

# A Proposal to Separate Handles from Names on the Internet

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## **Abstract**

Networked communications inherently depend on the ability of the sender of a message to indicate through some token how the message should be delivered to a particular recipient. The tokens that refer messages to recipients are variously known as *routes*, *addresses*, *handles*, and *names*, ordered by their relative nearness to network topology vs. human meaning. All four sorts of token refer in some way to a recipient, but they are controlled by different authorities and their meanings depend on different contextual parameters.

Today's global Internet employs dynamically determined routes, IP addresses, and domain names. Domain names combine the functions of handles and names. The high value of domain names as names leads to substantial social and legal dispute about their assignment, degrading their value as handles. The time has come to provide a distinct open network handle system (ONHS), using handles that are not meaningful in natural language and are therefore not subject to the disputes surrounding the use of names.

A handle service may be deployed easily as a handle domain within the current Domain Name System. In order to minimize the administrative load, and maximize their own autonomy, netizens may use public-key cryptography to assign their own handles.

## **1 The Value of Names Leads to Conflict**

The success of the Internet has made it valuable, and that value has naturally led to conflict between contenders for the profits. Many parts of the Internet design have avoided such conflict by providing a sufficient supply of valuable resources, and by economic network effects that make one party's holdings even more valuable when others gain similar holdings. The assignment of high-level names in the Domain Name System (DNS) stands out for the substantial and increasing contention for scarce resources. There is some controversy over the extent to which this scarcity should be cured by introduction of a large number of top-level domains (TLDs). But to some substantial degree the conflict derives from

the natural scarcity of human memory and attention, which often causes the opposite of a network effect—other uses of my name can diminish the valuable distinction of having that name refer to me.

Dispute over valuable names precedes the Internet, and led to legal regulation of trade marks names. The sudden success of the Internet threw a monkey wrench into that regulation by changing and blurring the boundaries between the different contexts in which a name is used.

Long before highways were super, much less informational, Cyrus Avery recognized the importance of naming when he promoted the development of Route 66 through his hometown of Tulsa Oklahoma. Even after the Road Designation Committee had agreed to construct pavement connecting Chicago, Tulsa, and Los Angeles, Avery fought to have that route given a single name, and the highly mnemonic name of Route 60. He settled for 66, which was at least more mnemonic than 64 or 68. This naming coup established the notion that people would travel from Chicago to Los Angeles through Tulsa, enticed song-writers and television producers to advertise that notion for free, and brought lots of tourist money to Oklahoma that would otherwise have landed elsewhere [17]. The conflict over Internet domain names is the natural successor to the conflict over road names, and it will not be completely resolved as long as domain names have an impact on commercially valuable behavior.

While a certain amount of conflict over name space is probably unavoidable, we should remove as much of the value of the Internet as we can from the scope of that conflict. Domain names in the current DNS conflate two different sorts of utility:

- they serve as permanent *handles*, referring to a particular agent as its address changes due to mobility or to changes in network topology;
- they serve as mnemonic and guessable *names*, establishing a connection between humanly meaningful concepts and network agents.

Meaningless handles are plentiful, and can be provided promiscuously without suffering a reverse network effect. Names carry a very substantial structure of meaning, which adds to their value, but also makes them much more problematic and in particular attracts conflict.

So, we should separate these two sorts of utility, and support each one as well as possible independently of the other. With such independence, conflict over handles should be insignificantly small. Conflict over names will continue, but the greater flexibility allowed by independent use of handles and names may allow more effective management of names as well. If domain names cease to be the only available network handles, they may compete more sensibly with other semantic organization of the Internet, such as *Yahoo* and *Google*. Bob Frankston wrote a very useful analysis of the way in which conflict over names leads to violations of their use as handles, and the need for a “Safe Haven” for handles [10].

Although I am only proposing to separate handles from names, I need to

discuss the other two sorts of network reference tokens—*routes* and *addresses*—and the parties that use them.

