Abstract

This document describes problems that a Validating DNS resolver, stub-resolver or application might run into within a non-compliant infrastructure. It outlines potential detection and mitigation techniques. The scope of the document is to create a shared approach to detect and overcome network issues that a DNSSEC software/system may face.

Status of This Memo

This Internet-Draft is submitted in full conformance with the provisions of BCP 78 and BCP 79.

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Table of Contents

1. Introduction .............................................. 3
   1.1. Notation ........................................... 3
   1.2. Background ........................................ 3
   1.3. Implementation experiences .......................... 4
       1.3.1. Test Zone Implementation ....................... 4
2. Goals ...................................................... 5
3. Detecting DNSSEC Non-Compliance ............................. 5
   3.1. Determining DNSSEC support in recursive resolvers ...... 6
       3.1.1. Supports UDP answers ............................ 6
       3.1.2. Supports TCP answers ............................ 6
       3.1.3. Supports EDNS0 .................................. 7
       3.1.4. Supports the DO bit .............................. 7
       3.1.5. Supports the AD bit DNSKEY algorithm 5 and 8 .... 7
       3.1.6. Returns RRsig for signed answer ................ 8
       3.1.7. Supports querying for DNSKEY records ......... 8
       3.1.8. Supports querying for DS records ................ 8
       3.1.9. Supports negative answers with NSEC records .... 9
       3.1.10. Supports negative answers with NSEC3 records ... 9
       3.1.11. Supports queries where DNAME records lead to an
               answer ........................................... 10
       3.1.12. Permissive DNSSEC .............................. 10
       3.1.13. Supports Unknown RRtypes ....................... 10
   3.2. Direct Network Queries ................................ 10
       3.2.1. Support for Remote UDP Over Port 53 ............. 11
       3.2.2. Support for Remote UDP With Fragmentation ...... 11
       3.2.3. Support for Outbound TCP Over Port 53 .......... 11
   3.3. Support for DNSKEY and DS combinations ................ 12
4. Aggregating The Results .................................... 12
   4.1. Resolver capability description ........................ 12
5. Roadblock Avoidance ...................................... 13
   5.1. Partial Resolver Usage ................................ 16
       5.1.1. Known Insecure Lookups ........................... 16
       5.1.2. Partial NSEC/NSEC3 Support .................... 16
6. Start-Up and Network Connectivity Issues ................... 16
   6.1. What To Do ......................................... 17
7. Quick Test ............................................... 17
   7.1. Test negative answers Algorithm 5 .................... 18
   7.2. Test Algorithm 8 .................................... 18
   7.3. Test Algorithm 13 ................................... 18
   7.4. Fails when DNSSEC does not validate .................. 18
8. Security Considerations ................................... 18
1. Introduction

This document describes problems observable during DNSSEC ([RFC4034], [RFC4035]) deployment that derive from non-compliant infrastructure. It poses potential detection and mitigation techniques.

1.1. Notation

In this document a "Host Validator" can either be a validating stub-resolver, such as library that an application has linked in, or a validating resolver daemon running on the same machine. It may or may not be trying to use upstream caching resolvers during its own resolution process; both cases are covered by the tests defined in this document.

The sub-variant of this is a "Validating Forwarding Resolver", which is a resolver that is configured to use upstream Resolvers when possible. A Validating Forward Resolver also needs to perform the tests outlined in this document before using an upstream recursive resolver.

The key words "MUST", "MUST NOT", "REQUIRED", "SHALL", "SHALL NOT", "SHOULD", "SHOULD NOT", "RECOMMENDED", "MAY", and "OPTIONAL" in this document are to be interpreted as described in [RFC2119].

1.2. Background

Deployment of DNSSEC validation is hampered by network components that make it difficult or sometimes impossible for validating resolvers to effectively obtain the DNSSEC data they need. This can occur for many different reasons including, but not limited to:

- Because recursive resolvers and DNS proxies [RFC5625] are not fully DNSSEC compliant
- Because resolvers are not DNSSEC aware
- Because "middle-boxes" actively block, modify and/or restrict outbound traffic to the DNS port (53) either UDP and/or TCP.
- In-path network components do not allow UDP fragments

This document talks about ways that a Host Validator can detect the state of the network it is attached to, and ways to hopefully circumvent the problems associated with the network defects it discovers. The tests described in this document may be performed on any validating resolver to detect and prevent problems. While these recommendations are mainly aimed at Host Validators it is prudent to perform these tests from regular Validating Resolvers before enabling just to make sure things work.

There are situations where a host can not talk directly to a Resolver; the tests below can not address how to overcome that, and inconsistent results can be seen in such cases. This can happen, for instance, when there are DNS proxies/forwarders between the user and the actual resolvers.

1.3. Implementation experiences

Multiple lessons learned from multiple implementations led to the development of this document, including (in alphabetical order) DNSSEC-Tools’ DNSSEC-Check, DNSSEC_Resolver_Check, dnssec-trigger, FCC_Grade.

Detecting lack of support for specified DNSKEY algorithms and DS digest algorithms is outside the scope of this document but the document provides information on how to do that, see sample test tool: https://github.com/ogud/DNSSEC_ALG_Check

This document does describe compliance tests for algorithms 5, 7 and 13 with DS digest algorithms 1 and 2.

1.3.1. Test Zone Implementation

In this document, the "test.example.com" domain is used to refer to DNS records which contain test records that have known DNSSEC properties associated with them. For example, the "badsign-a.test.example.com" domain is used below to refer to a DNS A record where the signatures published for it are invalid (i.e., they are "bad signatures" that should cause a validation failure).

At the time of this publication, the "test.dnssec-tools.org" domain implements all of these test records. Thus, it may be possible to replace "test.example.com" in this document with "test.dnssec-tools.org" when performing real-world tests.
2. Goals

This document is intended to show how a Host Validator can detect the capabilities of a recursive resolver, and work around any problems that could potentially affect DNSSEC resolution. This enables the Host Validator to make use of the caching functionality of the recursive resolver, which is desirable in that it decreases network traffic and improves response times.

A Host Validator has two choices: it can wait to determine that it has problems with a recursive resolver based on the results that it is getting from real-world queries issued to it, or it can proactively test for problems (Section 3) to build a work around list ahead of time (Section 5). There are pros and cons to both of these paths that are application specific, and this document does not attempt to provide guidance about whether proactive tests should or should not be used. Either way, DNSSEC roadblock avoidance techniques ought to be used when needed and if possible.

Note: Besides being useful for Host Validators, the same tests can be used for a recursive resolver to check if its upstream connections hinder DNSSEC validation.

3. Detecting DNSSEC Non-Compliance

A Host Validator may choose to determine early-on what roadblocks exist that may hamper its ability to perform DNSSEC look-ups. This section outlines tests that can be done to test certain features of the surrounding network.

These tests should be performed when a resolver determines its network infrastructure has changed. Certainly a resolver should perform these tests when first starting, but MAY also perform these tests when they’ve detected network changes (e.g. address changes, or network reattachment, etc).

NOTE: when performing these tests against an address, we make the following assumption about that address: It is a uni-cast address or an any-cast [RFC4786] cluster where all servers have identical configuration and connectivity.

NOTE: when performing these tests we also assume that the path is clear of "DNS interfering" middle-boxes, like firewalls, proxies, forwarders. Presence of such infrastructure can easily make a recursive resolver appear to be improperly performing. It is beyond the scope of the document as how to work around such interference, although the tests defined in this document may indicate when such misbehaving middle-ware is causing interference.
NOTE: This document specifies two sets of tests to perform: a comprehensive one and a fast one. The fast one will detect most common problems, thus if the fast one passes then the comprehensive MAY be considered passed as well.

3.1. Determining DNSSEC support in recursive resolvers

Ideally, a Host Validator can make use of the caching present in recursive resolvers. This section discusses the tests that a recursive resolver MUST pass in order to be fully usable as a DNS cache.

Unless stated otherwise, all of the following tests SHOULD have the Recursion Desired (RD) flag set when sending out a query and SHOULD be sent over UDP. Unless otherwise stated, the tests MUST NOT have the DO bit set or utilize any of the other DNSSEC related requirements, like EDNS0, unless otherwise specified. The tests are designed to check for support of one feature at a time.

3.1.1. Supports UDP answers

Purpose: This tests basic DNS over UDP functionality to a resolver.

Test: A DNS request is sent to the resolver under test for an A record for a known existing domain, such as good-a.test.example.com.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains an A record in the answer section. (The data itself does not need to be checked.)

Note: an implementation MAY choose to not perform the rest of the tests if this test fails, as it is highly unlikely that the resolver under test will pass any of the remaining tests.

3.1.2. Supports TCP answers

Purpose: This tests basic TCP functionality to a resolver.

Test: A DNS request is sent over TCP to the resolver under test for an A record for a known existing domain, such as good-a.test.example.com.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains an A record in the answer section. (The data itself does not need to be checked.)
3.1.3. Supports EDNS0

Purpose: Test whether a resolver properly supports the EDNS0 extension option.

Pre-requisite: "Supports UDP or TCP".

Test: Send a request to the resolver under test for an A record for a known existing domain, such as good-a.test.example.com, with an EDNS0 OPT record in the additional section.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains an EDNS0 option with version number 0.

3.1.4. Supports the DO bit

Purpose: This tests whether a resolver has minimal support of the DO bit.

Pre-requisite: "Supports EDNS0".

Test: Send a request to the resolver under test for an A record for a known existing domain such as good-a.test.example.com. Set the DO bit in the outgoing query.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains the DO bit set.

Note: this only tests that the resolver sets the DO bit in the response. Later tests will determine if the DO bit was actually made use of. Some resolvers successfully pass this test because they simply copy the unknown flags into the response. These resolvers will fail the later tests.

3.1.5. Supports the AD bit DNSKEY algorithm 5 and 8

Purpose: This tests whether the resolver is a validating resolver.

Pre-requisite: "Supports the DO bit".

Test: Send requests to the resolver under test for an A record for a known existing domain in a DNSSEC signed zone which is verifiable to a configured trust anchor, such as good-a.test.example.com using the root’s published DNSKEY or DS record as a trust anchor. Set the DO bit in the outgoing query. This test should be done twice, once for a zone that contains algorithm 5 (RSASHA1) and another for algorithm 8 (RSASHA256).
SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains the AD bit set for algorithm 5 (RSASHA1).

BONUS: The AD bit is set for a resolver that supports Algorithm 8 RSASHA256

3.1.6. Returns RRsig for signed answer

Purpose: This tests whether a resolver will properly return RRSIG records when the DO bit is set.

Pre-requisite: "Supports the DO bit."

Test: Send a request to the resolver under test for an A record for a known existing domain in a DNSSEC signed zone, such as good-a.test.example.com. Set the DO bit in the outgoing query.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains at least one RRSIG record.

3.1.7. Supports querying for DNSKEY records

Purpose: This tests whether a resolver can query for and receive a DNSKEY record from a signed zone.

Pre-requisite: "Supports the DO bit."

Test: Send a request to the resolver under test for an DNSKEY record which is known to exist in a signed zone, such as test.example.com/DNSKEY. Set the DO bit in the outgoing query.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains a DNSKEY record in the answer section.

