

A Decentralized Domain Name System? User-Controlled Infrastructure as Alternative Internet Governance

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Media in Transition 8 (MiT8) – Public Media, Private Media, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, May 3-5. *Work in progress – please do not cite or quote.*

Introduction

Late 2010: the organization WikiLeaks makes thousands of secret US diplomatic cables public, losing a few days later its web hosting company and the wikileaks.org domain. Discussions about a “new competing root-server” able to rival the one administered by the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN) soon start populating the Web, prompted by well-known Internet “anarchist” Peter Sunde. An alternative domain name registry is envisaged, a decentralized, peer-to-peer (P2P) system in which volunteer users would each run a portion of the Domain Name System (DNS) on their own computers, so that any domain that would be made temporarily inaccessible, because of seizures or blockings, may still be accessible on the alternative registry. A radical step, one that, instead of simply adding a number of DNS options to the ones already accepted and administrated by ICANN (like OpenNIC or NewNet had done before), would supersede the main DNS governance institution – in favor of a distributed, user infrastructure-based model.

Domain name seizures that use the DNS to redirect queries away from an entire web site rather than just an infringing content, and the consequent technical and political debates concerning a decentralized, alternative DNS, are a good illustration of what Laura DeNardis has recently described as the “turn to infrastructure” in Internet governance: not governance *of* the Internet’s infrastructure but governance *using* the Internet’s infrastructure [DeNardis, 2012]. They show how “Internet governance infrastructures are increasingly being co-opted for political purposes completely irrelevant to their primary Internet governance function” [*ibid.*], and in turn, how developers seek to circumvent this co-optation in disruptive ways – by creating new arrangements of governance-*using*-infrastructure in the process.

This paper draws on perspectives informed by Science and Technology Studies (in particular software studies and critical code studies), and on qualitative interviews with technical and political actors involved in DNS governance, to provide a contribution to the study of the “alternative Internet” [Atton, 2005] and its implications as an *imaginaire* [Flichy, 2007], an organizational principle and a socio-technical artifact.

1. Caring about the (P2P) plumbing

“Peer-to-peer is plumbing, and most people don’t care about plumbing,” pointed out some years ago Dan Bricklin, the father of the first spreadsheet *VisiCalc*, in a seminal book about P2P’s potential as a “disruptive” technology [Bricklin, 2001: 59]. The “most people” he refers to in this citation are, of course, end users of the popular first-generation P2P file-sharing applications, like Napster, that were experiencing their hour of glory at the dawn of the 21st century. Indeed, Bricklin may have been right in his assessment of the first P2P file-sharing applications’ success: likely, it owes more to the suitability of such tools to rapidly find and download a specific content, than to their underlying P2P architecture in itself. Yet, this remark sheds light on the perspective adopted by this paper, in its analysis of the technical and political project of an “alternative” system whose defining trait is the P2P model subtending its architecture [Musiani, 2012]. *Caring about the plumbing*, or as Susan Leigh Star has effectively put it, “surfac[ing] invisible work” underlying networked practices, uses and exchanges [Star, 1999: 385], is adopted here as an approach that looks into the design of a networked system’s “lower layers” to uncover some of the reasons for user adoption and (re)appropriation of it, of its regulation and organizational forms. This approach builds on different bodies of work that, crossing Internet studies with Science and Technology Studies, have sought in recent years to explore the social and political qualities of information infrastructures, and to find the ‘material’ in the virtual of software and code [Star & Bowker, 2002; Monberg, 2005; Manovich, 2001; Fuller, 2008; Marino, 2006; Ribes & Lee, 2010; Kirschenbaum, 2003; DeNardis, 2009, 2010].

Paralleling STS-informed approaches, and conceptualizing network architectures as political, social and legal, some authors in the legal and economic fields focus more specifically on the ways in which architecture relates to innovation of Internet services. They argue that the current innovation trajectories of the *network of networks* show that its evolutions (and in-volutions) are likely to depend, in the medium-to-long term, on the topology and technical/organizational models of Internet-based applications, and on the infrastructure that underpins them [Aigrain, 2011]. As the architecture of the Internet, and of Internet-based services, has been a matter of controversy in the past, it is now subjected to manifold tensions. After having recognized its importance as a regulation mechanism, it is increasingly analyzed as a leverage for development and as the origin of market opportunities (and constraints) [van Schewick, 2010], while acknowledging its suitability “by design” to changes and modifications [Braman, 2011].