## 2 Parties to Network Operations

I derive the need for the four different sorts of tokens that may be used in a network—*routes*, *addresses*, *handles*, and *names*—from the need to accommodate a number of different sorts of parties to network operations, each one assigned different authority and responsibility, and each one feeling different incentives. I derive my list of parties intuitively from my observations of the global Internet. A different list of parties might demand a different design.

In this article, an *agent* is any entity in which we care to invest authority. That includes human beings, offices performed by human beings, corporations, departments within corporations, groups of human beings acting somewhat cooperatively, computer programs, and lots of other possibilities. A document may be thought of as a relatively passive agent, or the curator of a document may be treated as a different agent when acting as curator than when performing other roles.

Parties in network operations include:

**Routers:** Agents that read information in a message somehow indicating the desired recipient, and direct the message in order to reach that recipient. Today, the word “router” often refers to a particular sort of network hardware designed especially to serve as a router. But all “hosts” in Internet terminology are also routers. For the purpose of my conceptual overview, a router may also be a particular piece of software running on a computer host, or any other identifiable agent that participates in routing. A network system normally includes a large number of routers.

**Network administration:** The unique collective agent that determines the rules by which a network system operates. Network administration is normally a loose organization comprising a variety of computers, individuals, and participating organizations with different detailed incentives. But to the extent that they all co-operate in the interest of effective network operation, I regard them as constituting a single collective agent.

**Members:** All agents that send and receive messages across the network.

**Communities:** Loosely co-operating groups of people.

A particular agent may participate in the network in more than one of the roles above, or as a member of a larger agent, but I derive my observations about reference tokens from the separate actions of agents in their different roles. Notice again that there are lots of routers, lots of members, and lots of communities, each constituting an individual agent. There is only one network administration, although it is a large collective agent.

### 3 Routes, Addresses, Handles, and Names

I will define these four types of tokens in terms of the operations that we can perform on them. But you might notice that in most cases we can translate between the four types of tokens, so mathematically whatever we can do to one we can do to the others. The real differences lie in which operations must be very efficient, and in who has the authority to determine the translations. Translation from names to handles to addresses to routes is called *resolution*.

**Route:** A token associated with a message directing routers how to deliver that message.

**Address:** A token associated with a particular target location in a network. At any location in the network (not just the target location), an address should resolve to a route leading to the target location.

**Handle:** A token associated with an agent participating in a network. A handle should resolve to an address at which we may communicate with that agent.

**Name:** A token carrying some humanly understandable meaning. A name should resolve to the handle corresponding to its humanly understandable meaning.

I use the word “should” advisedly in these definitions. A network system is intended to support the resolution of names to handles to addresses to routes in a fashion that satisfies all of the “should”s. But the requirements for resolution of names is inherently subjective, so the resolution cannot be perfectly reliable. As we go down the list from names toward routes, the objective quality and reliability of resolution improves, but it never becomes perfect. The success of the global Internet depends critically on our willingness to work with protocols that *should* produce a particular result, but that fail occasionally. We have found that it is better in many cases to guard against the consequences of occasional failures than to try to prevent them.

In this article, I am trying to show the value of including all four levels of reference, and all three resolution steps, in the design of a network. But many network designs reduce the number of levels to three, two, or even one by omitting levels and/or conflating adjacent levels. I am not aware of any network design in serious use today that includes all four levels and keeps them clearly separate. When a level is missing, resolution just skips over that level to the next lower one (nearer to routes) that is included in the design.

By composing the different resolution steps, all network reference tokens resolve down to routes. In many cases, we can also run resolution backwards (e.g., the current *whois* service maps IP addresses back to domain names that resolve to them). The relative ease with which each type of token may be mapped to each other type makes it hard to keep track of the differences. Whenever the support for a particular type of token is missing, we tend to use another type

of token to approximate it. For example, the English phrase “Editor of the *Journal of Irreproducible Results*” is a *name* that also works pretty well outside of the network as a *handle*, referring continuously to the abstract agent who edits *JIR* no matter how that role passes from person to person and how the people playing the role move from one address to another. But I regard such a phrase as essentially a name, since its resolution is mediated by natural human language, and subject to changes in that language.