Note: Some DNSKEY RRset’s are large and if the network path has problems with large answers this query may result in either false positive or false negative. In general the DNSKEY queried for should be small enough to fit into a 1220 byte answer, to avoid false negative result when TCP is disabled. However, querying many zones will result in answers greater than 1220 bytes so DNS over TCP MUST be available for DNSSEC use in general.

3.1.8. Supports querying for DS records

Purpose: This tests whether a resolver can query for and receive a DS record from a signed zone.

Pre-requisite: "Supports the DO bit."
Test: Send a request to the resolver under test for an DS record which is known to exist in a signed zone, such as test.example.com/DS. Set the DO bit in the outgoing query.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains a DS record in the answer section.

3.1.9. Supports negative answers with NSEC records

Purpose: This tests whether a resolver properly returns NSEC records for a non-existing domain in a DNSSEC signed zone.

Pre-requisite: "Supports the DO bit."

Test: Send a request to the resolver under test for an A record which is known to not exist in an NSEC signed zone, such as non-existent.test.example.com. Set the DO bit in the outgoing query.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains an NSEC record.

Note: The query issued in this test MUST be sent to a NSEC signed zone. Getting back appropriate NSEC3 records does not indicate a failure, but a bad test.

3.1.10. Supports negative answers with NSEC3 records

Purpose: This tests whether a resolver properly returns NSEC3 records ([RFC5155]) for a non-existing domain in a DNSSEC signed zone.

Pre-requisite: "Supports the DO bit."

Test: Send a request to the resolver under test for an A record which is known to be non-existent in a zone signed using NSEC3, such as non-existent.nsec3-ns.test.example.com. Set the DO bit in the outgoing query.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains an NSEC3 record.

Bonus: If the AD bit is set, this validator supports algorithm 7 RSASHA1-NSEC3-SHA1

Note: The query issued in this test MUST be sent to a NSEC3 signed zone. Getting back appropriate NSEC records does not indicate a failure, but a bad test.
3.1.11. Supports queries where DNAME records lead to an answer

Purpose: This tests whether a resolver can query for an A record in a zone with a known DNAME referral for the record’s parent.

Test: Send a request to the resolver under test for an A record which is known to exist in a signed zone within a DNAME referral child zone, such as good-a.dname-good-ns.test.example.com.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains a DNAME in the answer section. An RRSIG MUST also be received in the answer section that covers the DNAME record.

3.1.12. Permissive DNSSEC

Purpose: To see if a validating resolver is ignoring DNSSEC validation failures.

Pre-requisite: Supports the AD bit.

Test: ask for data from a broken DNSSEC delegation such as badsign-a.test.example.com.

SUCCESS: A reply was received with the Rcode set to SERVFAIL

3.1.13. Supports Unknown RRtypes

Purpose: Some DNS Resolvers/gateways only support some RRtypes. This causes problems for applications that need recently defined types.

Pre-requisite: "Supports UDP or TCP".

Test: Send a request for recently defined type or unknown type in the 20000-22000 range, that resolves to a server that will return an answer for all types, such as alltypes.example.com (a server today that supports this: alltypes.res.dnssecready.org)

SUCCESS: A DNS response was retrieved that contains the type requested in the answer section.

3.2. Direct Network Queries

If need be, a Host Validator may need to make direct queries to authoritative servers or known Open Recursive Resolvers in order to collect data. To do that, a number of key network features MUST be functional.
3.2.1. Support for Remote UDP Over Port 53

Purpose: This tests basic UDP functionality to outside the local network.

Test: A DNS request is sent to a known distant authoritative server for a record known to be within that server’s authoritative data. Example: send a query to the address of ns1.test.example.com for the good-a.test.example.com/A record.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains an A record in the answer section.

Note: an implementation can use the local resolvers for determining the address of the name server that is authoritative for the given zone. The recursive bit MAY be set for this request, but does not need to be.

3.2.2. Support for Remote UDP With Fragmentation

Purpose: This tests if the local network can receive fragmented UDP answers

Pre-requisite: Local UDP traffic > 1500 in size is possible

Test: A DNS request is sent over UDP to a known distant DNS address asking for a record that has answer larger than 2000 bytes. For example, send a query for the test.example.com/DNSKEY record with the DO bit set in the outgoing query.

Success: A DNS response was received that contains the large answer.

Note: A failure in getting large answers over UDP is not a serious problem if TCP is working.

3.2.3. Support for Outbound TCP Over Port 53

Purpose: This tests basic TCP functionality to outside the local network.

Test: A DNS request is sent over TCP to a known distant authoritative server for a record known to be within that server’s authoritative data. Example: send a query to the address of ns1.test.example.com for the good-a.test.example.com/A record.

SUCCESS: A DNS response was received that contains an A record in the answer section.
Note: an implementation can use the local resolvers for determining the address of the name server that is authoritative for the given zone. The recursive bit MAY be set for this request, but does not need to be.

3.3. Support for DNSKEY and DS combinations

Purpose: These tests can check what algorithm combinations are supported.

Pre-requisite: At least one of above tests has returned the AD bit set proving that the upstream is validating

Test: A DNS request is sent over UDP to the resolver under test for a known combination of the DS algorithm number (N) and DNSKEY algorithm number (M) of the example form ds-N.alg-M-nsec.test.example.com. Examples:

- ds-2.alg-13-nsec.test.example.com TXT
- ds-4.alg-13-nsec3.test.example.com TXT.

SUCCESS: a DNS response is received with the AD bit set and with a matching record type in the answer section.

Note: for algorithms 6 and 7, NSEC is not defined thus query for alg-M-nsec3 is required. Similarly NSEC3 is not defined for algorithms 1, 3 and 5. Furthermore algorithms 2, 4, 9, 11 do not currently have definitions for signed zones.

4. Aggregating The Results

Some conclusions can be drawn from the results of the above tests in an "aggregated" form. This section defines some labels to assign to a resolver under test given the results of the tests run against them.

4.1. Resolver capability description

This section will group and label certain common results

Resolvers are classified into following broad behaviors:

- **Validator**: The resolver passes all DNSSEC tests and had the AD bit appropriately set.

- **DNSSEC Aware**: The resolver passes all DNSSEC tests, but does not appropriately set the AD bit on answers, indicating it is not
validating. A Host Validator will function fine using this resolver as a forwarder.

Non-DNSSEC capable: The resolver is not DNSSEC aware and will make it hard for a Host Validator to operate behind it. It MAY be usable for querying for data that is in known insecure sections of the DNS tree.

Not a DNS Resolver: This is a improperly behaving resolver and not should not be used at all.

While it would be great if all resolvers fell cleanly into one of the broad categories above, that is not the case. For that reason it is necessary to augment the classification with more descriptive result, this is done by adding the word "Partial" in front of Validator/ DNSSEC Aware classifications, followed by sub-descriptors of what is not working.

Unknown: Failed the Unknown test
DNAME: Failed the DNAME test
NSEC3: Failed the NSEC3 test
TCP: TCP not available
SlowBig: UDP is size limited but TCP fallback works
NoBig: TCP not available and UDP is size limited
Permissive: Passes data known to fail validation

5. Roadblock Avoidance

The goal of this document is to tie the above tests and aggregations to avoidance practices; however the document does not specify exactly how to do that.

Once we have determined what level of support is available in the network, we can determine what must be done in order to effectively act as a validating resolver. This section discusses some of the options available given the results from the previous sections.

The general fallback approach can be described by the following sequence:
If the resolver is labeled as "Validator" or "DNSSEC aware":

   Send queries through this resolver and perform local validation on the results.

   If validation fails, try the next resolver

Else if the resolver is labeled "Not a DNS Resolver" or "Non-DNSSEC capable":

   Mark it as unusable and try next resolver

Else if no more resolvers are configured and if direct queries are supported:

   1. Try iterating from the Root

   2. If the answer is SECURE/BOGUS:
      Return the result of the iteration

   3. If the answer is INSECURE:
      Re-query "Non-DNSSEC capable" servers and return answers from them w/o the AD bit set to the client.

      This will increase the likelihood that split-view unsigned answers are found.

   Else:

      Return an error code and log a failure

While attempting resolution through a particular recursive name server with a particular transport method that worked, any transport-specific parameters MUST be remembered in order to avoid any unnecessary fallback attempts.

Transport-specific parameters MUST also be remembered for each authoritative name server that is queried while performing an iterative mode lookup.

Any transport settings that are remembered for a particular name server MUST be periodically refreshed; they should also be refreshed when an error is encountered as described below.

For a stub resolver, problems with the name server can manifest themselves under the following types of error conditions:
o No Response, error response or missing DNSSEC meta-data

o Illegal Response: An illegal response is received, which prevents the validator from fetching all necessary records required for constructing an authentication chain. This could result when referral loops are encountered, when any of the antecedent zone delegations are lame, when aliases are erroneously followed for certain RRtypes (such as SOA, DNSKEYs or DS records), or when resource records for certain types (e.g. DS) are returned from a zone that is not authoritative for such records.

o Bogus Response: A Bogus Response is received, when the cryptographic assertions in the authentication chain do not validate properly.

For each of the above error conditions a validator MAY adopt the following dynamic fallback technique, preferring a particular approach if it is known to work for a given name server or zone from previous attempts.

o No response, error response, or missing DNSSEC meta-data:
  * Re-try with different EDNS0 sizes (4096, 1492, None)
  * Re-try with TCP only
  * Perform an iterative query starting from the Root if the previous error was returned from a lookup that had recursion enabled.
  * Re-try using an alternative transport method, if this alternative method is known (configured) to be supported by the nameserver in question.

o Illegal Response

  * Perform an iterative query starting from the Root if the previous error was returned from a lookup that had recursion enabled.
  * Check if any of the antecedent zones up to the closest configured trust anchor are provably insecure.

o Bogus Response

  * Perform an iterative query starting from the Root if the previous error was returned from a lookup that had recursion enabled.
For each fallback technique, attempts to multiple potential name servers should be skewed such that the next name server is tried when the previous one encounters an error, a timeout is reached, or whichever is earlier.

The validator SHOULD remember, in its zone-specific fallback cache, any broken behavior identified for a particular zone for a duration of that zone’s SOA negative TTL.

The validator MAY place name servers that exhibit broken behavior into a blacklist, and bypass these name servers for all zones that they are authoritative for. The validator MUST time out entries in this name server blacklist periodically, where this interval could be set to be the same as the DNSSEC BAD cache default TTL.

5.1. Partial Resolver Usage

It may be possible to use Non-DNSSEC Capable caching resolvers in careful ways if maximum optimization is desired. This section describes some of the advanced techniques that could be used to use a resolver in at least a minimal way. Most of the time this would be unnecessary, except in the case where none of the resolvers are fully compliant and thus the choices would be to use them at least minimally or not at all (and no caching benefits would be available).

5.1.1. Known Insecure Lookups

If a resolver is Non-DNSSEC Capable but a section of the DNS tree has been determined to be Provably Insecure [RFC4035], then queries to this section of the tree MAY be sent through Non-DNSSEC Capable caching resolver.