The development of services based on decentralized, distributed, peer-to-peer network architectures has been acknowledged for several years – even, and especially, in today’s times of *clouds* and big data – as one of the interesting axes of transformation of our modalities of communication and management of digital content. The concept of decentralization is embedded to some extent at the very core of the Internet, especially in the organization and the circulation of data packets. Yet, today’s Internet integrates this principle only partially [Minar & Hedlund, 2001; Berners-Lee, 2010]. The limits of the Internet’s current urbanism, predominant since the early days of its commercial phase and its appropriation by the public, are regularly brought to developers’ and users’ attention, thanks to the spectacular success of services such as social networks, or to the occasional but repeated breakdowns of micro-blogging and video streaming services that have led to interrogations on the security of exchanges and on the network’s stability. While every Internet user has become, at least potentially, not only a consumer but also a distributor and a producer of digital content, a considerable concentration of data takes place in

specific regions of the Internet – data that are quickly re-distributed and modified throughout a fully globalized network. Recurring to decentralized network architectures and distributed organizational forms for Internet services is thus envisaged by a number of projects, companies, services, in a perspective of effectiveness, resolution of some management difficulties, and digital “sustainable development” [Musiani, forthcoming 2013].

Since the heyday of Napster, which marked the beginning of P2P’s “public” history, decentralized networks have mostly been considered as a threat for the digital content industry. The most diffused use of such networks being the unauthorized sharing of music or video files, the problem of intellectual property rights has imposed itself as the predominant political and media framing of P2P networks and their uses. Yet, some authors suggest going beyond these certainly relevant debates, to take as a starting point of P2P-focused investigations the “virtues” of decentralization – effectiveness, stability and resilience – that provide a crucial contribution to the political and technical significance of P2P systems [Elkin-Koren, 2006]. This paper situates itself within this perspective and methodological approach, and contributes to the exploration of how the diversity of P2P appropriations gives way to the construction of a social, political and economic *opportunity* for Internet-based services, as well as an *alternative* to the predominant server-based concentration models.

The empirical work that informs this paper attempts to identify and account for technologies and uses that are, to reprise Bruno Latour’s expression, “*en train de se faire*” (in the making) [Latour, 1987]. The methodology adopted in the paper, and its narrative style, seek to underline the importance of studying the link between the ways in which applications take shape, and their shaping, in turn, of practices, rights, interactions; they flesh out how the “lower layers” of a networked application inform issues and objects that are *de facto* crucial for users, such as the handling and storage of data, computing resources management, information extraction and aggregation; and, finally, they focus on the materiality of the different components of decentralized systems as source of “techno-legal” implications, not only in terms of user rights, but for regulation choices and tools.

1.1. P2P: the search for alternatives built on a cornerstone of Internet history

Peer-to-peer: without a doubt, a networking technology that continues to cause both excitement and anxiety. Its technical definition is relatively simple: P2P is a computer networking model structured in a decentralized manner, so that communications or exchanges take place between nodes entrusted with an equal responsibility in the system. Participants in the network make some of their computational equipment and resources (computing power, storage, bandwidth) available to the system; accessible directly by peers, these shared resources are necessary for the proper functioning of the service offered by the network. The dichotomy between a server, provider of resources, and clients, resource-seekers – characteristic of the client-server model – is replaced by a situation where every peer hosts or provides a part of the overall resources, and all peers request it [Schollmeier, 2001].

For a large number of Internet users – since the encounter between P2P and the public, prompted by Napster in 1999 – this technology is a *de facto* synonym for the (illegal) download of cultural content; for others, it represents the ultimate utopia of techno-egalitarianism, or suggests a more sustainable organizational model for the societies of tomorrow. In any analysis of P2P, one cannot completely set aside these strong visions – the identification of this technology with the

piracy of cultural and intellectual content, or, at the opposite extreme, its idealistic deployment in democratic, egalitarian, universally accessible, and collaborative arenas: the “P2P story” that this paper accounts for is informed by these visions, discourses, narratives, and informs them in return. While it certainly does not, and cannot, wish to neglect the powerful agency of these normative views, this paper does not however seek to be a further contribution to the already well-nourished debate on copyright, and on the sharing/stealing dialectic which P2P now seems to be almost “naturally” associated to. Rather, it takes as its starting point the basic feature of P2P as a computer network model: which is, as mentioned above, the facilitation of efficient and direct exchanges of data between equal nodes. Equal in terms of their provision of technical resources to the system as a whole, and of the responsibility assigned to them within its operations.

Like several decentralized alternatives to Internet-based services that we have explored elsewhere [Musiani, forthcoming 2013], the case study for this paper integrates a specific design choice: the delegation of the responsibility and the control of data management and flows to the “edges”, the margins, or the periphery in the infrastructure of these networking systems. The necessary operations for the proper functioning of these systems, and their ability to correctly provide the services for which they are intended, technically depend on users: their terminals, their computing resources, mobilized in an aggregate manner in order to serve a common purpose. We focus our attention here on the “meeting” between a decision to develop a P2P technical architecture, and a complex and controversial component of Internet infrastructure such as the Domain Name System – which in its current form sets out a clearly identifiable dichotomy between providers of resources – Internet registries and registrars, under the supervision of ICANN – and clients requesting it. Following and trying to clarify the “*ballet* between programmers, software and users” [Abbate, 2012] that builds the project of decentralization for the Domain Name System, this paper contributes to the exploration of the socio-political implications of the distributed and decentralized approach to the technical architecture of Internet services. It hypothesizes that such an approach to the “lower layers” of these systems has, or may have, consequences on the purpose they serve, the dynamics that are enacted within them, the techno-legal procedures they entail.

