail Routing And the Domain System
- RFC 1032 Domain Administrators Guide
- RFC 1033 Domain Administrators Operations Guide
- RFC 1034 Domain Name Concept And Facilities
- RFC 1035 Domain Name Implementation and Specification
- RFC 1101 DNS Encoding Network Names And Other Types
- RFC 1183 New DNS RR Definitions
- RFC 1348 DNS NSAP RRs
- RFC 1383 An Experiment In DNS Based IP Routing
- RFC 1386 The US Domain
- RFC 1394 Relationship Of Telex Answerback Codes To Internet Domains



 $\rm RFC$ - 1401 - Correspondence Between The IAB And DISA On The Use Of DNS Throughout The Internet

RFC - 1464 - Using The Domain Name System To Store Arbitrary String Attributes

RFC - 1480 - The US Domain

RFC - 1535 - A Security Problem And Proposed Correction With Widely Deployed DNS Software

RFC - 1536 - Common DNS Implementation Errors And Suggested Fixes

RFC - 1537 - Common DNS Data File Configuration Errors

RFC - 1591 - Domain Name System Structure And Delegation

RFC - 1664 - Using The Internet DNS To Distribute RFC1327 Mail Address Mapping Tables

RFC - 1637 - DNS NSAP Resource Records

RFC - 1612 - DNS Resolver MIB Extensions

RFC - 1611 - DNS Server MIB Extensions

RFC - 1706 - DNS NSAP Resource Records

RFC - 1712 - DNS Encoding Of Geographical Location

RFC - 1788 - ICMP Domain Name Messages

RFC - 1794 - DNS Support For Load Balancing



RFC - 1876 - A Means For Expressing Location Information In The Domain Name System

RFC - 1886 - DNS Extensions To Support IP Version 6

RFC - 1912 - Common DNS Operational and Configuration Errors

RFC - 1918 - Address Allocation for Private Internets

RFC - 1982 - Serial Number Arithmetic

RFC - 1995 - Incremental Zone Transfers In DNS

RFC - 1996 - A Mechanism For Prompt Notification Of Zone Changes (DNS Notify)

RFC - 2052 - A DNS RR For Specifying The Location Of Services (DNS SRV)

RFC - 2065 - Domain Name System Security Extensions

RFC - 2136 - Dynamic Updates In The Domain Name System (DNS Update)

RFC - 2137 - Secure Domain Name System Dynamic Update

RFC - 2163 - Using the Internet DNS To Distribute MIXER Conformant Global Address Mapping (MCGAM)

RFC - 2168 - Resolution of Uniform Resource Identifiers Using The Domain Name System

RFC - 2181 - Clarifications To The DNS Specification



- RFC 2182 Selection And Operation Of Secondary DNS Servers
- RFC 2219 Use Of DNS Aliases For Network Services
- RFC 2230 Key Exchange Delegation Record For The DNS
- RFC 2240 A Legal Basis For Domain Name Allocation
- RFC 2247 Using Domains In LDAPX.500 Distinguished Names
- RFC 2308 Negative Caching Of DNS Queries (DNS Ncache)
- RFC 2352 A Convention For Using Legal Names As Domain Names
- RFC 2517 Building Directories From DNS Experiences From WWW Seeker
- RFC 2535 Domain Name System Security Extensions
- RFC 2536 DSA KEYs And SIGs In The Domain Name System
- RFC 2537 RSAMD5 KEYs And SIGs In The Domain Name System
- RFC 2538 Storing Certificates In The Domain Name System
- RFC 2539 Storage Of Diffie-Hellman Keys In The Domain Name System
- RFC 2540 Detached Domain Name System Information
- RFC 2541 DNS Security Operational Considerations
- RFC 2606 Reserved Top Level DNS Names



- RFC 2671 Extension Mechanisms For DNS (EDNS0)
- RFC 2672 Non-Terminal DNS Name Redirection
- RFC 2673 Binary Labels In The Domain Name System
- RFC 2694 DNS Extensions To Network Address Translators (DNS_ALG)
- RFC 2782 A DNS RR For Specifying The Location Of Services (DNS SRV)
- RFC 2826 IAB Technical Comment On The Unique DNS Root
- RFC 2845 Secret Key Transaction Authentication For DNS (TSIG)
- RFC 2870 Root Name Server Operational Requirements

RFC - 2874 - DNS Extensions To Support IPv6 Address Aggregation And Renumbering

- RFC 2915 The Naming Authority Pointer (NAPTR) DNS Resource Record
- RFC 2916 E.164 number and DNS
- RFC 2929 Domain Name System IANA Considerations
- RFC 2931 DNS Request And Transaction Signatures (SIG(0)s)
- RFC 3007 Secure Domain Name System Dynamic Update
- RFC 3008 Domain Name System Security (DNSSEC) Signing Authority
- RFC 3071 Reflections On The DNS, RFC 1591, And Categories Of Domains



- RFC 3088 OpenLDAP Root Service An experimental LDAP referral service
- RFC 3090 DNS Security Extension Clarification On Zone Status
- RFC 3110 RSASHA-1 SIGs And RSA KEYs In The Domain Name System
- RFC 3123 A DNS RR Type For Lists Of Address Prefixes (APL RR)
- RFC 3130 Notes From The State Of The Technology DNSSEC
- RFC 3152 Delegation Of IP6.ARPA

RFC - 3172 - Management Guidelines & Operational Requirements For the Address And Routing Parameter Area Domain (ARPA)

RFC - 3197 - Applicability Statement For DNS MIB Extensions

RFC - 3225 - Indicating Resolver Support Of DNSSEC

RFC - 3226 - DNSSEC And IPv6 A6 Aware Serverresolver Message Size Requirements

RFC - 3258 - Distributing Authoritative Name Servers Via Shared Unicast Addresses

- RFC 3363 Representing Internet Protocol Version 6 Addresses In The Domain Name System
- RFC 3364 Tradeoffs In Domain Name System Support For Internet Protocol Version 6

RFC - 3397 - Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) Domain Search Option

RFC - 3403 - Dynamic Delegation Discovery System Part Three The Domain Name System Database

RFC - 3425 - Obsoleting IQUERY



