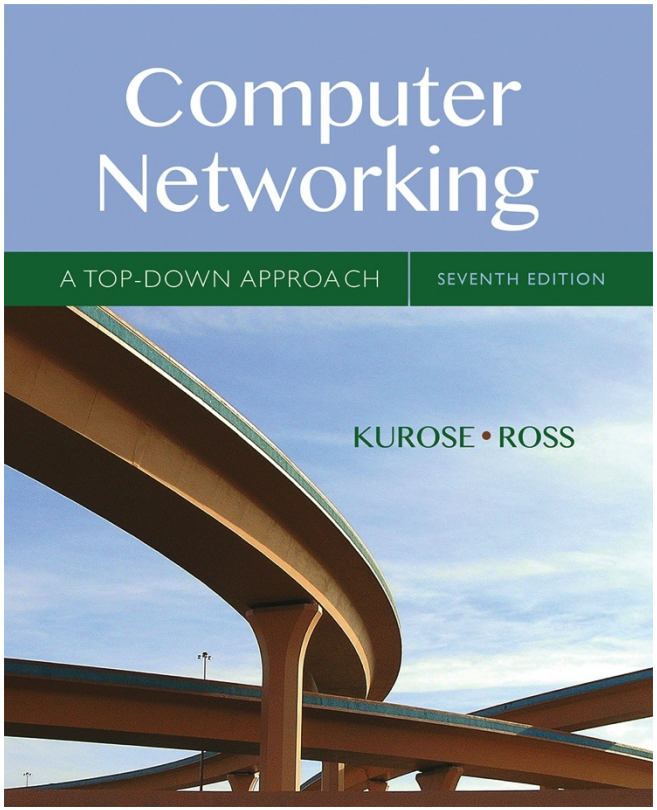
Chapter 2
Application Layer



Computer Networking: A Top Down Approach

7th edition
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Pearson/Addison Wesley
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Chapter 2: outline

2.1 principles of network applications

2.2 Web and HTTP

2.3 electronic mail

- SMTP, POP3, IMAP

2.4 DNS

2.5 P2P applications

2.6 video streaming and content distribution networks

2.7 socket programming with UDP and TCP

Chapter 2: application layer

our goals:

- conceptual, implementation aspects of network application protocols
  - transport-layer service models
  - client-server paradigm
  - peer-to-peer paradigm
  - content distribution networks
- learn about protocols by examining popular application-level protocols
  - HTTP
  - FTP
  - SMTP / POP3 / IMAP
  - DNS
- creating network applications
  - socket API