2. Internet governance, a field in the making

Internet governance today is a lively emerging field, and the body of research that explores it is no less “in the making” [Latour, 1987]. A “working definition” of Internet governance has been provided in the past, after the United Nations-initiated World Summit on the Information Society (WSIS), by the Working Group on Internet Governance – a definition that has reached wide consensus because of its inclusiveness, but is perhaps too broad to be useful in drawing more precisely the boundaries of the field [Malcolm, 2008]:

Internet governance is the development and application by Governments, the private sector and civil society, in their respective roles, of shared principles, norms, rules, decision-making procedures, and programmes that shape the evolution and use of the Internet [WGIG, 2005].

We can see that this is a very broad definition, implying the involvement of a plurality of actors, and the possibility for them to deploy a plurality of governance mechanisms. Internet governance has been described as a mix of technical coordination, standards, and policies [e.g. Malcolm,

2008 and Mueller, 2010]. Technical coordination is conducted by the institutions that manage the Internet's technical architecture and resources, and its principal mechanisms tend to be the use of norms and markets. Standards development is the set of processes by which technical standards are developed for the operation of the Internet, and the dominant mechanisms of governance here are norms and architecture. Public policy governance relates to the development of international public policy for the Internet, and addresses, in particular, matters of regulation of issues such as online privacy. Internet policies are implemented at the domestic and supra-national levels, and discussed at the global level in fora such as the United Nations-promoted Internet Governance Forum. It is in the context of the IGF that the concept of "multi-stakeholderism" was first applied to Internet governance, reflecting the idea that every "holder of stakes" in the Internet should be able to have a voice heard in the shaping and the evolution of the network of networks [Levinson, 2010].

2.1. A contested definition

Despite the inclusiveness and broadness of the above definition, comprising several elements that scholars and practitioners of the field would agree are present in IG, the definition of Internet governance keeps on being contested by differing groups across political and ideological lines. One of the main debates concerns the authority and participation of specific actors, such as national governments, corporate entities and civil society.

The study of Internet governance does not wish to make a case for greater government control of the Internet, but rather, explores the plurality of actors and means through which it can be carried out. In the context of the Internet, in particular, relevant actors in governance processes and power arrangements are not only governments. Governance is usually understood as the efforts of nation states and traditional political structures to govern. Governments, under the purview of their sovereignty, indeed perform certain Internet governance functions such as regulating abuses, overseeing antitrust measures, and responding to security threats – and they also use content filtering and blocking techniques for surveillance and censorship of citizens. So, their role in Internet governance remains central and often ambiguous. However, other areas of Internet governance, such as Internet protocol design and coordination of critical Internet resources, have historically been delegated to new transnational institutional forms and private ordering [DeNardis, 2013].

Moreover, one should be careful about subscribing to two opposing ideological positions [Mueller, 2010], the first being an enthusiastic but naïve technological determinism depicting a market-driven "digital revolution", and the second being a mere reproduction of traditional forms of state sovereignty to the Internet, arguing that "the Internet is nothing new". One should also refrain from reducing the Internet governance debates to one of its components or arenas. A common misconception about IG is, for example, its identification with the United Nations-promoted processes that have led to the establishment of the IGF, a multi-stakeholder dialogue that, even if interesting in its experimentation with innovative governance formats, is not the place where "the practice of internet governance happens" [DeNardis, 2013, *ibid.*]. Similarly, the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers, ICANN, while being one of the very important institutions of IG managing a delicate part of critical internet infrastructure, has at times been put under the spotlight in such a way that can lead people to believe that it "runs the internet" on its own – which is not the case.

2.2. The Domain Name System: Spotlight on Internet infrastructure...

The scenario briefly outlined above often leads to neglect or disregard what is, instead, a crucial, albeit discreet and even invisible, aspect of Internet governance: there are a number of components of the Internet's infrastructure and technical architecture in whose design are embedded, to some extent, arrangements of governance. Made of technologies and processes beneath the layer of content and designed to keep the Internet operational, the infrastructure of the "network of networks" is one of today's most critical components of Internet governance.