In the definitions above, I differentiated addresses, handles, and names according to the different objects that they should refer to consistently, even while the routes change. An address should always refer to the same location, a handle to the same agent, and a name to the same humanly understandable meaning. The meaning of a name is clearly subjective, but in fact the notions of location and agent are also fuzzy. Instead of refining the definitions of location and agent, which I am pretty sure can never be made satisfactorily objective, I will distinguish addresses, handles, and names according to where we invest the authority for their resolutions. In effect, this means that a network *location* is whatever address resolution defines it to be, a network *agent* is whatever handle resolution defines it to be, and *meaning* is whatever natural language defines it to be.

**Address to route:** Network administration has authority over all resolutions of addresses to routes. In practice, the network administration as a whole usually delegates some of this authority to smaller agents participating in the network administration.

**Handle to address:** Each member of the network may become owner of one or more handles. The owner of a handle has authority over all resolutions of that handle to an address. Network administration may have authority to assign handles to owners.

**Name to handle:** Human communities have collective authority over the resolution of names to handles.

The intention in the assignment of authority above is to make the authority over a resource, the responsibility for acceptable use of that resource, and the incentive to derive value from the resource, coincide as much as possible. If I have identified the types of parties well, and matched the resources to them well, then these authorities, responsibilities, and incentives will coincide well.

To understand the relations between the three types of resolution, consider the ways in which each type of resolution can vary. All three vary over time, to deal with mobility on the network, changes in jargon, etc. But at a given time, they vary differently according to context within and without the network.

**Address to route:** Resolution varies according to starting location in the network, so that the ending location is constant.

**Handle to address:** Resolution does not vary except over time.

Figure 1: System of parties, reference tokens, and referents.

**Name to handle:** Resolution varies according to linguistic context, local differences in language and culture, and anything that affects the way people think.

Roughly, address→route resolution varies within the network, handle→address resolution doesn't vary at all, and name→handle resolution varies outside the network.

## 4 The System of Parties and Reference Tokens

The considerations above suggest a system of parties and reference tokens with the structure shown in Figure 1.

- The items in blue rounded rectangular boxes on the top row represent the three types of parties with authority over resolution—a single network administration, any number of individual network members, and any number of overlapping human communities. These parties are abstract agents who participate in the network, but the network design doesn't define them precisely and formally.
- The items in black square boxes in the middle row represent the four types of reference tokens. These types of tokens must be given explicitly and formally in the network design.
- The items in gold ovals in the bottom row represent the types of mental concepts that the four types of reference tokens are intended to capture. The act of message delivery in the network is rather precisely defined, but moving from left to right, the concepts become less objective and more ambiguous, as suggested by the fuzzier sorts of boundaries.
- The red lines from the top to the middle row represent the authority of the three types of parties to control the three types of resolution. The multiple connections from individual members to arrows from handles to addresses indicate that each handle owner has separate authority over her handle(s). The squiggly red lines from communities to the name→handle resolution suggest the complexity of their collective exercise of authority.
- The black right-left arrows in the middle row represent the three types of resolution. These methods of resolution are implemented through some sort of tables in various network hosts and routers.
- The gold left-right arrows in the bottom row represent the conceptual connections that allow each of these concepts to determine one to its right. Each delivery leads to a particular location. Each location contains

a particular agent. Each agent is responsible for data or services with a particular human meaning.

- The green up-down arrows between the middle and bottom rows represent the intended associations of deliveries with routes, locations with addresses, agents with handles, and meanings with names. The association of routes with deliveries is determined precisely and formally by the network operations. From left to right, the associations become less objective and more ambiguous, as suggested by the fuzzier sorts of arrows.