5.1.2. Partial NSEC/NSEC3 Support

Resolvers that understand DNSSEC generally, and understand NSEC but not NSEC3 are partially usable. These resolvers generally also lack support for Unknown types, rendering them mostly useless and to be avoided.

6. Start-Up and Network Connectivity Issues

A number of scenarios will produce either short-term or long-term connectivity issues with respect to DNSSEC validation. Consider the following cases:

Time Synchronization: Time synchronization problems can occur when a device which has been off for a period of time and the clock is no longer in close synchronization with "real time" or when a
device always has clock set to the same time during start-up. This will cause problems when the device needs to resolve their source of time synchronization, such as "ntp.example.com".

Changing Network Properties: A newly established network connection may change state shortly after a HTTP-based pay-wall authentication system has been used. This especially common in hotel, airport and coffee-shop style networks, where DNSSEC, validation and even DNS are not functional until the user proceeds through a series of forced web pages used to enable their network. The tests in Section 3 will produce very different results before and after the network authorization has succeeded. APIs exist on many operating systems to detect initial network device status changes, such as right after DHCP has finished, but few (none?) exist to detect that authentication through a pay-wall has succeeded.

There are only two choices when situations like this happen:

Continue to perform DNSSEC processing, which will likely result in all DNS requests failing. This is the most secure route, but causes the most operational grief for users.

Turn off DNSSEC support until the network proves to be usable. This allows the user to continue using the network, at the sacrifice of security. It also allows for a denial of security-service attack if a man-in-the-middle can convince a device that DNSSEC is impossible.

6.1. What To Do

If the Host Validator detects that DNSSEC resolution is not possible it SHOULD log the event and/or SHOULD report an error to the user. In the case there is no user, then no reporting can be performed and thus the device MAY have a policy of action, like continue or fail. Until middle boxes allow DNSSEC protected information to traverse them consistently, software implementations may need to offer this choice to let users pick the security level they require. Note that continuing without DNSSEC protection in the absence of a notification or report could lead to situations where users assume a level of security that does not exist.

7. Quick Test

The quick tests defined below make the assumption that the questions to be asked are of a real resolver and the only real question is: "how complete is the DNSSEC support?". This quick test as been implemented in few programs developed at IETF hackthons at IETF-91.
and IETF-92. The programs use a common grading method. For each question that returns expected answer the resolver gets a point. If the AD bit is set as expected the resolver gets a second point.

7.1. Test negative answers Algorithm 5

Query: realy-doesnotexist.test.example.com. A
Answer: RCODE= NXDOMAIN, Empty Answer, Authority: NSEC proof

7.2. Test Algorithm 8

Query: alg-8-nsec3.test.example.com. SOA
Answer: RCODE= 0, Answer: SOA record

7.3. Test Algorithm 13

Query: alg-13-nsec.test.example.com. SOA
Answer: RCODE= 0, Answer: SOA record

7.4. Fails when DNSSEC does not validate

Query: dnssec-failed.test.example.com. SOA
Answer: RCODE= SERVFAIL, empty answer, and authority, AD=0

8. Security Considerations

This document discusses problems that may occur while deploying the DNSSEC protocol. It describes what may be possible to help detect and mitigate these problems. Following the outlined suggestions will result in a more secure DNSSEC operational environment than if DNSSEC was simply disabled.

9. IANA Considerations

No IANA actions are required.

10. Acknowledgments

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11. Normative References


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Ordering of RRSets in DNS Messages
draft-jabley-dnsop-ordered-answers-00

Abstract

The existing Domain Name System (DNS) specifications lack some clarity in their description of the process by which individual sections of a DNS message are constructed.

This document updates RFC 1034 and RFC 1035 to provide a clearer specification, consistent with deployed implementations.

Status of this Memo

This Internet-Draft is submitted in full conformance with the provisions of BCP 78 and BCP 79.

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Table of Contents

1. Terminology ................................................. 3
2. Introduction ................................................. 4
3. Updates to RFC 1034 ........................................... 5
4. Updates to RFC 1035 ........................................... 6
5. Security Considerations ...................................... 7
6. IANA Considerations .......................................... 8
7. Acknowledgements ............................................. 9
8. References .................................................... 10
   8.1. Normative References ................................... 10
   8.2. Informative References ................................... 10
Appendix A. Editorial Notes ...................................... 11
   A.1. Venue .................................................... 11
   A.2. Change History .......................................... 11
   A.2.1. draft-jabley-dnsop-ordered-answers-00 .................... 11
Author’s Address ............................................... 12
1. Terminology

This document uses terminology specific to the Domain Name System (DNS), descriptions of which can be found in [I-D.ietf-dnsop-dns-terminology].

In an exchange of DNS messages between two hosts, this document refers to the host sending a DNS request as the initiator, and the host sending a DNS response as the responder.

The key words "MUST", "MUST NOT", "REQUIRED", "SHALL", "SHALL NOT", "SHOULD", "SHOULD NOT", "RECOMMENDED", "MAY" and "OPTIONAL" in this document are to be interpreted as described in [RFC2119].
2. Introduction

[RFC1034] specifies an algorithm for use by responders when constructing response to a DNS QUERY. This algorithm in some cases can result in multiple RRSets being included in a single section of a DNS message, e.g. when handling CNAME resource records.

Many responder implementations have interpreted the direction to copy or store particular RRSets in the answer section of a DNS response to mean "append", treating each section as an ordered list of RRSets. Many initiators, in particular stub resolvers, are known to rely upon that interpretation when processing DNS responses received from responders.

Some DNS implementations employ algorithms in other sections that aim to optimise processing of responses received by initiators, e.g. NAPTR before SRV before A/AAAA in the additional section of a response. This behaviour has not been observed to cause any interoperability problems, and is explicitly permitted by this document.

This document updates [RFC1035] to specify that the answer section in a DNS message is an ordered list of RRSets, but that other sections may be constructed differently, and clarifies the directions provided in [RFC1034] to match the observed behaviour and expectations of deployed software.
3. Updates to RFC 1034

[RFC1034] specifies the algorithms by which sections of a DNS response are constructed by a responder. For example, step 3 of the algorithm described in [RFC1034] section 4.3.2 contains the direction "copy all RRs which match QTYPE into answer section".

In this case, and in all other cases where [RFC1034] specifies that particular RRSets be included in the answer section of a DNS message, the section MUST be treated as an ordered list of RRSets. When it is necessary to include new RRSets in a section of a DNS message that is under construction, those RRSets MUST be appended. The receiver of a DNS message MAY refuse to process DNS messages that have been constructed differently.

When constructing other sections of a DNS message, each section MAY be treated as a non-ordered list, and a receiver of a DNS message MUST NOT reject a DNS message on the basis of the order of RRSets in those sections.
4. Updates to RFC 1035

In a DNS message, the answer section MUST be considered to be an ordered set of RRSets; all other sections MUST be considered to be a non-ordered set.

DNS implementations MUST construct each section in a DNS response according to the algorithms specified in [RFC1034], as clarified in Section 3 of this document.
5. Security Considerations

    The recommendations contained in this document have no known security implications.
6. IANA Considerations

This document has no IANA actions.
7. Acknowledgements

The contributions of Mark Andrews and Paul Vixie to this document are acknowledged.
8. References

8.1. Normative References


8.2. Informative References

Appendix A. Editorial Notes

This section (and sub-sections) to be removed prior to publication.

A.1. Venue

An appropriate forum for discussion of this draft is the dnsop working group.

A.2. Change History

A.2.1. draft-jabley-dnsop-ordered-answers-00

Initial draft circulated for comment.
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Providing Minimal-Sized Responses to DNS Queries with QTYPE=ANY
draft-jabley-dnsop-refuse-any-01

Abstract

The Domain Name System (DNS) specifies a query type (QTYPE) "ANY". The operator of an authoritative DNS server might choose not to respond to such queries for reasons of local policy, motivated by security, performance or other reasons.

The DNS specification does not include specific guidance for the behaviour of DNS servers or clients in this situation. This document aims to provide such guidance.

Status of this Memo

This Internet-Draft is submitted in full conformance with the provisions of BCP 78 and BCP 79.

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Internet-Draft      Minimal Responses for ANY Queries       October 2015

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Table of Contents

1. Terminology ........................................... 3
2. Introduction ........................................... 4
3. Motivations ............................................ 5
4. General Approach ....................................... 6
5. Behaviour of DNS Responders ............................ 7
6. Behaviour of DNS Initiators ............................ 8
7. HINFO Considerations ................................... 9
8. Changes to RFC 1035 .................................... 10
9. Security Considerations ................................ 11
10. IANA Considerations ................................. 12
11. Acknowledgements ..................................... 13
12. References ............................................ 14
  12.1. Normative References ............................... 14
  12.2. Informative References ............................. 14
Appendix A. Editorial Notes ............................... 15
  A.1. Venue ............................................. 15
  A.2. Change History .................................... 15
    A.2.1. draft-jabley-dnsop-refuse-any-01 ................ 15
    A.2.2. draft-jabley-dnsop-refuse-any-00 ................ 15
Authors’ Addresses ....................................... 16
1. Terminology

This document uses terminology specific to the Domain Name System (DNS), descriptions of which can be found in [I-D.ietf-dnsop-dns-terminology].

In this document, "ANY Query" refers to a DNS query with QTYPE=ANY. An "ANY Response" is a response to such a query.

In an exchange of DNS messages between two hosts, this document refers to the host sending a DNS request as the initiator, and the host sending a DNS response as the responder.

The key words "MUST", "MUST NOT", "REQUIRED", "SHALL", "SHALL NOT", "SHOULD", "SHOULD NOT", "RECOMMENDED", "MAY" and "OPTIONAL" in this document are to be interpreted as described in [RFC2119].
2. Introduction

The Domain Name System (DNS) specifies a query type (QTYPE) "ANY". The operator of an authoritative DNS server might choose not to respond to such queries for reasons of local policy, motivated by security, performance or other reasons.

The DNS specification [RFC1034] [RFC1035] does not include specific guidance for the behaviour of DNS servers or clients in this situation. This document aims to provide such guidance.
3. Motivations

ANY queries are legitimately used for debugging and checking the state of a DNS server for a particular owner name. ANY queries are sometimes used as a attempt to reduce the number of queries needed to get information, e.g. to obtain MX, A and AAAA RRSets for a mail domain in a single query, although there is no documented guidance available for this use case and some implementations have been observed that appear not to function as perhaps their developers expected.

ANY queries are also frequently used to exploit the amplification potential of DNS servers using spoofed source addresses and UDP transport (see [RFC5358]). Having the ability to return small responses to such queries makes DNS servers less attractive amplifiers.

ANY queries are sometimes used to help mine authoritative-only DNS servers for zone data, since they return all RRSets for a particular owner name. A DNS zone maintainer might prefer not to send full ANY responses to reduce the potential for such information leaks.

Some authoritative-only DNS server implementations require additional processing in order to send a conventional ANY response, and avoiding that processing expense may be desirable.
4. General Approach

This proposal provides a mechanism for an authority server to signal that conventional ANY queries are not supported for a particular QNAME, and to do so in such a way that is both compatible with and triggers desirable behaviour by unmodified clients (e.g. DNS resolvers).