Among the instances where the "political materiality" of the Internet is revealed, one of the most important is the system of Internet Protocol (IP) addresses. Devices exchanging information over the Internet are identified by unique binary numbers identifying its virtual location, assigned either temporarily or permanently. Internet routers use these addresses to determine how to route packets over the Internet. The current standard for Internet addresses, IPv4, is in the final stages of exhausting its unallocated address space. A new protocol, IPv6, has been recommended to expand the number of available addresses. However, for a variety of political and technical reasons, the upgrade to IPv6 is still in its infancy and the depletion is getting closer, with important policy implications. Another example of critical Internet infrastructure are Internet Exchange Points (IXPs). They are the physical junctures where different companies' backbone trunks interconnect, exchange packets and route them toward their appropriate destinations. The implications of the management and regulation of IXPs extend to fair competition mechanisms, surveillance and filtering, and stability. There are many more, but let us focus on the central case study for the present paper, the Domain Name System.

The Domain Name System establishes the domain name space in the same way that the Internet Protocol establishes the Internet address space. The DNS translates between user-friendly alphanumeric domain names and their associated IP addresses necessary for routing packets of information over the Internet. For this reason, it is oftentimes called the Internet's "phone book"¹. Nowadays, the number of queries that the DNS has to address is estimated at several billions per day, and by providing a worldwide keyword-based redirection service, the Domain Name System is an essential component of the functionality of the Internet. In a very simplified way, the DNS can be described as a wide database management system, arranged hierarchically but distributed globally, across servers throughout the world. The Internet's root name servers contain a master file known as the root zone file, listing the IP addresses and associated names of the official DNS servers for all top-level domains (TLDs): generic ones (gTLDs) like .com, .edu, .gov, etc. and country codes (ccTLDs) such as .us, .uk, .fr. The management of the DNS has always been a central task of Internet governance, and the right to use a domain name is delegated by domain name registrars, accredited by the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN), the organization charged with overseeing the name and number systems of the Internet, and with controlling the root server system and the root zone file.

A number of controversies have taken place in this area, involving institutional and international power struggles over DNS control, and issues of legitimacy, democracy, and jurisdiction. In particular, as an organization of Californian private law and the *de facto* exclusive manager of one of the most delicate infrastructures of Internet governance today, ICANN has been under

¹ The author has organized a recent conference on the topic at the Institute for the Study of Diplomacy, Georgetown University, <http://internetphonebook.eventbrite.com/>

constant international scrutiny ever since the Internet has become a global, public phenomenon, due to its close ties with the United States government and alleged lack of transparency.

There are additional policy implications to the DNS: it was originally restricted to ASCII characters, precluding the possibility of domain names in many language scripts such as Arabic, Chinese or Russian. Internationalized domain names (IDNs) have now been introduced. Furthermore, in 2011, ICANN's board voted to end most restrictions on the generic top-level domain names (gTLD) from the 22 currently available. Companies and organizations will now be able to choose essentially arbitrary top-level Internet domains, with implications for consumers' relationships to brands and ways to find information on the internet. Further DNS issues concern the relationship between domain names and freedom of expression, security, and trademark dispute resolution for domain names.

2.3. ... and its *détournements*

While these manifold controversies play a prominent role in the shaping of today's Internet – and have been addressed at length in literature – this paper focuses on a slightly different, albeit related, take on Internet infrastructure. In recent years, we witness a number of (more or less successful) attempts, by political and private entities, to co-opt these infrastructures of internet governance for purposes other than the ones they were initially designed for. Not only is there governance *of* infrastructure – outlined up to this point – but governance is carried out *by* leveraging infrastructure in “creative ways”. Conflicts over the ways in which information is carried and circulates in the Internet are increasingly often fought in its lower layers. Forces of globalization and technological change have diminished the capacity of sovereign nation states and media content producers to directly control information flows through laws and policies – and these actors are acknowledging infrastructure as a mechanism for regaining this control. What Laura DeNardis [2012] calls the “turn to infrastructure for Internet governance” entails not only issues of economic freedom – but of information and communication freedoms.

Examples of how content mediation controversies have shifted into the realm of Internet governance infrastructure can be found, for example, in the intentional outages of basic telecommunications and Internet infrastructures, enacted by governments via private actors, whether via protocols, application blocking, or termination of access services. The government-initiated Internet outages in Egypt and Libya, in the face of revolution and uprisings, have illustrated this and may have set a dangerous precedent.

However, the domain name system is perhaps, nowadays, the best illustration of this “governance by infrastructure” tendency. Domain name seizures, using the domain name system to redirect queries away from an entire web site rather than just the infringing content, have recently been considered as a suitable means of intellectual property rights enforcement, to be carried out by Internet registries, Internet registrars, and Internet service providers. DNS-based enforcement was at the heart of controversies over the legislative projects Protect IP Act (PIPA) and Stop Online Privacy Act (SOPA). Governance by infrastructure enacted by private actors was also visible during the WikiLeaks saga, when Amazon and EveryDNS blocked Wikileaks' web hosting and domain name resolution services. And finally, attempts at governance by infrastructure are at the core of the project of an alternative, decentralized or P2P domain name system, in which volunteer users would each run a portion of the DNS on their own computers. Faced with Internet infrastructure co-optation for content mediation functions that eventually

restricts their freedom of expression and access, user/developers seek, in turn, to circumvent this co-optation in disruptive ways. And through this *détournement* [Akrich, 1998] they create new arrangements of governance-*using*-infrastructure.