The design and implementation of a system of network reference tokens is intended to make all of the different paths from formal network tokens (black) to mental concepts (gold) connect the same individual items. In particular, when we resolve a particular handle into an address and then into a route, then use that route to deliver a message to a location, the agent receiving the message at that location is intended to be the one associated conceptually with the given handle. As network architects and engineers, we can only control the mechanisms for the black arrows. A design and implementation are successful if they make the black resolution arrows work in such a way that it is possible (with high reliability, but not absolute perfection) to think up sensible conceptual interpretations of the green and gold arrows that make these different connections equivalent.

Notice that there is no fixed definitional foundation in the diagram. The behavior of the network, as determined by the formal settings of resolutions in the middle row (black), influences the way that we think about the concepts in the bottom row (gold). The success of the system is determined by the utility of its entire behavior, not by the agreement of one part of the diagram with a completely predetermined structure in another.

There are a lot of details involved in making such a system of names, handles, addresses, and routes work efficiently. For example, although each party should keep a table of the resolutions directly under its authority, and that table should be the final resort to resolve tokens correctly, all sorts of routers and other agents should keep local tables, called *caches*, of the resolutions that they are using regularly, to save the traffic and the delay associated with sending to the authoritative source for each resolution. Furthermore, local caches don't necessarily correspond directly to address→route, handle→address, and name→handle resolution. If a particular agent is concerned with the correspondence between names and addresses, it should cache a table of the direct resolution of names to addresses, derived by composing the name→handle and handle→address resolutions. With this sort of transitive caching, the cost of multilevel resolution is not much more than one-level resolution.

#### 4.1 Routes, Addresses, and Handlenames in the Current Internet

**Routes.** In the current Internet, routes do not need to be written down in one place. address→route resolution interleaves with the execution of a delivery, so

that the route is implicit in the path by which a message is forwarded. The relationship between IP addresses and routes is a bit more complicated than this article suggests, since several different routes to the same address may be used at the same time, and messages may be broken up en route and reassembled at the end.

**Addresses.** The IP routing protocol is described in a form that uses IP numbers as addresses. IP numbers are just 32-bit numbers. But IP numbers are not the only sorts of addresses used in the Internet. The UDP protocol uses the combination of an IP number and a port number as an extended address. IP numbers essentially allow a message to be addressed to an entire computer, called a *host* (although for technical reasons IP numbers actually refer to network interfaces). UDP addresses allow a message to be addressed to a particular *application* running on a particular host, such as a particular sort of server, or a mail recipient. Other protocols have other notions of address—the HTTP protocol supporting the World Wide Web uses URLs as addresses. A URL essentially addresses a particular file on a particular host.

Networking efficiency sometimes requires addresses of *distributed locations* for servers requiring the resources of several hosts. For example multihomed Web servers share the messages to a particular address among several different hosts. As far as I know, most addresses for distributed locations on the current Internet are simulated implicitly through some tricks with routing tables (IPv6 [11] has addresses for multicast and anycast distributed locations). Mobility and intermittent connection call for time-dependent addresses. For the future, we should open our minds to the possibility that any sort of instructions for contacting a particular agent may be thought of as an address.

**Handlenames.** The Domain Name System [14, 15] (DNS) provides tokens that were mainly designed to serve as handles. But domain names are usually chosen to be mnemonically valuable sequences of characters, so they also serve as names. The high value of the names creates conflicts that degrade the value as handles.

## 5 A Pseudohistory of Network Reference

One way to understand the value of the four layers of reference to the effective use of a network is to consider a partly fictional, but realistic, history of network development as it might have happened.

**First came routes.** A network cannot deliver messages without routes. The UUCP system directed all messages by routes of the form `host1!host2...!hostn`, describing the entire sequence of “hosts” (acting as routers in my terminology) on the route. Each host/router kept its own table of hosts/routers with which it



communicated directly. System administration required little more than agreeing on the general format for describing routes—all operational routing details could be handled independently by hosts/routers.