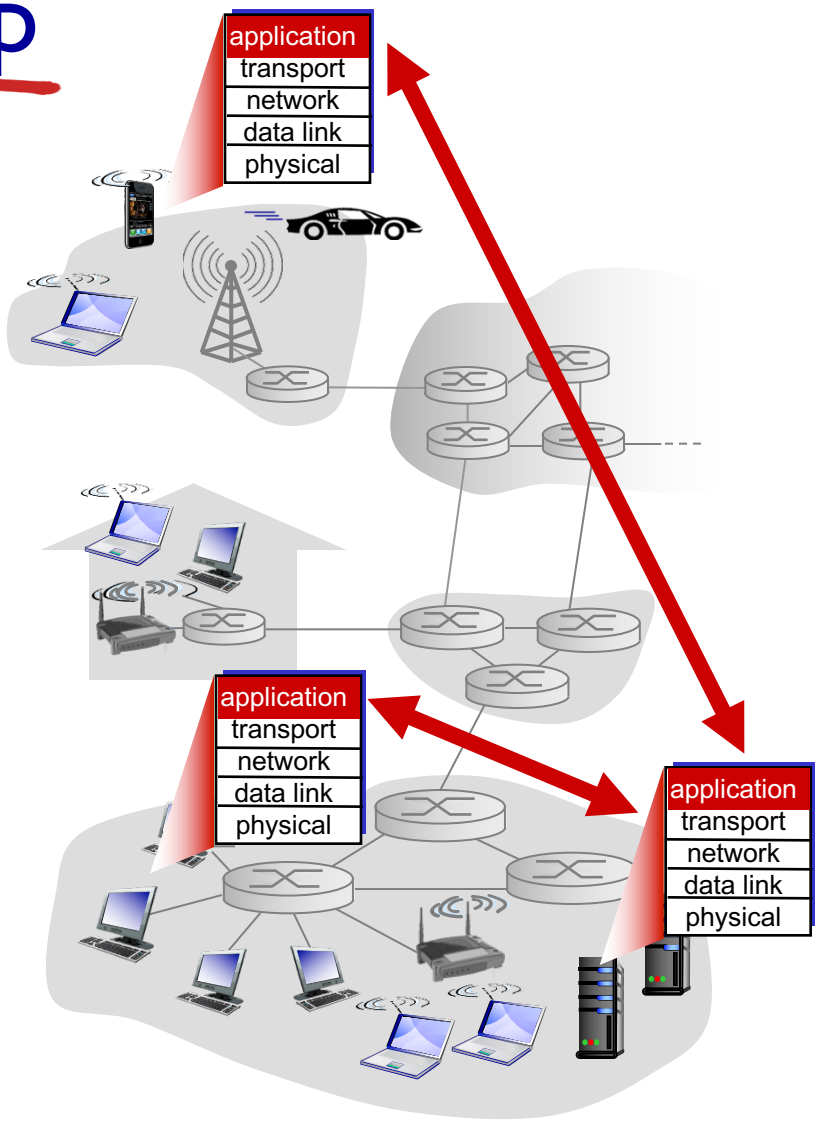
Some network apps

- e-mail
- web
- text messaging
- remote login
- P2P file sharing
- multi-user network games
- streaming stored video (YouTube, Hulu, Netflix)
- voice over IP (e.g., Skype)
- real-time video conferencing
- social networking
- search
- …
- …

Creating a network app

write programs that:

- run on (different) *end systems*
- communicate over network
- e.g., web server software communicates with browser software



no need to write software for network-core devices

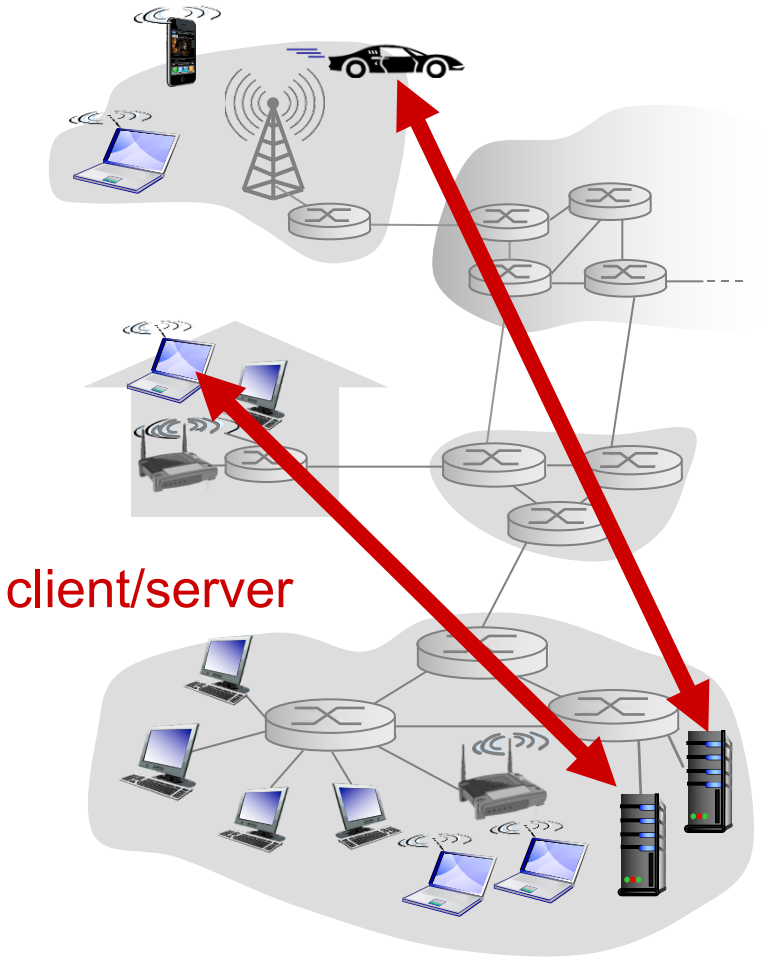
- network-core devices do not run user applications
- applications on end systems allows for rapid app development, propagation

Application architectures

possible structure of applications:

- client-server
- peer-to-peer (P2P)

Client-server architecture



server:

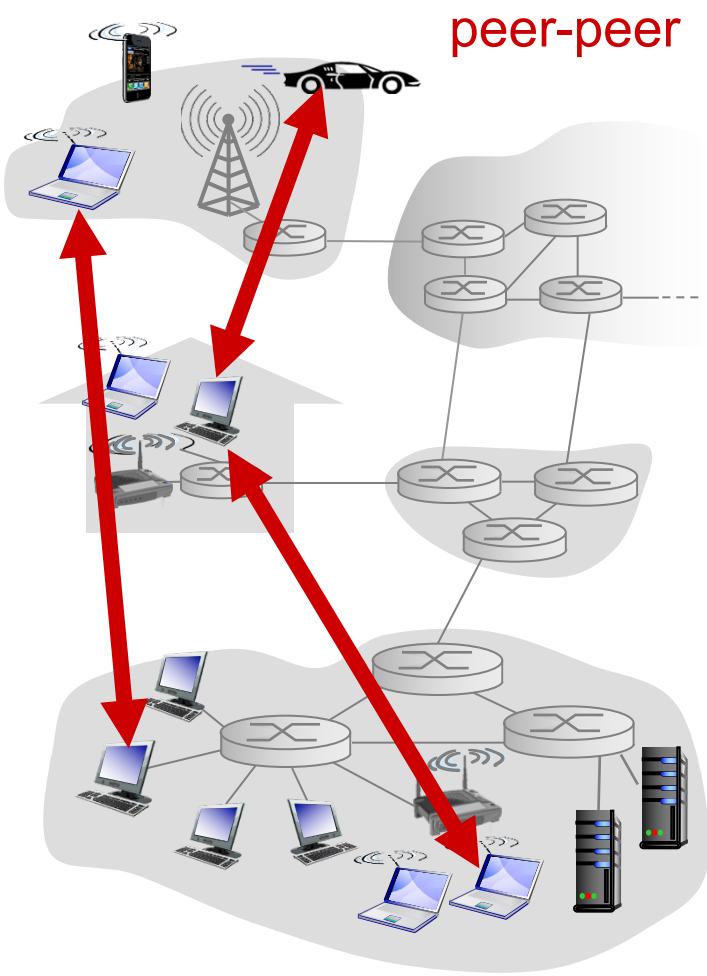
- always-on host
- permanent IP address
- data centers for scaling

clients:

- communicate with server
- may be intermittently connected
- may have dynamic IP addresses
- do not communicate directly with each other

P2P architecture

- *no* always-on server
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- peers request service from other peers, provide service in return to other peers
  - *self scalability* – new peers bring new service capacity, as well as new service demands
- peers are intermittently connected and change IP addresses
  - complex management



CAMPIONAMENTO

I suoni distinguibili sono tra i 22000 ed i 23000 Hz

la frequenza di campionamento (teorema di Shannon) deve essere almeno il doppio c.a. 44000 Hz.

→ Se devo campionare un byte con una certa frequenza di campionamento 44000 Hz → 44 Kb/s

→ La DIGITALIZZAZIONE del suono analogico si chiama CAMPIONAMENTO

MP3 → formato di compressione di file musicali

RFC → documentazione degli open-protocols (protocolli non proprietari)

I protocolli proprietari hanno il codice sorgente privato, inoltre hanno chiavi di cifratura per criptare i messaggi inviati

Processes communicating

process: program running within a host

- within same host, two processes communicate using inter-process communication (defined by OS)
- processes in different hosts communicate by exchanging messages

clients, servers

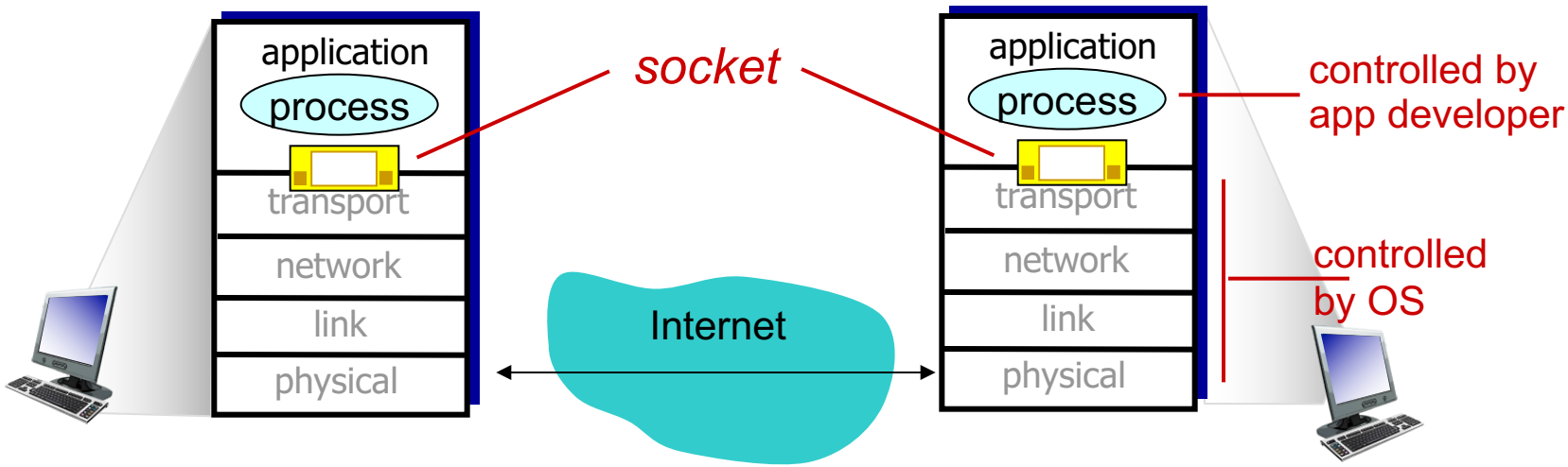
client process: process that initiates communication