3. Towards a decentralized alternative for DNS? Debates, balances, concerns

At the end of 2010, the organization WikiLeaks makes thousands of secret US diplomatic cables public, losing a few days later its web hosting company and the wikileaks.org domain. Discussions about a “new competing root-server”, able to rival the one administered by ICANN, experience a new wave of interest on the Web, prompted by well-known Internet “anarchist” Peter Sunde. An alternative domain name registry is envisaged, a decentralized, peer-to-peer (P2P) system in which volunteer users would each run a portion of the DNS on their own computers, so that any domain made temporarily inaccessible by a registry, for whatever purpose, may still be accessible on the alternative registry. A radical step, that, instead of simply adding a number of DNS options to the ones already accepted and administrated by ICANN (like OpenNic or NewNet had done before), would supersede or circumvent the main DNS governance institution – in favor of a distributed, user infrastructure-based model. The remainder of this section explores the debates on a decentralized, user-controlled infrastructure response to DNS co-optation.²

3.1. A history of dissatisfactions, a history of attempts

Dissatisfactions about the ways in which the DNS is managed are hardly recent. Due to its being hierarchical (albeit *not* centralized, as it is often said), this system is susceptible to lend itself to the attention of unsavory people; several problems have arisen around the control of this system, and many national, intergovernmental and multi-stakeholder meetings debating the issue have already been held. In particular, the control over the root system – which, it is argued, is *de facto* managed by the government of the United States via ICANN – has often been questioned.

In recent years, the *Combating Online Infringement and Counterfeits Act (COICA)* law project, in 2010, and its re-written, but no less controversial, 2011 version (*Preventing Real Online Threats to Economic Creativity and Theft of Intellectual Property Act*, or *PIPA*), both in the United States, have drawn public opinion’s attention to the risk of a control of the Internet exercised *via* the DNS. Without waiting for the eventual passing of the COICA, the U.S. government did, in November 2010, proceed to order the cancellation of several domain names. According to the member of a D.C.-based think tank on ICT governance, this was

“completely on behalf of the entertainment industry.”

The WikiLeaks case, mentioned before, has also well illustrated the pressures exercised *via* the DNS against freedom of expression, and the technical and political risks to put, so to speak, “all your eggs in one basket”: *wikileaks.org* was down for days because there was only one DNS

² The source material is in-depth qualitative interviews conducted with technical developers – working as academics and/or in the private sector – and Internet governance specialists. Interviews have been conducted in Washington, D.C., New York and Boston, and remotely in Italy and France, in the September 2012-April 2013 period.

hosting for that domain. Although illustrated by many episodes originating with American institutions and companies, this issue is not specific to the United States. In France, the *Loi d'orientation et de programmation pour la performance de la sécurité intérieure (LOPPSI)* provides for a mandatory filtering of domain names that the government deems as threatening, a measure whose implementation could be done via the DNS.

The frustrations concerning DNS management, present and future, are – as outlined until this point – many and legitimate. Peter Sunde's uproarious “call to arms” is perhaps the most recent and media-savvy one³, but should not lead to neglect the fact that historically, these frustrations have already led to a number of alternative DNS-related projects, aimed at creating alternative root servers so as to bypass ICANN or existing registrars, or at developing name resolution systems not using the DNS hierarchy, for example based on Distributed Hash Tables (DHTs)⁴. Such projects include the Cornell-based, DNS safety-net project CoDoNS⁵ or the Italian-based ANDNA, part of the decentralized routing system project Netsukuku⁶. There appears to be a consensus among developers that new, alternative DNS projects should therefore begin by pondering why these projects, some of which (such as CoDoNS or the alternative root Open Root Server Network, ORSN, terminated in 2008) are technically sound and innovative, have never known significant deployment. Otherwise, they are likely to encounter, sooner or later, the same fate.

3.2. Replacing what?

From a technical viewpoint, several different remarks were made by developers on the feasibility and the suitability of a decentralized or P2P DNS. There are two fundamental operations that are served by the DNS: name registration (the management of the reservation of Internet domain names by different entities) and name resolution (the behind-the-scenes task of converting domain names to their corresponding IP address). Historically, the term “Domain Name System” has referred to both as if they were necessarily linked. But this is not the case, even if the name registration service and the resolution protocol⁷ have interactions – both have a tree-like structure, for example. The registration mechanism ensures the *uniqueness* of names, one of the DNS's most important functions, and the resolution mechanism allows a machine to *obtain information* – for example, IP addresses – in exchange for a domain name. One could, thus, foresee to replace only one of them; this is precisely what the CoDoNS project was doing – replacing the resolution function by a DHT, while maintaining the registration mechanism intact in its previous form.