Routes allowed great support for distributed routing, but they were not portable. If Sally at the host `gargoyle` discovered the route to a great online candy store run by Grampa, and wished to share it with her friend Paul at `foghorn`, she could not merely send the route token to Paul—someone had to translate the route. The only general and reliable way for Sally and Paul to translate the route was to append the route between `foghorn` and `gargoyle`, which they must have known in order to communicate. This led to nasty long routes with inefficient forwarding. Even if Sally were selfish, and kept the candy supply to herself, she had to translate the route when she moved from `gargoyle` to `juniper`. Worse, selfish Sally could rest immobile at `gargoyle` and still find that a change in network topology invalidated her treasured route to Grampa’s candy.

**Addresses provide independence of starting point and topology.** In small local networks, with all participants connected rigidly and directly, routes are pretty much indistinguishable from addresses. The design of IP for ARPANet and the Internet made useful sense of globally meaningful addresses in a dynamically changing network with many different sorts of hops between particular communicating hosts. Addresses in IP were just 32-bit numbers, but they were usually written in the form `n1.n2.n3.n4`, where `n1`, `n2`, `n3`, `n4` are 8-bit numbers written in base 10.

Network administration had authority to assign these numbers, but it could delegate the authority to assign numbers within a subrange. Each host/router kept track of its own address, the addresses of hosts/routers with which it communicated directly, and the direction in which to forward a message with each possible address. Since  $2^{32} = 4,294,967,296$  was somewhat too large to allow each host/router to store a table with a separate entry for each possible address, routing tables held entries forwarding all addresses in some numerical range in the same direction, and providing a default direction for addresses not in the table.

IP routing provided global addresses, whose meanings would not change according to the location from which they are used. This allowed Sally to keep track of Grampa’s candy store, and share it with Paul at will. It takes some thought to make sure that the routing could work efficiently, but real history shows that it did.

IP routing never required anyone to resolve an address into an explicitly written token presenting the route. Routes were implicit in the joint distributed actions of all of the hosts/routers. In effect, the resolution of an address to a route was interleaved with delivery according to the route. But routes were still there. Those who really wanted to write them down could generally get them from the `traceroute` program.

With IP addresses to pass around, Sally, Paul, and Grampa were all quite

happy, until the candy store's address changed. The address changed once because Grampa moved his server from space rented on a shared computer to his own computer, once because he moved the store to another state with lower business taxes, and several other times because network topology changed. Even though IP numerical addresses were not tied rigidly to routes, they had to be assigned so that the routing tables could keep information efficiently in terms of a small number of numerical subranges, forwarding all addresses within such a subrange in the same direction. Both the candy store's own mobility, and the requirement to maintain efficient routing through a change in network topology, prevented Grampa's initial IP address from sticking reliably to the candy store.

**DNS provided handles.** The designers of the Internet realized very early that effective use of the network required the ability to refer permanently and reliably to an agent whose address might change. So, they invented *domain names* of the form `bottomdomain.subdomain...topdomain` to serve as permanent handles. Network administration had authority to assign domain names, but it could delegate that authority hierarchically even more flexibly than the authority over IP addresses. Network administration maintained tables translating domains to addresses. But only the translation of top-level domains (`edu`, `com`, `org`, etc.), which appear at the right-hand end of complete domain names, needed to be available globally. Each top-level domain name could resolve to the address of a server keeping tables for that domain only, and so on down the hierarchy. Furthermore, each individual host could maintain its own local cache of recently or frequently used domain name translations, avoiding repeated appeal to the authoritative name servers.

With domain names, Grampa could acquire `ydnac.com` (to avoid collision with reality, a certain word is written backwards), and subdivide the business into `chocolate.ydnac.com`, `halvah.ydnac.com`, etc. at will. Sally could keep track of `ydnac.com`, and perhaps her favorite subdomains, use these domain names from any host on the network, communicate them to Paul at will. Furthermore, whenever his own mobility, or a change in network topology, caused the address of the candy store to change, Grampa could merely update the entry for `ydnac.com` in the appropriate authoritative table, and let it spread around to all of the local caches.