server process: process that waits to be contacted

- aside: applications with P2P architectures have client processes & server processes

Sockets

- process sends/receives messages to/from its socket
- socket analogous to door
  - sending process shoves message out door
  - sending process relies on transport infrastructure on other side of door to deliver message to socket at receiving process



Addressing processes

- to receive messages, process must have *identifier*
- host device has unique 32-bit IP address
- *Q:* does IP address of host on which process runs suffice for identifying the process?
  - *A:* no, *many* processes can be running on same host

- *identifier* includes both IP address and port numbers associated with process on host.
- example port numbers:
  - HTTP server: 80
  - mail server: 25
- to send HTTP message to gaia.cs.umass.edu web server:
  - IP address: 128.119.245.12
  - port number: 80
- more shortly…

App-layer protocol defines

- types of messages exchanged,
  - e.g., request, response
- message syntax:
  - what fields in messages & how fields are delineated
- message semantics
  - meaning of information in fields
- rules for when and how processes send & respond to messages

open protocols:

- defined in RFCs
- allows for interoperability
- e.g., HTTP, SMTP

proprietary protocols:

- e.g., Skype

What transport service does an app need?

data integrity

- some apps (e.g., file transfer, web transactions) require 100% reliable data transfer
- other apps (e.g., audio) can tolerate some loss

timing

- some apps (e.g., Internet telephony, interactive games) require low delay to be "effective"

throughput

- some apps (e.g., multimedia) require minimum amount of throughput to be "effective"
- other apps ("elastic apps") make use of whatever throughput they get

security

- encryption, data integrity, …

Transport service requirements: common apps

application	data loss	throughput	time sensitive
file transfer	no loss	elastic	no
e-mail	no loss	elastic	no
Web documents	no loss	elastic	no
real-time audio/video	loss-tolerant	audio: 5kbps-1Mbps video:10kbps-5Mbps	yes, 100's msec
stored audio/video	loss-tolerant	same as above	
interactive games	loss-tolerant	few kbps up	yes, few secs
text messaging	no loss	elastic	yes, 100's msec yes and no

Internet transport protocols services

TCP service:

- *reliable transport* between sending and receiving process
- *flow control:* sender won't overwhelm receiver
- *congestion control:* throttle sender when network overloaded
- *does not provide:* timing, minimum throughput guarantee, security
- *connection-oriented:* setup required between client and server processes

UDP service:

- *unreliable data transfer* between sending and receiving process
- *does not provide:* reliability, flow control, congestion control, timing, throughput guarantee, security, or connection setup,

Q: why bother? Why is there a UDP?

Internet apps: application, transport protocols

application	application layer protocol	underlying transport protocol
e-mail	SMTP [RFC 2821]	TCP
remote terminal access	Telnet [RFC 854]	TCP
Web	HTTP [RFC 2616]	TCP
file transfer	FTP [RFC 959]	TCP
streaming multimedia	HTTP (e.g., YouTube), RTP [RFC 1889]	TCP or UDP
Internet telephony	SIP, RTP, proprietary (e.g., Skype)	TCP or UDP

Securing TCP

TCP & UDP

- no encryption
- cleartext passwds sent into socket traverse Internet in cleartext

SSL

- provides encrypted TCP connection
- data integrity
- end-point authentication

SSL is at app layer

- apps use SSL libraries, that "talk" to TCP

SSL socket API

- cleartext passwords sent into socket traverse Internet encrypted
- see Chapter 8