The replacement of the resolution mechanism, although a daunting task (it should modify hundreds of thousands of machines) is possible: today, alternative mechanisms already exist. Change the system of naming and registration seems much more unrealistic to a number of

³ E.g. <http://digitizor.com/2010/12/01/the-pirate-bay-co-founder-starting-a-p2p-based-dns-to-take-on-icann/>

⁴ Systems providing a lookup service in which responsibility for maintaining mapping information is distributed among the nodes, so that a change in the set of participants in the system causes a minimal amount of disruption.

⁵ <http://www.cs.cornell.edu/people/egs/bee hive/codons.php>

⁶ <http://netsukuku.freaknet.org/>

⁷ Standardized in two Requests for Comments of the Internet Engineering Task Force, the memoranda published by the IETF describing methods, behaviors, research, or innovations applicable to the working of the Internet and Internet-connected systems: RFC 1034 and RFC 1035.

technical developers, for a reason that is primarily not technical: the fact that it is already known and adopted by so many users. One of the developers describes users as

“more complicated to update than software”,

referring to the cumulative, “snowballing” effect that a critical mass of individuals using an information system has on other individuals.

A crucial, controversial issue is thus to clarify the function that a P2P DNS project should tackle. In its initial call, Peter Sunde mentions the creation of an alternative root, a move that would entail fundamental evolutions in the domain name registration mechanism. Others have spoken in the past about creating a new top-level domain name, .p2p; and yet others seem to be seeking to replace the DNS with a BitTorrent-informed mechanism. Several different projects actually coexist among developers, each with different specifications, having as their common foundation only their shared technical and political dissatisfaction with the current system – and a P2P-informed culture. Developers are aware of this “broader picture” and of the *files rouges* that may weave them together, but so far, these projects have remained relatively isolated from one another.

Another issue discussed in the context of alternative DNS projects is the extent to which current DNS governance arrangements could be replaced or erased altogether. Several developers involved in P2P DNS projects mention the possibility that organizations that are still running a root alternative, like OpenNic⁸, participate in such projects as alternative instances of governance. Such an organization could be the registrar of the .p2p domain, and a web page exists on its wiki that describes the project⁹. In this case, though, it is argued that the problems now represented by instances such as ICANN, VeriSign¹⁰ or AFNIC¹¹ would likely simply be shifted to OpenNic. As it most often happens in national and international governance, not only of the Internet, power would not dissolve but be shifted or transferred from one actor to another, and this would not, in itself, entail any solution to the problem.

Another issue is the policy that a new registrar and its registries would follow. The OpenNic wiki page, as a stand-alone, hardly allows for optimism, as to prevent domain name fraud, it foresees to favor those large websites that come first in Alexa¹²'s ranking: “To prevent domain fraud on commonly used domains (eg: google.*) alexa top1000 will be locked to the owner of the highest ranking domain that appears on the alexa rankings.” Other possibilities for a new registrar have been envisaged, such as

“A widely distributed group of trustworthy individuals [...] Sure it's ‘centralized’ to a small group of people, but they are not ICANN or the RIAA.”

⁸ <http://www.opennicproject.org/>

⁹ <http://wiki.opennicproject.org/dotP2PTLD>

¹⁰ The Virginia-based company that operates a diverse array of network infrastructure, including two of the Internet's thirteen root name servers, and the authoritative registry for the .com and .net TLDs.

¹¹ *Association Française pour le Nommage Internet en Coopération*, a non-profit corporation created in 1997 in order to operate a number of French TLD names, including .fr.

¹² The Amazon subsidiary that provides traffic data, global rankings and other information on 30 million websites as of 2013.

However, it is also argued that politically, these are equally questionable, as people would not be likely to remain honest when entrusted with such power¹³.

3.3. What would be left behind?

This is the point when, most often, discussions among developers (within single projects and occasionally, more transversally) shift into the crucial question, one that is both technical and deeply political: what services does the DNS provide, and what interests does it serve?

“The DNS has survived and scaled well, in a somewhat surprising way,”

points out a developer. It provides unique names, which can be memorized by a human in a relatively easy way, and can be resolved by a program. Moreover, it has been working for more than twenty years, despite the significant changes experienced by the Internet during its evolution from a quiet, “symmetrical” utopia of passionate intellectuals to an agitated mass-medium.