Alternative proposals for dealing with ANY queries have been discussed. One approach proposed using a new RCODE to signal that an authoritative server did not answer ANY queries in the standard way. This approach was found to have an undesirable effect on both resolvers and authoritative-only servers; resolvers receiving an unknown RCODE caused them to re-send the same query to all available authoritative servers, rather than suppress future such ANY queries for the same QNAME.

This proposal avoids that outcome by returning a non-empty RRSet in the ANY response, providing resolvers with something to cache and effectively suppressing repeat queries to the same or different authority servers.

This proposal specifies two different modes of behaviour by DNS responders, and operators are free to choose whichever mechanism best suits their environment.

1. A DNS responder may choose to search for an owner name that matches the QNAME and, if that name owns multiple RRs, return just one of them.

2. A DNS responder for whom a search for an owner name with an existing resource record is expensive may instead synthesise an HINFO resource record and return that instead. See Section 7 for discussion of the use of HINFO.
5. Behaviour of DNS Responders

A DNS responder which receives an ANY query MAY decline to provide a conventional response, and MAY instead send a response with a single RRSet in the answer section.

The RRSet returned in the answer section of the response MAY be a single RRSet owned by the name specified in the QNAME. Where multiple RRSets exist, the responder MAY choose a small one to reduce its amplification potential.

If there is no CNAME present at the owner name matching the QNAME, the resource record returned in the response MAY instead be synthesised, in which case a single HINFO resource record should be returned. The CPU field of the HINFO RDATA SHOULD be set to RFCXXXX [note to RFC Editor, replace with RFC number assigned to this document]. The OS field of the HINFO RDATA SHOULD be set to the null string to minimise the size of the response.

The TTL encoded for a synthesised RR SHOULD be chosen by the operator of the DNS responder to be large enough to suppress frequent subsequent ANY queries from the same initiator with the same QNAME, understanding that a TTL that is too long might make policy changes relating to ANY queries difficult to change in the future. The specific value used is hence a familiar balance when choosing TTLs for any RR in any zone, and should be specified according to local policy.

If the DNS query includes DO=1 and the QNAME corresponds to a zone that is known by the responder to be signed, a valid RRSIG for the RRSets in the answer section MUST be returned.

Except as described in this section, the DNS responder MUST follow the standard algorithms when constructing a response.
6. Behaviour of DNS Initiators

XXX consider whether separate text here is required depending on whether the initiator is a non-caching stub resolver or a caching recursive resolver.

A DNS initiator which sends a query with QTYPE=ANY and receives a response containing an HINFO, as described in Section 5, MAY cache the HINFO response in the normal way. Such cached HINFO resource records SHOULD be retained in the cache following normal caching semantics, as it would with any other response received from a DNS responder.

A DNS initiator MAY suppress queries with QTYPE=ANY in the event that the local cache contains a matching HINFO resource record with RDATA.CPU field, as described in Section 5.
7. HINFO Considerations

In the case where a zone that contains HINFO RRSets is served from an authority server that does not provide conventional ANY responses, it is possible that the HINFO RRSet in an ANY response, once cached by the initiator, might suppress subsequent queries from the same initiator with QTYPE=HINFO. The use of HINFO in this proposal would hence have effectively masked the HINFO RRSet present in the zone.

Authority-server operators who serve zones that rely upon conventional use of the HINFO RRTypemight sensibly choose not to deploy the mechanism described in this document.

The HINFO RRTypemight be rarely used in the DNS at the time of writing, based on observations made both at recursive servers and authority servers.
8. Changes to RFC 1035

It is important to note that returning a subset of available RRsets when processing an ANY query is legitimate and consistent with [RFC1035]; ANY does not mean ALL.

This document describes optional behaviour for both DNS initiators and responders, and implementation of the guidance provided by this document is OPTIONAL.
9. Security Considerations

Queries with QTYPE=ANY are frequently observed as part of reflection attacks, since a relatively small query can be used to elicit a large response; this is a desirable characteristic if the goal is to maximise the amplification potential of a DNS server as part of a volumetric attack. The ability of a DNS operator to suppress such responses on a particular server makes that server a less useful amplifier.

The optional behaviour described in this document to reduce the size of responses to queries with QTYPE=ANY is compatible with the use of DNSSEC by both initiator and responder.
10. IANA Considerations

This document has no IANA actions.
11. Acknowledgements

Evan Hunt and David Lawrence provided valuable observations.
12. References

12.1. Normative References


12.2. Informative References


Appendix A. Editorial Notes

This section (and sub-sections) to be removed prior to publication.

A.1. Venue

An appropriate forum for discussion of this draft is the dnsop working group.

A.2. Change History

A.2.1. draft-jabley-dnsop-refuse-any-01

- Make signing of RRSets in answers from signed zones mandatory.
- Document the option of returning an existing RRSet in place of a synthesised one.

A.2.2. draft-jabley-dnsop-refuse-any-00

Initial draft circulated for comment.
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Abstract

This document describes a method to transmit DNS messages over multiple UDP datagrams by fragmenting them at the application layer. The objective is to allow authoritative servers to successfully reply to DNS queries via UDP using multiple smaller datagrams, where larger datagrams may not pass through the network successfully.

Status of This Memo

This Internet-Draft is submitted in full conformance with the provisions of BCP 78 and BCP 79.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Background

[RFC1035] describes how DNS messages are to be transmitted over UDP. A DNS query message is transmitted using one UDP datagram from client to server, and a corresponding DNS reply message is transmitted using one UDP datagram from server to client.

The upper limit on the size of a DNS message that can be transmitted thus depends on the maximum size of the UDP datagram that can be transmitted successfully from the sender to the receiver. Typically any size limit only matters for DNS replies, as DNS queries are usually small.
As a UDP datagram is transmitted in a single IP PDU, in theory the size of a UDP datagram (including various lower internet layer headers) can be as large as 64 KiB. But practically, if the datagram size exceeds the path MTU, then the datagram will either be fragmented at the IP layer, or worse dropped, by a forwarder. In the case of IPv6, DNS packets are fragmented by the sender only. If a packet’s size exceeds the path MTU, a Packet Too Big (PTB) ICMP message will be received by sender without any clue to the sender to reply again with a smaller sized message, due to the stateless feature of DNS. In addition, IP-level fragmentation caused by large DNS response packet will introduce risk of cache poisoning [Fragment-Poisonous], in which the attacker can circumvent some defense mechanisms (like port, IP, and query randomization [RFC5452]).

As a result, a practical DNS payload size limitation is necessary. [RFC1035] limited DNS message UDP datagram lengths to a maximum of 512 bytes. Although EDNS(0) [RFC6891] allows an initiator to advertise the capability of receiving larger packets (up to 4096 bytes), it leads to fragmentation because practically most packets are limited to 1500 byte size due to host Ethernet interfaces, or 1280 byte size due to minimum IPv6 MTU in the IPv6 stack [RFC3542].

According to DNS specifications [RFC1035], if the DNS response message can not fit within the packet’s size limit, the response is truncated and the initiator will have to use TCP as a fallback to re-query to receive large response. However, not to mention the high setup cost introduced by TCP due to additional roundtrips, some firewalls and middle boxes even block TCP/53 which cause no responses to be received as well. It becomes a significant issue when the DNS response size inevitably increases with DNSSEC deployment.

In this memo, DNS message fragmentation attempts to work around middle box misbehavior by splitting a single DNS message across multiple UDP datagrams. Note that to avoid DNS amplification and reflection attacks, DNS cookies [I-D.ietf-dnsop-cookies] is a mandatory requirement when using DNS message fragments.

1.2. Motivation

It is not a new topic regarding large DNS packets (>512B) issue [I-D.ietf-dnsop-respsize], starting from introduction of IPv6, EDNS(0) [SAC016], and DNSSEC deployment [SAC035]. In current production networks, using DNSSEC with longer DNSKEYs (ZSK>1024B and KSK>2048B) will result in response packets no smaller than 1500B [I-D-DNS]. Especially during the KSK rollover process, responses to the query of DNSKEY RRset will be enlarged as they contain both the new and old KSK.
When possible, we should avoid dropped packets as this means the client must wait for a timeout, which incurs a high cost. For example, a validator behind a firewall suffers waiting till the timeout with no response, if the firewall drops large EDNS(0) packets and IP fragments. It may even cause disaster when the validator cannot receive response for new trust anchor KSK due to the extreme case of bad middle boxes which also drop TCP/53.

Since UDP requires fewer packets on the wire and less state on servers than TCP, in this memo we propose continuing to use UDP for transmission but fragment the larger DNS packets into smaller DNS packets at the application layer. We would like the fragments to easily go through middle boxes and avoid falling back to TCP.

2. DNS Message Fragmentation Method

2.1. Client Behavior

Clients supporting DNS message fragmentation add an EDNS option to their queries, which declares their support for this feature.

If a DNS reply is received that has been fragmented, it will consist of multiple DNS message fragments (each transmitted in a respective UDP packet), and every fragment contain an EDNS option which says how many total fragments there are, and the identifier of the fragment that the current packet represents. The client collects all of the fragments and uses them to reconstruct the full DNS message. Clients MUST maintain a timeout when waiting for the fragments to arrive.

Clients that support DNS message fragments MUST be able to reassemble fragments into a DNS message of any size, up to the maximum of 64KiB. The client MAY save information about what sizes of packets have been received from a given server. If saved, this information MUST have a limited duration.

Any DNSSEC validation is performed on the reassembled DNS message.

2.2. Server Behavior

Servers supporting DNS message fragmentation will look for the EDNS option which declares client support for the feature. If not present, the server MUST NOT use DNS message fragmentation. The server MUST check that DNS cookies are supported. [**FIXME**]

Implementation of the first request case, where no existing established cookie is available needs discussion; we want to avoid additional round-trips here. Shane: don’t cookies already handle this case?
The server prepares the response DNS message normally. If the message exceeds the maximum UDP payload size specified by the client, then it should fragment the message into multiple UDP datagrams.

Each fragment contains an identical DNS header with TC=1, possibly varying only in the section counts. Setting the TC flag in this way insures that clients which do not support DNS fragments can fallback to TCP transparently.

As many RR are included in each fragment as are possible without going over the desired size of the fragment. An EDNS option is added to every fragment, that includes both the fragment identifier and the total number of fragments.

The server needs to know how many total fragments there are to insert into each fragment. A simple approach would be to generate all fragments, and then count the total number at the end, and update the previously-generated fragments with the total number of fragments. Other techniques may be possible.

The server MUST limit the number of fragments that it uses in a reply. (See "Open Issues and Discussion" for remaining work.)

The server MUST NOT exceed the maximum fragment size requested by a client.