In the story so far, domain names have served as handles, providing permanent reference to an agent through changes of address. But Grampa, and all of his actual and potential customers, got a big bonus as well. The domain name `ydnac.com` served as a humanly-meaningful name. Sally and Paul found `ydnac.com` fairly easy to remember, type in their emails to one another, spell out over the telephone, and even to guess at before they knew of the candy store or whenever they lost their record of its name. Even had it been permanent, a numerical IP address would not have been so convenient.

**Conflict about names destroys handles.** Unfortunately, the very knowledge of the humanly-meaningful semantics associated with `ydnac.com`, giving

it value as a name, became incompatible with its function as a handle. A number of larger and more powerful candy companies, as well as the multinational corporation *C and Y*, all claimed rights to `ydnac.com`, and it was taken away from Grampa. The bonus value of `ydnac.com` as a name led to administrative action violating its use as a handle [10].

It is tempting to blame those nasty big companies for stomping on Grampa, but in fact, humanly meaningful names are inherently subject to forces beyond the authority of an individual handle owner. Human meaning, by definition, is determined by human communities. An individual may determine the human meaning of a name among a circle of friends who accept his influence. But it is fundamentally infeasible to keep human meaning in line with the arbitrary exercise of authority that we would like to invest in the owner of a handle. No matter how cleverly we assign names to start with, some change in society will ruin the scheme.

We can invest a lot of effort into improving the fairness with which conflict over domain names is resolved, and supply more and more domain names to trade off mnemonic quality against cost. But Grampa's ownership of `ydnac.com` is inherently a lucky and unsustainable windfall, which we cannot provide to everybody who wants it. Whatever contest we set up, only the winner of that contest may have it.

**Separate handles from names.** At this point, our story ceases to be history and becomes planning. If we cannot avoid conflict over network names, perhaps we can at least provide conflict-free permanent handles. By locating a system of handles without human meaning at a level of abstraction between names and addresses, we can provide Sally, Paul, and other lovers of grandfatherly candy with a permanent token by which they may reach Grampa as long as he cares to respond to it. We can't help Grampa and his customers hold on to the wonderful mnemonic value of `ydnac.com`, but they can't keep that anyway, and it's better to keep the handle than to fight a losing battle for the name and keep nothing. `ydnac.com` is inherently one of a very small number of short memorable names that naturally suggest online acquisition of sweets to all English-speaking Internet users, and we can't give everyone with an interest in candy full authority over it—we should expect it to go to the strongest contender.

Without `ydnac.com`, how will Grampa attract attention to his business? The same way he always did before his unsustainable domain-name windfall. Although Grampa's candy handle is opaque and unmemorable, friends and satisfied customers will pass copies of it around, using Web browsers and other software that will cater to users' needs to keep track of unmemorable handles. In a pinch, they will read it off to one another as, say, a 16-digit hexadecimal number (similar to a 16-digit credit card number). The handle will appear behind the scenes in pointers, such as the links in Web pages and their technical successors. People will keep personal directories that resolve "My favorite candy store" to Grampa's candy handle. Grampa will advertise in venues that match his natural clientele and advertising budget, and those venues will associate his handle *lo-*

*cally* with humanly meaningful words, pictures, and other tokens, since he can't afford to acquire and defend a global association. Aggressive indexing services, such as the current *Yahoo* and *Google*, will organize Grampa's candy handle into their own presentations of the informational structure of the Web and its technical successors. And, as long as global domain names last, Grampa can still choose to fight for `ydnac.com`, or make a strategic retreat to `grampasydnac.com`, or fall back further to `grampasydnacmainstreetintinytownusaearthsolarsystem.com`, or . . . . But I think that, in the long run, he will get more satisfaction from the alternatives.