Ultimately – argues a Boston-based developer – before moving to another system, all interested stakeholders will have to consider the system they would have to give up in order to do so. This necessity of balancing pros and cons, and in particular, the fact that no solution will solve all problems with no inconvenience or side-effect, is well-known in the community of P2P developers, although several declarations, especially following Peter Sunde’s project announcement, have let the enthusiasm for the decentralized utopia prevail, somewhat a-critically¹⁴. Two alternatives are possible to facilitate file search and recovery in a P2P system: either a hierarchical system is used – this is the case for classical BitTorrent, where the recovery of a .torrent file is done through a Uniform Resource Locator (URL)¹⁵, thus, a domain name; or, the system works in a completely peer-to-peer and decentralized manner, and in this case, there is no uniqueness: the same name can refer to two completely different files (an enormous difference with the URL-based system). This is what happens with alternative roots: if there is no single root¹⁶, then the same name can be recorded by two different entities and refer to completely different content.

As a policy analyst for a D.C. firm underlines, whether this implication of decentralization is an issue worth facing in all its complexity, at the technical and political levels, is

“bound to subjective assessment of the different stakeholders of the DNS system.”

Several of the interviewed *techies*, though, are not very optimistic about the outcome of the sum of these assessments. If some actors may consider that

“the fact of circumventing or eliminating ICANN, the currently heavily hierarchical registrars, and the like, is well worth bearing some disadvantages,”

¹³ Bortzmeyer, S. (2010). Un DNS en pair-a-pair? <http://www.bortzmeyer.org/dns-p2p.html>

¹⁴ A *Wired* article is cited in support: <http://www.wired.co.uk/news/archive/2010-12/02/peter-sunde-p2p-dns>

¹⁵ The character string that constitutes a reference to an Internet resource.

¹⁶ RFC 2826, Internet Architecture Board’s technical comment on Unique DNS Root and <http://www.bortzmeyer.org/2826.html>

the important shifts in security and authentication patterns that the P2P DNS would entail seem severely under-represented in primarily non-technical online and off-line debates, if compared to their relevance: they are mentioned explicitly and clearly only in a handful of related articles, that note: “And yes, it’s not going to be secure and authenticated like the present system. We’re just going to have to deal with that¹⁷”. Unique name registration in a P2P environment, with no need of a central registry, has already been theorized and coded into algorithms; however, its correct functioning is based upon a premise very difficult to achieve in real-life P2P contexts, as decades of history of this technology have shown: all parties must cooperate.

If the name resolution system is changed, what is to be gained, and what lost? Here, developers insist again on the fact that the current DNS is based on over twenty years of experience and interaction with the “real world.” Any other mechanism – those based on DHT technically sound, and certainly worth the attention of any ambitious developer – is certainly going to take years before a sufficiently mature development stage, and a long coexistence should be expected; a developer insists that

“claims of being able to replace current DNS operators and governance entities in three months are hardly anything more than unrealistic boasting.”

3.4. Engineering, adoption, and governance: the “triple challenge” of DNS alternatives

According to developers’ comments, DNS alternatives face a triple challenge. The first one has to do with the engineering of the system: the security of the name resolution mechanism. Currently, in the vast majority of cases, the user’s confidence in the result of the resolution comes from the fact that a machine has queried a known server. In a peer-to-peer environment, this “one-directional” validation mechanism disappears, resulting in a scenario where any participant node in the system can contribute anything and everything to the DHT, without a server acting as a “legitimizing” authority of the validity of that information. The CoDoNS project solved the problem by applying DNSSEC¹⁸ to its system, which is a technically correct way to address the problem. But this solution falls back on the fact that doing so, one has simply changed the resolution system, while the registration infrastructure and its governance remain the same, with their flaws¹⁹. More generally, there is increasing evidence of the fact that achieving complete security may be impossible in a “pure” P2P environment²⁰.

In the case that any of the decentralized DNS projects matures to the stage of a relevant user appropriation, the crucial issue may become trust of users in other users:

¹⁷ <http://techcrunch.com/2010/11/29/peter-sunde-seconds-the-idea-of-an-alternative-root-dns/>

¹⁸ The Domain Name System Security Extensions (DNSSEC) is a suite of IETF specifications for securing certain kinds of information provided by DNS. It is a set of extensions to DNS which provide origin authentication of DNS data, authenticated denial of existence, and data integrity. The DNSSEC basically attempts to add security, while maintaining backwards compatibility, to a system – the DNS – whose original design as a scalable distributed system did not include security.

¹⁹ DNSSEC uses the DNS tree structure for validating signatures.

²⁰ I.e., one that does not entrust any of its components, for example super-nodes, with any special oversight or management function over the system.

“With the current setup, we are putting our trust in the DNS servers like OpenDNS, Google DNS etc. to point us to the right direction when we want to access a website. With the scheme that P2P-DNS is proposing, we will have to rely on others in the network to direct us. It is one thing to trust OpenDNS, Google etc. but completely another thing to do the same with a random computer²¹”.