The server should use the following sizes for each fragment in the sequence in IPv4:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fragment ID</th>
<th>Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>min(512, client_specified_max)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>min(1460, client_specified_max)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>min(1480, client_specified_max)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>min(1480, client_specified_max)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rationale is that the first packet will always get through, since if a 512 octet packet doesn’t work, DNS cannot function. We then increase to sizes that are likely to get through. 1460 is the 1500 octet Ethernet packet size, minus the IP header overhead and enough space to support tunneled traffic. 1480 is the 1500 octet Ethernet packet size, minus the IP header overhead. [**FIXME**] Why not add 1240 here? Shane answers: 1280 is not any kind of limit in IPv4, as far as I know.
The server should use the following sizes for each packet in the sequence in IPv6:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fragment ID</th>
<th>Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>min(1240, client_specified_max)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>min(1420, client_specified_max)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>min(1460, client_specified_max)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>min(1460, client_specified_max)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Like with IPv4, the idea is that the first packet will always get through. In this case we use the IPv6-mandated 1280 octets, minus the IP header overhead. We then increase to 1420, which is the 1500 octet Ethernet packet size, minus the IP header overhead and enough space to support tunneled traffic. 1460 is the 1500 octet Ethernet packet size, minus the IP header overhead.

2.3. Other Notes

- The FRAGMENT option MUST NOT be present in DNS query messages, i.e., when QR=0. If a DNS implementation notices the FRAGMENT option in a DNS query message, it MUST ignore it.

- In DNS reply messages, the FRAGMENT option MUST NOT be present in datagrams when truncation is not done, i.e., when TC=0. If a DNS implementation notices the FRAGMENT option in a DNS reply message fragment datagram that is not truncated, i.e., when TC=0, it MUST drop all DNS reply message fragment datagrams received so far (awaiting assembly) for that message’s corresponding question tuple (server IP, port, message ID) without using any data from them. [**FIXME**] Dropping fragments to be received yet will be problematic for implementations, but dropping fragments received so far ought to be sufficient.

- More than one FRAGMENT option MUST NOT be present in a DNS reply message fragment datagram. If a DNS implementation notices multiple FRAGMENT options in a DNS reply message fragment datagram, it MUST drop all reply datagrams received for that message’s corresponding question tuple (server IP, port, message ID) without using any data from them. [**FIXME**] Dropping fragments to be received yet will be problematic for implementations, but dropping fragments received so far ought to be sufficient.
3. The ALLOW-FRAGMENTS EDNS(0) Option

ALLOW-FRAGMENTS is an EDNS(0) [RFC6891] option that a client uses to inform a server that it supports fragmented responses. [FIXME] Why not simply use the FRAGMENT option here with count=0, identifier=ignored and avoid using another option code? Shane: There are no shortage of options. Plus, if we want to include a maximum fragment size value in the ALLOW-FRAGMENTS then we really need a separate option.

3.1. Wire Format

TBD.

3.2. Option Fields

3.2.1. Maximum Fragment Size

The Maximum Fragment Size field is represented as an unsigned 16-bit integer. This is the maximum size used by any given fragment the server returns. [FIXME] This field’s purpose has to be explained. Shane: discussed in the discussion section now.

3.3. Presentation Format

As with other EDNS(0) options, the ALLOW-FRAGMENTS option does not have a presentation format.

4. The FRAGMENT EDNS(0) Option

FRAGMENT is an EDNS(0) [RFC6891] option that assists a client in gathering the various fragments of a DNS message from multiple UDP datagrams. It is described in a previous section. Here, its syntax is provided.

4.1. Wire Format

TBD.

4.2. Option Fields

4.2.1. Fragment Identifier

The Fragment Identifier field is represented as an unsigned 8-bit integer. The first fragment is identified as 1. Values in the range [1,255] can be used to identify the various fragments. Value 0 is used for signalling purposes.
4.2.2. Fragment Count

The Fragment Count field is represented as an unsigned 8-bit integer. It contains the number of fragments in the range \([1,255]\) that make up the DNS message. Value 0 is used for signalling purposes.

4.3. Presentation Format

As with other EDNS(0) options, the FRAGMENT option does not have a presentation format.

5. Network Considerations

5.1. Background

TCP-based application protocols co-exist well with competing traffic flows in the internet due to congestion control methods such as in [RFC5681] that are present in TCP implementations.

UDP-based application protocols have no restrictions in lower layers to stop them from flooding datagrams into a network and causing congestion. So applications that use UDP have to check themselves from causing congestion so that their traffic is not disruptive.

In the case of [RFC1035], only one reply UDP datagram was sent per request UDP datagram, and so the lock-step flow control automatically ensured that UDP DNS traffic didn’t lead to congestion. When DNS clients didn’t hear back from the server, and had to retransmit the question, they typically paced themselves by using methods such as a retransmission timer based on a smoothed round-trip time between client and server.

Due to the message fragmentation described in this document, when a DNS query causes multiple DNS reply datagrams to be sent back to the client, there is a risk that without effective control of flow, DNS traffic could cause problems to competing flows along the network path.

Because UDP does not guarantee delivery of datagrams, there is a possibility that one or more fragments of a DNS message will be lost during transfer. This is especially a problem on some wireless networks where a rate of datagrams can continually be lost due to interference and other environmental factors. With larger numbers of message fragments, the probability of fragment loss increases.
5.2. Implementation Requirements

TBD.

6. Open Issues and Discussion

1. Resolver behavior

We need some more discussion of resolver behavior in general, at least to the point of making things clear to an implementor.

2. The use of DNS fragments mechanism

Is this mechanism designed for all DNS transactions, or only used in some event or special cases like a key rollover process? If the mechanism is designed for general DNS transactions, when is it triggered and how is it integrated with existing patterns?

One option is that DNS fragments mechanism works as a backup with EDNS, and triggered only when a larger packet fails in the middle. It will be orthogonal with TCP which provide additional context that TC bit will be used in server side.

3. What is the size of fragments?

Generally speaking the number of fragment increases if fragment size is small (512 bytes, or other empirical value), which makes the mechanism less efficient. If the size can changed dynamically according to negotiation or some detection, it will introduce more cost and round trip time.

4. What happens if a client that does not support DNS fragments receives an out-of-order or partial fragment?

We need to consider what happens when a client that does not support DNS fragments gets a partial response, possibly even out of order.

5. We should explain risk of congestion, packet loss, etc. when introducing the limit on the number of fragments. We might also set specific upper limits for number of fragments.
6. EDNS buffer sizes vs. maximum fragmentation sizes

Mukund: We need further discussion about the sizes; also an upper limit for each *fragment* has to be the client’s UDP payload size as it is the driver and it alone knows the ultimate success/failure of message delivery. So if it sets a maximum payload size of 1200, there’s no point in trying 1460. Clients that support DNS message fragments (and signal support using the EDNS option) should adapt their UDP payload size discovery algorithm to work with this feature, as the following splits on sizes will assist PMTU discovery.

Shane: I think we need to separate the EDNS maximum UDP payload size from the maximum fragment size. I think that it is quite likely that (for example) we will want to restrict each fragment to 1480 bytes, but that the EDNS buffer size might remain at 4 kibibytes.

7. TSIG should be addressed

We need to document how to handle TSIG, even though this is not likely to be a real-world issue. Probably each fragment should be TSIG signed, as this makes it harder for an attacker to inject bogus packets that a client will have to process.

8. RR splitting should be addressed

We need to document whether or not RR can be split. Probably it makes sense not to allow this, although this will reduce the effectiveness of the fragmentation, as the units that can be packed into each fragment will be bigger.

9. We need to document that some messages may not be possible to split.

Some messages may be too large to split. A trivial example is a TXT record that is larger than the buffer size. Probably the best behavior here is to truncate.

10. DNSSEC checks
11. Name compression

Name compression should be done on each fragment separately. This needs to be documented.

12. OPT-RR

Some OPT-RR seem to be oriented at the entire message, others make more sense per packet. This needs to be sorted out. Also we need to investigate the edge case where fragments have conflicting options (Mukund thinks that we can copy the approach in the EDNS specification and use the same rules about conflicting OPT-RR that it uses.)

7. Security Considerations

To avoid DNS amplification or reflection attacks, DNS cookies [I-D.ietf-dnsop-cookies] must be used. The DNS cookie EDNS option is identical in all fragments that make up a DNS message. The duplication of the same cookie values in all fragments that make up the message is not expected to introduce a security weakness in the case of off-path attacks.

8. IANA Considerations

The ALLOW-FRAGMENTS and FRAGMENT EDNS(0) options require option codes to be assigned for them.

9. Acknowledgements

Thanks to Stephen Morris, JINMEI Tatuya, Paul Vixie, Mark Andrews, and David Dragon for reviewing a pre-draft proposal and providing support, comments and suggestions.

10. References

[Fragment-Poisonous]
Appendix A. Change History (to be removed before publication)

- draft-muks-dns-message-fragments-00
  Initial draft.
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DNS message checksums
draft-muks-dnsop-dns-message-checksums-01

Abstract

This document describes a method for a client to be able to verify that IP-layer PDU fragments of a UDP DNS message have not been spoofed by an off-path attacker.

Status of This Memo

This Internet-Draft is submitted in full conformance with the provisions of BCP 78 and BCP 79.

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1. Introduction

[RFC1035] describes how DNS messages are to be transmitted over UDP. A DNS query message is transmitted using one UDP datagram from client to server, and a corresponding DNS reply message is transmitted using one UDP datagram from server to client.

As a UDP datagram is transmitted in a single IP PDU, in theory the size of a UDP datagram (including various lower internet layer headers) can be as large as 64 KiB. But practically, if the datagram size exceeds the path MTU, then the datagram will either be fragmented at the IP layer, or dropped by a forwarder. In the case of IPv4, DNS datagrams may be fragmented by a sender or a forwarder. In the case of IPv6, DNS datagrams are fragmented by the sender only.

IP-layer fragmentation for large DNS response datagrams introduces risk of cache poisoning by off-path attackers [Fragment-Poisonous] in which an attacker can circumvent some defense mechanisms like source port and query ID randomization [RFC5452].

This memo introduces the concept of a DNS message checksum which may be used to stop the effects of such off-path attacks.

The key words "MUST", "MUST NOT", "REQUIRED", "SHALL", "SHALL NOT", "SHOULD", "SHOULD NOT", "RECOMMENDED", "MAY", and "OPTIONAL" in this document are to be interpreted as described in [RFC2119].
2. DNS message checksum method

Clients supporting DNS message checksums add an EDNS option to their queries, which signals their support for this feature.

The CHECKSUM EDNS option contains 3 fields: NONCE, ALGORITHM, and DIGEST. These fields are described in Section 3.

It is OPTIONAL for a client to add a CHECKSUM EDNS option to DNS query messages. If it adds such an option, it MUST set the NONCE field to a random value. The ALGORITHM field MUST be set to 0 and the DIGEST field MUST be left empty. The entire NONCE field MUST be randomly generated (i.e., in no predictable sequence and the random value must fill all bits of the field) for each query for which the client uses a CHECKSUM EDNS option. The client is expected to remember the per-query NONCE field’s value to be used in verifying the reply to this query message.

A client MUST NOT send multiple DNS query messages with the NONCE set to a fixed unchanging value. Instead, it must not send the option at all.

The server SHOULD add a CHECKSUM EDNS option in the reply message to a corresponding query that arrived with this option present. The NONCE field MUST be copied verbatim from the query message to the corresponding reply message. A checksum is computed over the DNS reply message as described in Section 4 and the ALGORITHM and DIGEST fields MUST be set using the resulting checksum as given in Section 3. The server is at liberty to choose any checksum algorithm it wants to from the list of supported algorithms given in Appendix A.