## 6 Implementing Handles as Domain Names

Since DNS was designed largely to support network handles, no large software development or deployment is required to support an open network handle system. We merely need a nice sponsor to provide a handle domain within the current system of domain names, such as `handleroot.nicesponsor.org`, and provide random-looking numerical handles promiscuously to all who ask for them. For example, if we choose to present handles in base 16, a typical handle might look like `h0061A38F9A3540B9`. This handle may be implemented under DNS as `h0061A38F9A3540B9.handleroot.nicesponsor.org`. There is no particular need for the root of the handle system to be a top-level domain in DNS. Handle owners may define subdomains below their handles with complete freedom, as domain owners do today.

The main administrative burden on the sponsor of an open network handle system is the authentication of updates to the handle→address resolution tables. Because an individual handle has almost no intrinsic value beyond that created by the owner at the assigned address, there is no need to identify handle owners reliably with a person or institution in the real world. It is only important to minimize accidental and malicious capture of handles after they are assigned and used. To avoid being a party to disputes, the sponsor should minimize its contact with handle owners.

The precise design of the authentication mechanism should be allowed to vary. The sponsor may offer handle owners some choice to trade off authentication overhead against security, depending on owners' resources and the value of a particular handle. So, in general a handle might look like `h<t><p1>...<pn>`, where `<t>` indicates the type of authentication used for handle updates, and `<p1>...<pn>` are parameters of that method, including the unique handle key.

A complete design of ONHS will allow a user to

- create a new handle;
- (re)assign an address temporarily to a handle;
- delegate a handle temporarily to another handle, possibly with a different owner;
- cancel a handle irrevocably;

- transfer a handle irrevocably to another handle, usually with a different authentication key;
- mark a handle’s security irrevocably as compromised.

Typical scenarios using these operations to support creation of handle hierarchies, conversion to new authentication methods, and transfer of handles connected with sale of a business, are treated in [16].

## 7 Self-Assigned Cryptographic Handles

In order to ease the sponsor’s administrative burden and potential liability as much as possible, ONHS should ideally allow completely independent self-assignment of handles. Such self-assignment is feasible in principle, using public-key cryptographic signatures. Any user may create a public/private key pair, and assign herself a handle of the form `h1g5k<key>`, where “h” just reminds us that this is a handle (and satisfies DNS’ requirement to start with an alphabetic character), “1” indicates a public-key handle, “g” introduces a code for the encryption algorithm, “5” is the IANA standard number [4] for the RSA/SHA1 signature algorithm. Finally, `<key>` is some number of hexadecimal digits from the end of the SHA1 [5] hash of an RSA [12] public key. 16 digits will probably provide plenty of assurance against accidental or malicious collision of handles. We may allow individual handle owners to choose the tradeoff between length and security. Ignoring the fact that I haven’t used an actual RSA/SHA1 key, the whole embedding of a self-assigned handle in DNS might look like `h1g5k0061A38F9A3540B9.handleroot.nicesponsor.org`.

The security extensions to DNS (DNSSEC) [6] already implement almost all of the functions required to support self-assigned keys based on RSA/SHA1 [16].

In a system of self-assigned handles, there is no need to invest any authority over resolution in the operator of a name server. A user who queries a handle may authenticate the handle with the owner at the resolvent address. Since the identity of the public key is embedded in the handle itself, as long as the particular key and signature algorithm are not compromised, no intermediary can defraud a conscientious querier. The operator of a name server becomes a mere facilitator of the contact between querier and handle owner, with all responsibility for the authenticity of the contact left to the parties most concerned. The system provides a lot of flexibility for individual handle owners and queriers to contract with operators to provide a defined level of service, without affecting authenticity of communications. [16] describes potential attacks on a self-assigned ONHS in more detail.