Beyond choices of design and innovation, comes the issue of political governance, of which developers are acutely (and perhaps surprisingly) aware. The original questions that cause P2P DNS proposals to proliferate are deeply political: they are about control, freedom, and censorship. Technical solutions to controversial issues that have a political component to them should, at some point, be accompanied by evolutions of institutions, lest the governance of the Internet be reduced to a war of surveillance and counter-surveillance technologies, of infrastructure cooptation and counter-cooptation. Says a developer:

“This ‘governance using infrastructure’, as you call it, if it does not happen via the DNS, will happen via the Border Gateway Protocol²², or via some of the many IP filtering mechanisms²³ that are out there on the Internet.”

Ultimately, from technical and political actors alike, a common concern seems to be raised. The Internet may indeed find ways to “treat censorship as damage and route around it”, as Internet pioneer David Clark once pointed out: technical design choices are as political as any law laid down on paper. However, in the long run, more sustainable solutions to restrictions of Internet freedoms are likely to be achieved by Internet governance institutions’ capacity to engage in reflexivity and review: of themselves, their means, their aims, and their delicate roles in the management of today’s foremost “global facility”.

Conclusions

What do stories of infrastructure cooptation and “creative disruption”, such as the decentralized DNS debates, tell us for the close future of Internet governance? A frequent critique of this interdisciplinary field is that it often tends to focus on a limited number of international institutions and debates about the global politics of the Internet. The “Internet governance” qualification does not generally apply to the study of a large number of activities and daily practices, on and with the Internet, that play a very important role in the shaping and the regulation of the “network of networks” [van Eeten, 2009].

In this context, approaches informed by an STS perspective on infrastructures, like the one adopted in this paper, can contribute to a disengagement from a conception of the Internet as an *a priori* identifiable and rigidly bounded space, either a stranger to the institutional forces of the off-line “reality”, or on the contrary, entirely entrenched behind the codified spaces of traditional

²¹ <http://digitizor.com/2010/12/01/the-pirate-bay-co-founder-starting-a-p2p-based-dns-to-take-on-icann/>

²² The Border Gateway Protocol (BGP) is the protocol which is used to make core routing decisions on the Internet; it involves a table of IP networks or “prefixes” which designate network reachability among autonomous systems.

²³ Techniques that control the incoming and outgoing network traffic by analyzing the data packets and determining whether they should be allowed through or not, based on a predetermined rule set.

politics [Cheniti, 2009]. This perspective allows to unveil the set of mechanisms that lead different participants in the technical, political and economic management of the “network of networks” to build common knowledge, legitimize some of it as “facts” of the Internet, and shape limits and boundaries able to reconcile the concerns of both experts and users.

This perspective also suggests that a different spin can be put on the “alternative Internet” debates that have thrived in recent years, particularly in the wake of the so-called “Arab Spring”. To most communication scholars worldwide, this label refers to social movements’ appropriation of Internet-based communication and social media tools, with the aim of promoting “bottom-up” goals of reform and change of the political and social order [Atton, 2005]. But it may also acquire a deeper meaning: what is at stake is also a different architecture of the “network of networks” in its lower layers, with potentially far-reaching implications for the extent and the quality of users’ control on their machines, their data and their exchanges, and ultimately for the very values underlying the global Internet.

In projects such as a P2P DNS, or the alternative P2P electronic currency Bitcoin, Internet users not only entrust the rest of the network with a portion of their software and hardware resources, but also rely on other users and machines in the network to manage information, communications, transactions. If users are accustomed to putting their trust in a classic DNS server, or in a central bank, to point them in the right direction when they want to access a website or legitimize the value of their currency, what does it take for them to do the same with a random, domestic computer? What values need to underlie the network’s conception and implementation for users to be willing to turn their computational equipment into a part of the Internet’s “phone book”, or in a generator of virtual, decentralized currency, for the sake of a global, alternative Internet? How can political actors of Internet governance harness the “surprising” potential for “disruptive change” [Rejeski, 2003] of the alternative Internet’s recent and diverse manifestations, rather than being overwhelmed by it or choosing to oppose it by default?

With this paper, we have proposed some directions and tools to answer these questions, and contributed to the exploration of a multiplicity of new-born systems that – focused on users and self-organization, characterized by decentralized development and control – propose alternatives to the centralized infrastructures of today: not disposing of hierarchy, but reconfiguring it. In doing so, we have attempted to show how Internet infrastructure and technical architecture are today at the core of Internet governance debates and arrangements – not only as an *object of* governance, but as a set of *tools for* governance. Hopefully, these tools will be used in ways that, albeit creative and potentially disruptive, will not pose a threat to the Internet’s stability and security. Increased awareness, by all relevant actors, of what happens in the lower layers of the “network of networks” is needed, if the co-optation of Internet infrastructure, for functions it was not designed for, is not to have unintended and gravely prejudicial consequences.

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