If a server receives a query containing a CHECKSUM EDNS option with an ALGORITHM field that is not set to 0, it MUST ignore this option and process the request as if there were no CHECKSUM EDNS option in the query.

When a client receives a reply message for which it sent a CHECKSUM EDNS option in the corresponding query, it SHOULD look for the presence of the CHECKSUM EDNS option in the reply.

The client may handle the lack of a CHECKSUM EDNS option in the reply as it chooses to. It is currently not specified, but may be updated in the future.

If a client receives a reply containing a CHECKSUM EDNS option with an unknown ALGORITHM value, it MUST ignore this option and handle the reply as if there were no CHECKSUM EDNS option in it. From the
previous paragraph, it follows that the client behavior in this case is also currently not specified, but may be updated in the future.

If a CHECKSUM EDNS option is present in the reply, the client SHOULD first check and ensure that the NONCE field contains the same nonce value that was sent in the corresponding query message. If the value in the NONCE field is different, the reply message MUST be discarded. Afterwards, the client SHOULD proceed to compute a checksum over the reply message as described in Section 4 using the checksum algorithm in the ALGORITHM field. It SHOULD then compare the checksum value with the value that was received in the DIGEST field for equality. If they are not equal, the reply message MUST be discarded. If they are equal, the reply message can be used normally as the client intends to use it.

3. The CHECKSUM EDNS(0) option

CHECKSUM is an EDNS(0) [RFC6891] option that is used to transmit a digest of a DNS message in replies. Client and server behavior are described in Section 2. In this section, the option’s syntax is provided.

3.1. Wire format

The following describes the wire format of the OPTION-DATA field [RFC6891] of the CHECKSUM EDNS option. All CHECKSUM option fields must be represented in network byte order.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option field</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Field size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NONCE</td>
<td>unsigned integer</td>
<td>64 bits (8 octets)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALGORITHM</td>
<td>unsigned integer</td>
<td>8 bits (1 octet)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIGEST</td>
<td>byte array</td>
<td>Variable length</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Option fields

3.2.1. NONCE

The NONCE field is represented as an unsigned 64-bit integer in network byte order. It MUST be randomly computed for each query message which a client sends out, and is copied verbatim from the query to the corresponding reply DNS message by the server.
3.2.2.  ALGORITHM

The ALGORITHM field is represented as an unsigned 8-bit integer in network byte order. In query messages, it MUST be set to 0. In reply messages, it MUST contain the numeric value of the algorithm used to compute the DIGEST field. A list of algorithms and their values is given in Appendix A.

3.2.3.  DIGEST

The DIGEST field is represented as a variable-length sequence of octets present after the NONCE and ALGORITHM fields. Its size is implicitly computed from the value in the OPTION-LENGTH field [RFC6891] for the CHECKSUM EDNS option minus the size of the NONCE and ALGORITHM fields. In query messages, it MUST be empty. In reply messages, it MUST contain the digest of the reply message which is computed as described in Section 4.

3.3.  Presentation format

As with other EDNS(0) options, the CHECKSUM EDNS option does not have a presentation format.

4.  Checksum computation

To generate the checksum digest to be placed in the DIGEST field, first the entire DNS message must be prepared (rendered) along with the CHECKSUM option embedded in it to the point that it is ready to be sent out on the wire. In this CHECKSUM option, initially the DIGEST field must be filled with zero values and its size must be reserved equal to the size expected for the digest from the checksum algorithm intended to be used. The NONCE field MUST be set to the value of the nonce from the query DNS message. The ALGORITHM field MUST be set to the checksum algorithm intended to be used. After this, the whole message contents (from the start of the DNS message header onwards) must be input to the checksum algorithm and the calculated checksum must be patched into the DIGEST field, space for which was reserved before.

To verify the checksum digest from a DNS message that was received, first the DIGEST field is copied to a temporary location and the DIGEST field in the message is patched with zero values. After this, the whole message contents (from the start of the DNS message header onwards) must be input to the checksum algorithm specified in the ALGORITHM field. The calculated checksum must be compared for equality with the checksum originally received in the DIGEST field, the content of which was earlier saved to a temporary location. If both are equal, the checksum matches.
5. Security considerations

The methods in this memo are designed to thwart off-path spoofing attacks which may lead to cache-poisoning, including the specific case when IP-layer PDU fragmentation occurs.

The CHECKSUM EDNS option is not designed to offer any protection against on-path attackers. Very little can be done without using shared-secret or public key cryptography for this case.

Checksum computation may increase resource usage on servers and clients. It is thus desirable to use fast checksum algorithms that meet the requirements of Appendix A.

The entropy source used for generating random values for use in the NONCE field may be chosen similarly to provide ample security to verify a short-lived DNS message.

The NONCE field effectively extends the ID field [RFC1035] in the DNS message header.

As a side-effect of using checksums, resolver cache poisoning attacks are made more difficult due to the presence of the NONCE field.

There is a risk of downgrade attack when the IP fragment containing the CHECKSUM EDNS option is spoofed, deleting this option. This risk would exist until the presence of the CHECKSUM option in replies is made mandatory when a corresponding option is sent in the query. This can be made so right from the start, or after an adoption period. At that time, it may be stated that a client that does not receive a CHECKSUM EDNS option in a reply would discard the reply message and retry the query using TCP.

The CHECKSUM EDNS option cannot prevent some kinds of attack such as response and NS blocking and NS pinning as described in [Fragment-Poisonous].

6. IANA considerations

This document defines a new EDNS(0) option, titled CHECKSUM (see Section 3), assigned a value of <TBD> from the DNS EDNS0 Option Codes (OPT) space [to be removed upon publication: https://www.iana.org/assignments/dns-parameters/dns-parameters.xhtml#dns-parameters-11].
The CHECKSUM EDNS(0) option also defines an 8-bit ALGORITHM field, for which IANA is to create and maintain a new sub-registry entitled "DNS message checksum algorithms" under the Domain Name System (DNS) Parameters. Initial values for the DNS message checksum algorithms registry are given in Appendix A; future assignments are to be made through Expert Review as in BCP 26 [RFC5226]. Assignments consist of a DNS message checksum algorithm name and its associated value.

7. Acknowledgements

Tomek Mrugalski offered tips on draft naming and upload process. Joe Abley reviewed the draft and pointed out some nits that were not detected automatically. Ray Bellis, Robert Edmonds, Tony Finch, Paul Hoffman, Evan Hunt, Paul Vixie, and Paul Wouters reviewed drafts and sent in comments and opinions. Mark Andrews mentioned an alternate method at the same time (on an internal mailing list) to address spoofing issues that provided further support to the idea that CHECKSUM was worth pursuing.

8. References

8.1. Normative references


8.2. Informative references


Appendix A. Checksum algorithms

The ALGORITHM field as specified in Section 3 identifies the checksum algorithm that is used to compute the checksum digest for a DNS message.

The following table lists the currently defined checksum algorithm types. Candidate checksum algorithms that are chosen for inclusion in this list MUST be one-way cryptographic hash functions that may be used by a client to securely verify a short-lived DNS message with a maximum message size constraint of 64 KiB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value(s)</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Status, Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>EMPTY</td>
<td>0 octets</td>
<td>Empty digest (query only)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SHA-1</td>
<td>20 octets</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-239</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unassigned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>240-254</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reserved for experimental use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>255</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reserved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B. Change history (to be removed before publication)

- draft-muks-dnsop-dns-message-checksums-01
  Reduced NONCE field to 8 bytes. Reduced ALGORITHM field to 1 byte. Added note about risk of downgrade attack. Expanded IANA considerations section and algorithms appendix. Described behaviors further. Added notes on picking a suitable checksum algorithm. Updated cross references, language and grammar.

- draft-muks-dnsop-dns-message-checksums-00
Initial draft (renamed version). Removed the NONCE-COPY field as it is no longer necessary. Doubled the size of the NONCE field to 128 bits. Added sample checksum algorithms. Fixed incorrect reference, language and grammar.

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Abstract

RFC7344 specifies how DNS trust can be maintained in-band between parent and child. There are two features missing in that specification: initial trust setup and removal of trust anchor. This document addresses both these omissions.

Changing a domain’s DNSSEC status can be a complicated matter involving many parties. Some of these parties, such as the DNS operator, might not even be known by all organisations involved. The inability to enable or disable DNSSEC via in-band signalling is seen as a problem or liability that prevents DNSSEC adoption at large scale. This document adds a method for in-band signalling of DNSSEC status changes.

Initial trust is considered a much harder problem, this document will seek to clarify and simplify the initial acceptance policy.

Status of This Memo

This Internet-Draft is submitted in full conformance with the provisions of BCP 78 and BCP 79.

Internet-Drafts are working documents of the Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF). Note that other groups may also distribute working documents as Internet-Drafts. The list of current Internet-Drafts is at http://datatracker.ietf.org/drafts/current/.

Internet-Drafts are draft documents valid for a maximum of six months and may be updated, replaced, or obsoleted by other documents at any time. It is inappropriate to use Internet-Drafts as reference material or to cite them other than as "work in progress."

This Internet-Draft will expire on April 17, 2016.
1. Introduction
CDS/CDNSKEY [RFC7344] records are used to signal changes in trust anchors, this is a great way to maintain delegations when the DNS operator has no other way to inform the parent that changes are needed. RFC7344 contains no "delete" signal for the child to tell the parent that it wants to change the DNSSEC security of its domain.

[RFC7344] punted the Initial Trust establishment question and left it to each parent to come up with an acceptance policy.
1.1. Removing DS

This document introduces the delete option for both CDS and CDNSKEY. to allow a child to signal the parent to turn off DNSSEC. When a domain is moved from one DNS operator to another one, sometimes it is necessary to turn off DNSSEC to facilitate the change of DNS operator. Common scenarios include:

1. moving from a DNSSEC operator to a non-DNSSEC capable one or one that does not support the same algorithms as the old one.

2. moving to one that cannot/does-not-want to do a proper DNSSEC rollover.

3. the domain holder does not want DNSSEC.

4. when moving between two DNS operators that use disjoint sets of algorithms to sign the zone, thus algorithm roll can not be performed.

Whatever the reason, the lack of a "remove my DNSSEC" option is turning into the latest excuse as why DNSSEC cannot be deployed.

Turning off DNSSEC reduces the security of the domain and thus should only be done carefully, and that decision should be fully under the child domain’s control.

1.2. Introducing DS

The converse issue is how does a child domain instruct the parent it wants to have a DS record added. This problem is not as hard as many have assumed, given a few simplifying assumptions. This document makes the assumption that there are reasonable policies that can be applied and will allow automation of trust introduction.

Not being able to enable trust via an easily automated mechanism is hindering DNSSEC at scale by anyone that does not have automated access to its parent’s "registry".

1.3. Notation

When this document uses the word CDS it implies that the same applies to CDNSKEY and vice versa, the only difference between the two records is how information is represented.

When the document uses the word "parent" it implies an entity that is authorized to insert into parent zone information about this child domain. Which entity this is exactly does not matter. It could be...
the Registrar or Reseller that the child domain was purchased from. It could be the Registry that the domain is registered in when allowed. It could be some other entity when the RRR framework is not used.