### 7.1 Digression on Public-Key Cryptography

The embedding of (hash keys for) public cryptographic keys has occurred to a number of people. The *Open Privacy Initiative* uses it to create *nyms* as the basis for the accumulation of reputations [13]. Carl M. Ellison mentioned the use

of hashed public keys as self-assigned identifiers [8]. Ronald Rivest and Butler Lampson use the same basic idea in their Simple Distributed Security Infrastructure project [18]. Daniel J. Bernstein pointed out the value of hostnames that match public keys [3]. Scott Nelson explained the present application to ONHS in a private communication.

The development of the idea of signatures as objects is well worth considering as a tangent. At first, public-key cryptography appears to solve the digital signature problem. On reflection, we see that it reduces the digital signature problem to the key management problem. The secret key appears to be the harder one to manage. But it only needs to be kept by its owner, who has a substantial incentive to guard it well, and who may limit the number of secret keys that she manages. Management of public keys is often the bigger problem. Each key must be published, and somehow the user of the key must be assured of the connection between that key and a particular agent. The dominant idea to establish that connection is a *chain of trust* in which we all store public keys for a small number of globally trusted agents, who sign certificates of subagents, who sign certificates of more subagents, and so on. Such a chain is no stronger than its weakest link, and the establishment of satisfactory roots is already very difficult.

I know of no simple solution to the problem of secret-key management. But we may finesse much of the problem of public-key management by letting keys themselves be identities. In effect, public-key handles, nyms, and similar objects do not try to solve the problem of identification on the network. Rather, they serve as tools for constructing identities on the network. They link together all of our transactions with those identities in a reasonably reliable way, and allow us to develop a sense of confidence (or lack of it) from a sequence of transactions. We may use contacts outside of the network, and network communications with agents whom we already know and trust, to increase our confidence in the owner of a particular handle. But the handle itself does not provide any authentic identification deeper than “the owner of this handle.”

So, we may characterize the value of ONHS with a slogan: it provides continuity, not authenticity. Mere continuity appears to have modest value, but when available cheaply and reliably it may be the foundation on which we construct more valuable qualities, such as authenticity.

## 8 Call to Action

Problems with robust reference to resources on the Internet are widely recognized. They are currently being addressed by a variety of ambitious and potentially valuable projects, including the development of governance systems for DNS by ICANN, Tim Berners-Lee’s Semantic Web [2], and the INET working groups on Uniform Resource Identifiers (URI) [19] and Uniform Resource Names (URN) [20]. All of these projects are wrestling directly with human meaning in some form, and all have the potential to add a lot of value to network operations. But all of them are dealing with unsolved problems that preclude immediate

wide deployment.

The Permanent URL (PURL) service of OCLC [21] offers free handles in the URL name space, providing an immediate useful solution to the problem of permanent reference to documents and services that wander around the Web. They are assigning meaningful names on a first-come-first-served basis, which exposes them to the same sorts of dispute that plague DNS if their success attracts the wrong sort of attention. And the service only applies to URL addresses.

The time is ripe for an open network handle system, operating as a domain within DNS, to offer meaningless numerical handles freely and promiscuously to all who ask. Handles that resolve to IP numbers provide a particularly strategic level of service at the foundation of Internet addressing. Future expansion to higher-level addresses, including UDP addresses, URLs, and more, is valuable, but should not delay the implementation of resolution to IP numbers.

The cost of operating the name server will be comparable to the cost of operating a single DNS root server. If the service is successful, there will be a sufficient incentive for the community to provide additional servers to share the load.

If the quality of implementations of DNSSEC is deemed sufficient, the ONHS should support RSA/SHA1 self-assigned handles. For users who are not ready to deal with private-key management, there should be a password-authenticated proxy service to generate and hold private keys. It is also possible to provide a service assigning random handles with only password authentication. This should be the fall-back if DNSSEC implementation is not sufficiently advanced, but the sponsor of ONHS service should encourage migration to owner-managed keys as soon as possible, to avoid legal responsibility for keys.

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