We use RRR to mean Registry Registrar Reseller in the context of DNS domain markets.

1.4. Terminology

The key words "MUST", "MUST NOT", "REQUIRED", "SHALL", "SHALL NOT", "SHOULD", "SHOULD NOT", "RECOMMENDED", "MAY", and "OPTIONAL" in this document are to be interpreted as described in [RFC2119].

2. The Three Uses of CDS

In general there are three operations that a domain wants to influence on its parent:

1 Roll over KSK, this means updating the DS records in the parent to reflect the new set of KSK’s at the child. This could be an ADD operation, a Delete operation on one or more records while keeping at least one DS RR, or a full Replace operation

2 Turn off DNSSEC validation, i.e. delete all the DS records

3 Enable DNSSEC validation, i.e. place initial DS RRset in the parent.

Operation 1 is covered in [RFC7344], operations 2 and 3 are defined in this document. In many people’s minds, those two later operations carry more risk than the first one. This document argues that 2 is identical to 1 and the final one is different (but not that different).

2.1. The meaning of CDS?

The fundamental question is what is the semantic meaning of publishing a CDS RRset in a zone? We offer the following interpretation:

“Publishing a CDS or CDNSKEY record signifies to the parent that the child is ready for the corresponding DS records to be synchronized. Every parent or parental agent should have an acceptance policy of these records for the three different use cases involved: Initial DS publication, Key rollover, and Returning to Insecure.”
In short, the CDS RRset is an instruction to the parent to modify DS RRset if the CDS and DS RRsets differ. The acceptance policy for CDS in the rollover case is "seeing" according to [RFC7344]. The acceptance policy in the Delete case is just seeing a CDS RRset with the delete operation specified in this document.

3. Enabling DNSSEC via CDS/CDNSKEY

There are number of different models for managing initial trust, but in the general case, the child wants to enable global validation for the future. Thus during the period from the time the child publishes the CDS until the corresponding DS is published is the period that DNS answers for the child could be forged. The goal is to keep this period as short as possible.

One important case is how a 3rd party DNS operator can upload its DNSSEC information to the parent, so the parent can publish a DS record for the child. In this case there is a possibility of setting up some kind of authentication mechanism and submission mechanism that is outside the scope of this document.

Below are some policies that parents can use. These policies assume that the notifications are can be authenticated and/or identified.

3.1. Accept policy via authenticated channel

In this case the parent is notified via UI/API that CDS exists, the parent retrieves the CDS and inserts the DS record as requested, if the request comes over an authenticated channel.

3.2. Accept with extra checks

In this case the parent checks that the source of the notification is allowed to request the DS insertion. The checks could include whether this is a trusted entity, whether the nameservers correspond to the requestor, whether there have been any changes in registration in the last few days, etc, or the parent can send a notification requesting an confirmation.

The end result is that the CDS is accepted at the end of the checks or when the out-of-band confirmation is received.

3.3. Accept after delay

In this case, if the parent deems the request valid, it starts monitoring the CDS records at the child nameservers over period of time to make sure nothing changes. After number of checks,
preferably from different vantage points, the parent accepts the CDS records as a valid signal to update.

3.4. Accept with challenge

In this case the parent instructs the requestor to insert some record into the child domain to prove it has the ability to do so (i.e., it is the operator of the zone).

4. DNSSEC Delete Algorithm

The DNSKEY algorithm registry contains two reserved values: 0 and 255 [RFC4034]. The CERT record [RFC4398] defines the value 0 to mean the algorithm in the CERT record is not defined in DNSSEC.

[rfc-editor remove before publication] For this reason, using the value 0 in CDS/CDNSKEY delete operations is potentially problematic, but we propose that here anyway as the risk is minimal. The alternative is to reserve one DNSSEC algorithm number for this purpose. [rfc-editor end remove]

Right now, no DNSSEC validator understands algorithm 0 as a valid signature algorithm, thus if the validator sees a DNSKEY or DS record with this value, it will treat it as unknown. Accordingly, the zone is treated as unsigned unless there are other algorithms present.

In the context of CDS and CDNSKEY records, DNSSEC algorithm 0 is defined and means the entire DS set MUST be removed. The contents of the records MUST contain only the fixed fields as show below.

1. CDS 0 0 0
2. CDNSKEY 0 3 0

There is no keying material payload in the records, just the command to delete all DS records. This record is signed in the same way as CDS/CDNSKEY is signed.

Strictly speaking the CDS record could be "CDS X 0 X" as only the DNSKEY algorithm is what signals the delete operation, but for clarity the "0 0 0" notation is mandated, this is not a definition of DS Digest algorithm 0. Same argument applies to "CDNSKEY 0 3 0".

Once the parent has verified the CDS/CDNSKEY record and it has passed other acceptance tests, the DS record MUST be removed. At this point the child can start the process of turning DNSSEC off.
5. Security considerations

This document is about avoiding validation failures when a domain moves from one DNS operator to another one. Turing off DNSSEC reduces the security of the domain and thus should only be done as a last resort.

In most cases it is preferable that operators collaborate on the rollover by doing a KSK+ZSK rollover as part of the handoff, but that is not always possible. This document addresses the case where unsigned state is needed.

Users SHOULD keep in mind that re-establishing trust in delegation can be hard and take a long time thus before going to unsigned all options SHOULD be considered.

A parent should ensure that when it is allowing a child to become securely delegated, that it has a reasonable assurance that the CDS/CDNSKEY that is used to bootstrap the security on is visible from a geographically and network topology diverse view. It should also ensure the the zone would validate if the parent published the DS record. A parent zone might also consider sending an email to its contact addresses to give the child a warning that security will be enabled after a certain about of wait time – thus allowing a child administrator to cancel the request.

This document does not introduce any new problems, but like Negative Trust Anchor[I-D.ietf-dnsop-negative-trust-anchors], it addresses operational reality.

6. IANA considerations

This document updates the following IANA registries: "DNS Security Algorithm Numbers"

Algorithm 0 adds a reference to this document.

7. References

7.1. Normative References

7.2. Informative References

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in progress), August 2015.

[RFC2119]
Bradner, S., "Key words for use in RFCs to Indicate
Requirement Levels", BCP 14, RFC 2119, DOI 10.17487/
RFC2119, March 1997,

[RFC4398]
Josefsso, S., "Storing Certificates in the Domain Name
System (DNS)", RFC 4398, DOI 10.17487/RFC4398, March 2006,

Appendix A. Acknowledgements

This document is generated using the mmark tool that Miek Gieben has
developed.

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Clarifications to the Dynamic Updates in the Domain Name System (DNS UPDATE) specification
draft-spacek-dnsop-update-clarif-01

Abstract

This document clarifies interaction among Dynamic Updates in the Domain Name System (DNS UPDATE), Classless IN-ADDR.ARPA delegation, and Secure Domain Name System (DNS) Dynamic Update in the presence of CNAME/DNAME redirections.

Status of This Memo

This Internet-Draft is submitted in full conformance with the provisions of BCP 78 and BCP 79.

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1. Introduction

This document clarifies interaction among Dynamic Updates in the Domain Name System (DNS UPDATE) [RFC2136], Classless IN-ADDR.ARPA delegation [RFC2317], and Secure Domain Name System (DNS) Dynamic Update [RFC3007].

It was identified that common implementations using DNS update protocol often ignore existence of CNAME/DNAME redirections and, as a result, fail to update records if redirection is used. One common example is failure to update PTR records in classless IN-ADDR.ARPA zones.

[RFC2317] describes how to use the CNAME records in IN-ADDR.ARPA DNS zones to split administrative control over IN-ADDR.ARPA data for classless networks. The described method is perfectly compatible with standard DNS resolution but DNS update requests need special handling described in this document.

This clarification is applicable to parties wanting to update records in IN-ADDR.ARPA and other zones without changing existing CNAME/DNAME redirections. A typical example are PTR record updates in zones which might potentially use [RFC2317]. This clarification is not applicable to cases where the purpose of the DNS update is to change CNAME/DNAME redirection.

2. Document Conventions

The key words "MUST", "MUST NOT", "REQUIRED", "SHALL", "SHALL NOT", "SHOULD", "SHOULD NOT", "RECOMMENDED", "MAY", and "OPTIONAL" in this document are to be interpreted as described in [RFC2119].

Terms "requestor", "update message", and names of update message’s sections are used in the same sense as in [RFC2136].

Examples involving IN-ADDR.ARPA zone and PTR records are referring to [RFC2317].
3. Problem Description

The problem described herein typically occurs when an implementation intends to update resource records resolvable by using particular owner name while keeping all CNAME/DNAME redirections intact. In other words, the purpose of the update is to change resource records associated with terminal node of (potential) chain of redirections starting at a known owner name.

Typically, this is the case when the resource records are associated with a known owner name or an owner name that is derived from data obtained outside of DNS. For example, implementations often translate IPv4 address to DNS owner name using the algorithm from [RFC1034] section 5.2.1.4:

192.0.2.1 -> 1.2.0.192.in-addr.arpa.

The problem is that implementations often use this original node name in an Update Message without checking for redirections. If the original owner name contains redirection, then this behavior results in an attempt to add or delete another record to or from a node that already contains the CNAME record, and the update fails.

Such inappropriately constructed update request will be silently ignored in accordance with [RFC2136] section 3.4.2.2. Alternatively, an error will be reported to the requestor if the non-existence of the CNAME record was added as a prerequisite to the Update Message.

4. Clarification to Requestor Behaviour

Please see applicability note in Introduction (Section 1, Paragraph 4).

A Requestor MUST resolve (canonicalize) the original owner name (e.g. the one derived from an IPv4 address) to a canonical owner name before constructing the Update Message. The requestor MUST follow whole chain of redirections until the terminal node of the chain is reached and use canonical name found at the terminal node. Implementations MUST detect infinite loops.

Canonical owner name MUST be used instead of the original owner name in the resulting Update Message:

- All names used in the Prerequisite and Update sections MUST be canonicalized as specified above. Only prerequisites concerning the CNAME or DNAME records are an exception to this rule and should not be canonicalized.
o ZNAME in the Zone Section has to contain the name of the zone that encloses the canonical owner names.

o An implementation MAY choose to use canonicalized names in RDATA and an Additional Section. This is an application specific decision.

5. IANA Considerations

This draft does not involve IANA Considerations.

6. Security Considerations

Canonicalization process changes the owner name which is going to be affected by the update. An active attacker might interfere with the canonicalization process and trick the requestor to update a node of the attacker’s choice if the canonicalization process is not secured by using DNSSEC or by other means.

Security properties of DNS updates using only DNS UPDATE [RFC2136] without any security mechanisms on top of it are vulnerable anyway because an active attacker can very well modify the update message itself.

Canonicalization generally increases overall risk for implementations of Secure DNS Dynamic Update [RFC3007] because an attacker might have a chance to modify the owner name in an Update Message before the message is signed by the requestor. An implementation might decide to accept canonicalized names only on condition that the overall security status of the canonicalization process is sufficient according to the local policy. Because the chain of redirections might involve multiple DNS zones, implementations MUST use the lowest security status from all links in the chain of redirections when doing security decisions.

For example, a strict implementation might accept canonicalized names only on condition that all redirections were secured by DNSSEC and the security state of all redirections was "secure". Another implementation might decide that security checks on a server side are sufficient, so requestors will accept canonical names obtained using insecure protocols. In case of PTR records, a server might require the TCP transport and map an IP address of the requestor to the canonical owner name and/or check data in an Update Message with the requestor’s identity.

7. Normative References
Internet-Draft          DNS UPDATE clarifications            August 2015


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The EDNS Key Tag Option
draft-wessels-edns-key-tag-00

Abstract

The DNS Security Extensions (DNSSEC) were developed to provide origin authentication and integrity protection for DNS data by using digital signatures. These digital signatures can be verified by building a chain-of-trust starting from a trust anchor and proceeding down to a particular node in the DNS. This document specifies a way for validating end-system resolvers to signal to a server which keys are referenced in their chain-of-trust. The extensions allow zone administrators to monitor the progress of rollovers in a DNSSEC-signed zone.

Status of this Memo

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Table of Contents

1. Introduction ....................................................... 3
2. Requirements Terminology ........................................ 3
3. Terminology ...................................................... 3
4. Option Format ..................................................... 4
5. Use By Queriers .................................................... 4
   5.1. Stub Resolvers .................................................. 5
      5.1.1. Validating Stub Resolvers ................................ 5
      5.1.2. Non-validating Stub Resolvers ............................. 6
   5.2. Recursive Resolvers ........................................... 6
      5.2.1. Validating Recursive Resolvers ............................. 6
      5.2.2. Non-validating Recursive Resolvers ........................ 6
6. Use By Responders ................................................ 6
7. IANA Considerations .............................................. 7
8. Security Considerations .......................................... 7
9. Privacy Considerations .......................................... 7
10. Acknowledgments ............................................... 8
11. References ..................................................... 8
    11.1. Normative References ........................................ 8
    11.2. Informative References ...................................... 9
Author's Address ..................................................... 9
1. Introduction

The DNS Security Extensions (DNSSEC) [RFC4033], [RFC4034] and [RFC4035] were developed to provide origin authentication and integrity protection for DNS data by using digital signatures. DNSSEC uses Key Tags to efficiently match signatures to the keys from which they are generated. The Key Tag is a 16-bit value computed from the RDATA portion of a DNSKEY RR using a formula not unlike a ones-complement checksum. RRSIG RRs contain a Key Tag field whose value is equal to the Key Tag of the DNSKEY RR that validates the signature.

Likewise, Delegation Signer (DS) RRs also contain a Key Tag field whose value is equal to the Key Tag of the DNSKEY RR to which it refers.

This draft sets out to specify a way for validating end-system resolvers to tell a server in a DNS query which DNSSEC key(s) they would use to validate the expected response. This is done using the new EDNS option specified below in Section 4 for use in the OPT meta-RR [RFC6891]. This new EDNS option code is OPTIONAL to implement and use.

This proposed EDNS option serves to measure the acceptance and use of new trust anchors and key signing keys (KSKs). This signaling option can be used by zone administrators as a gauge to measure the successful deployment of new keys. This is of particular interest for the DNS root zone in the event of key and/or algorithm rollovers which relies on [RFC5011] to automatically update a validating end-system’s trust anchor.

This draft does not seek to introduce another process for rolling keys or updating trust anchors. Rather, this document specifies a means by which a client query can signal the set of keys that a client uses for DNSSEC validation.

2. Requirements Terminology

The key words "MUST", "MUST NOT", "REQUIRED", "SHALL", "SHALL NOT", "SHOULD", "SHOULD NOT", "RECOMMENDED", "MAY", and "OPTIONAL" in this document are to be interpreted as described in [RFC2119].

3. Terminology
Trust Anchor: A configured DNSKEY RR or DS RR hash of a DNSKEY RR. A validating security-aware resolver uses this public key or hash as a starting point for building the authentication chain to a signed DNS response. In general, a validating resolver will have to obtain the initial values of its trust anchors via some secure or trusted means outside the DNS protocol. Presence of a trust anchor also implies that the resolver should expect the zone to which the trust anchor points to be signed. (quoted from [RFC4033] Section 2)

Key Tag: A 16-bit integer that identifies and enables efficient selection of DNSSEC public keys. A Key Tag value can be computed over the RDATA of a DNSKEY RR. The Key Tag field in the RRSIG and DS records can be used to help select the corresponding DNSKEY RR efficiently when more than one candidate DNSKEY RR is available. For most algorithms the Key Tag is a simple 16-bit modular sum of the DNSKEY RDATA. See [RFC4034] Appendix B.

4. Option Format

The edns-key-tag option is encoded as follows:

```
 0                       8                      16
+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+
|                  OPTION-CODE                  |
+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+
|                 OPTION-LENGTH                 |
+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+
|                    KEY-TAG                    |
+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+
|                      ...                      |
+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+--+
```

where:

OPTION-CODE: The EDNS0 option code assigned to edns-key-tag, [TBD].

OPTION-LENGTH: The value 2 x number of key-tag values present.

KEY-TAG: One or more 16-bit Key Tag values ([RFC4034], Appendix B).

5. Use By Queriers

A validating end-system resolver sets the edns-key-tag option in the OPT meta-RR when sending a DNSKEY query. The validating end-system resolver SHOULD also set the DNSSEC OK bit [RFC4034] to indicate that
it wishes to receive DNSSEC RRs in the response.

A DNS client MUST NOT include the edns-key-tag option for non-DNSKEY queries.

The KEY-TAG value(s) included in the edns-key-tag option represent the Key Tag of the Trust Anchor or DNSKEY RR that will be used to validate the expected response. When the client sends a DNSKEY query, the edns-key-tag option represents the Key Tag(s) of the KSK(s) of the zone for which the server is authoritative. A validating end-system resolver learns the Key Tag(s) of the KSK(s) from the zone’s DS record(s) (found in the parent), or from a configured trust anchor.

A DNS client SHOULD include the edns-key-tag option when issuing a DNSKEY query for a zone corresponding to a configured Trust Anchor.

A DNS client MAY include the edns-key-tag option when issuing a DNSKEY query for a non-Trust Anchor zone (i.e., Key Tags learned via DS records). Since some DNSSEC validators implement bottom-up validation, non-Trust Anchor Key Tags zone might not be known at the time of the query. Such a validator can include the edns-key-tag option based on previously cached data.

A DNS client MUST NOT include Key Tag(s) for keys which are not learned via either configured Trust Anchor or DS records.

Since the edns-key-tag option is only set in the query, if a client sees these options in the response, no action needs to be taken and the client MUST ignore the option values.

5.1. Stub Resolvers

Typically, stub resolvers rely on an upstream recursive server (or cache) to provide a response. Optimal setting of the edns-key-tag option depends on whether the stub resolver elects to perform its own validation.

5.1.1. Validating Stub Resolvers

A validating stub resolver sets the DNSSEC OK (DO) bit [RFC4034] to indicate that it wishes to receive additional DNSSEC RRs (i.e., RRSIG RRs) in the response. Such validating resolvers SHOULD include the edns-key-tag option in the OPT RR when sending a DNSKEY query.
5.1.2. Non-validating Stub Resolvers

The edns-key-tag option MUST NOT be included by non-validating stub resolvers.

5.2. Recursive Resolvers

5.2.1. Validating Recursive Resolvers

A validating recursive resolver sets the edns-key-tag option when performing recursion based on relevant keys it knows and any edns-key-tag values in the stub client query. When the recursive server receives a query with the option set, the recursive server SHOULD set the edns-key-tag list for any outgoing iterative queries for that resolution chain to a union of the stub client’s Key Tag(s) and the validating recursive resolver’s Key Tag(s). For example, if the recursive resolver’s Key Tag list is (19036, 12345) and the stub’s list is (19036, 34567), the final edns-key-tag list would be (19036, 12345, 34567).

If the client included the DO and Checking Disabled (CD) bits, but did not include the edns-key-tag option in the query, the validating recursive resolver MAY include the option with its own Key Tag values in full.

Validating recursive resolvers MUST NOT set the edns-key-tag option in the final response to the stub client.

5.2.2. Non-validating Recursive Resolvers

Recursive resolvers that do not validate responses SHOULD copy the edns-key-tag option seen in received queries, as they represent the wishes of the validating downstream resolver that issued the original query.

6. Use By Responders

An authoritative name server receiving queries with the edns-key-tag option MAY log or otherwise collect the Key Tag values to provide information to the zone operator.

A responder MUST NOT include the edns-key-tag option in any DNS response.
7. IANA Considerations

The IANA is directed to assign an EDNS0 option code for the edns-key-tag option from the DNS EDNS0 Option Codes (OPT) registry as follows:

+-------+--------------+----------+-----------------+
| Value | Name         | Status   | Reference       |
+-------+--------------+----------+-----------------+
| [TBA] | edns-key-tag | Optional | [This document] |
+-------+--------------+----------+-----------------+

8. Security Considerations

This document specifies a way for a client to signal its trust anchor knowledge to a cache or server. The signals are optional codes contained in the OPT meta-RR used with EDNS. The goal of these options is to signal new trust anchor uptake in client code to allow zone administrators to know when it is possible to complete a key rollover in a DNSSEC-signed zone.

There is a possibility that an eavesdropper or server could infer the validator in use by a client by the Key Tag list seen in queries. This may allow an attacker to find validators using old, possibly broken, keys. It could also be used to identify the validator or narrow down the possible validator implementations in use by a client, which could have a known vulnerability that could be exploited by the attacker.

Consumers of data collected from the edns-key-tag option are advised that provided Key Tag values might be "made up" by some DNS clients with malicious or at least mischievous intentions.

DNSSEC does not require keys in a zone to have unique Key Tags. During a rollover there is a small possibility that an old key and a new key will have identical Key Tag values. Zone operators relying on the edns-key-tag mechanism SHOULD take care to ensure that new keys have unique Key Tag values.

9. Privacy Considerations

This proposal adds additional "signaling" to DNS queries in the form of Key Tag values. While Key Tag values themselves are not considered private information, it may be possible for an eavesdropper to use Key Tag values as a fingerprinting technique to identify particular DNS validating clients. This may be especially true if the validator is configured with trust anchor for zones in
addition to the root zone.

A validating end-system resolver need not transmit the edns-key-tag option in every applicable query. Due to privacy concerns, such a resolver MAY choose to transmit the edns-key-tag option for a subset of queries (e.g., every 25th time), or by random chance with a certain probability (e.g., 5%).

Implementations of this specification MAY be administratively configured to only transmit the edns-key-tag option for certain zones. For example, the software’s configuration file may specify a list of zones for which use of the option is allowed or denied. Since the primary motivation for this specification is to provide operational measurement data for root zone key rollovers, it is RECOMMENDED that implementations at least include the edns-key-tag option for root zone DNSKEY queries.

10. Acknowledgments

This document was inspired by and borrows heavily from [RFC6975] by Scott Rose and Steve Crocker. The author would like to thank to Casey Deccio and Burt Kalisky for early feedback.

11. References

11.1. Normative References


11.2. Informative References


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