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Web and HTTP

First, a review…

- *web page* consists of *objects*
- object can be HTML file, JPEG image, Java applet, audio file,…
- web page consists of *base HTML-file* which includes *several referenced objects*
- each object is addressable by a *URL*, e.g.,

www.someschool.edu/someDept/pic.gif

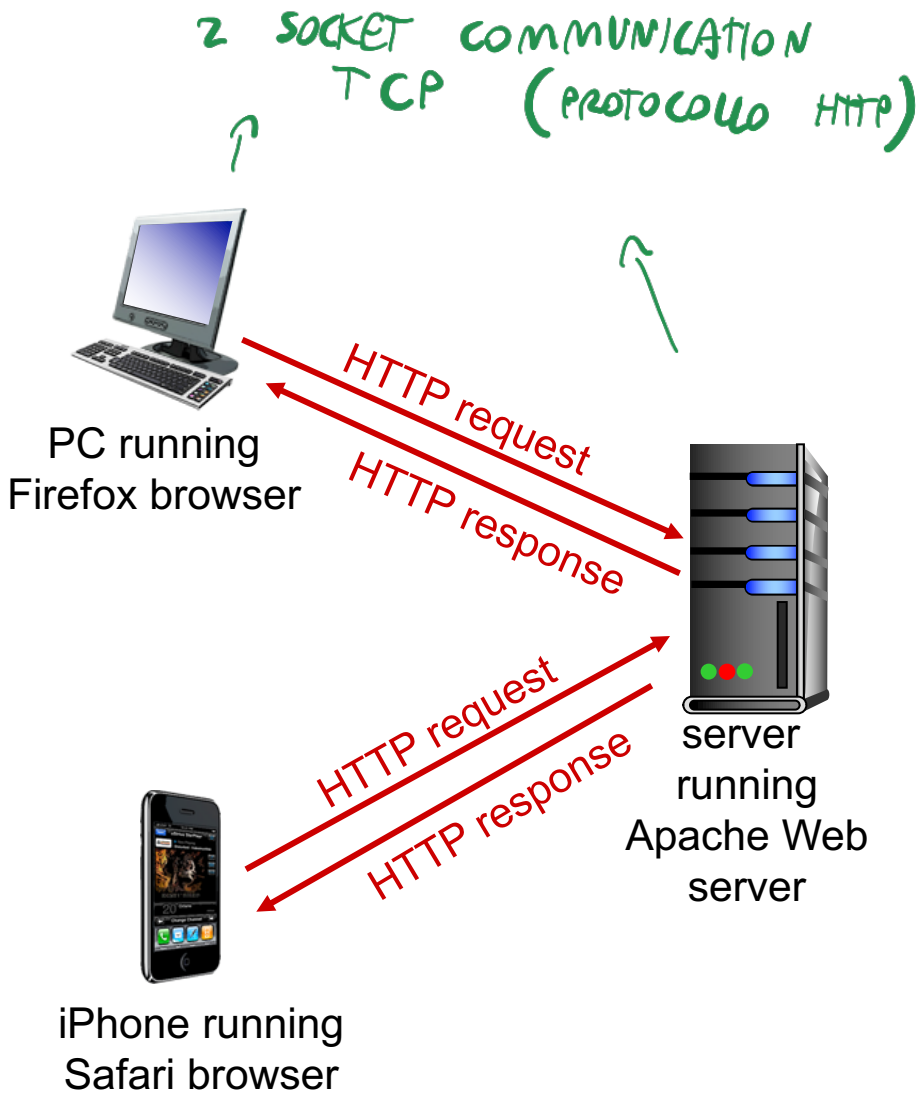
host name | path name

- browser → applicaz. utente che interpreta il formato HTML delle pagine web

HTTP overview

HTTP: hypertext transfer protocol

- Web's application layer protocol
- client/server model
  - *client:* browser that requests, receives, (using HTTP protocol) and "displays" Web objects
  - *server:* Web server sends (using HTTP protocol) objects in response to requests



HTTP overview (continued)

uses TCP:

- client initiates TCP connection (creates socket) to server, port 80
- server accepts TCP connection from client
- HTTP messages (application-layer protocol messages) exchanged between browser (HTTP client) and Web server (HTTP server)
- TCP connection closed

HTTP is "stateless"

- server maintains no information about past client requests

aside

protocols that maintain "state" are complex!

- past history (state) must be maintained
- if server/client crashes, their views of "state" may be inconsistent, must be reconciled

HTTP connections

appena si chiude la transizione richiesta - risposta, il server butta giù la connessione

non-persistent HTTP

- at most one object sent over TCP connection
  - connection then closed
- downloading multiple objects required multiple connections

Non appena si chiude la transizione richiesta - risposta, la connessio

persistent HTTP

- multiple objects can be sent over single TCP connection between client, server

la scelta tra i due è determinata da quanto voglio proteggere un server (come sicurezza)

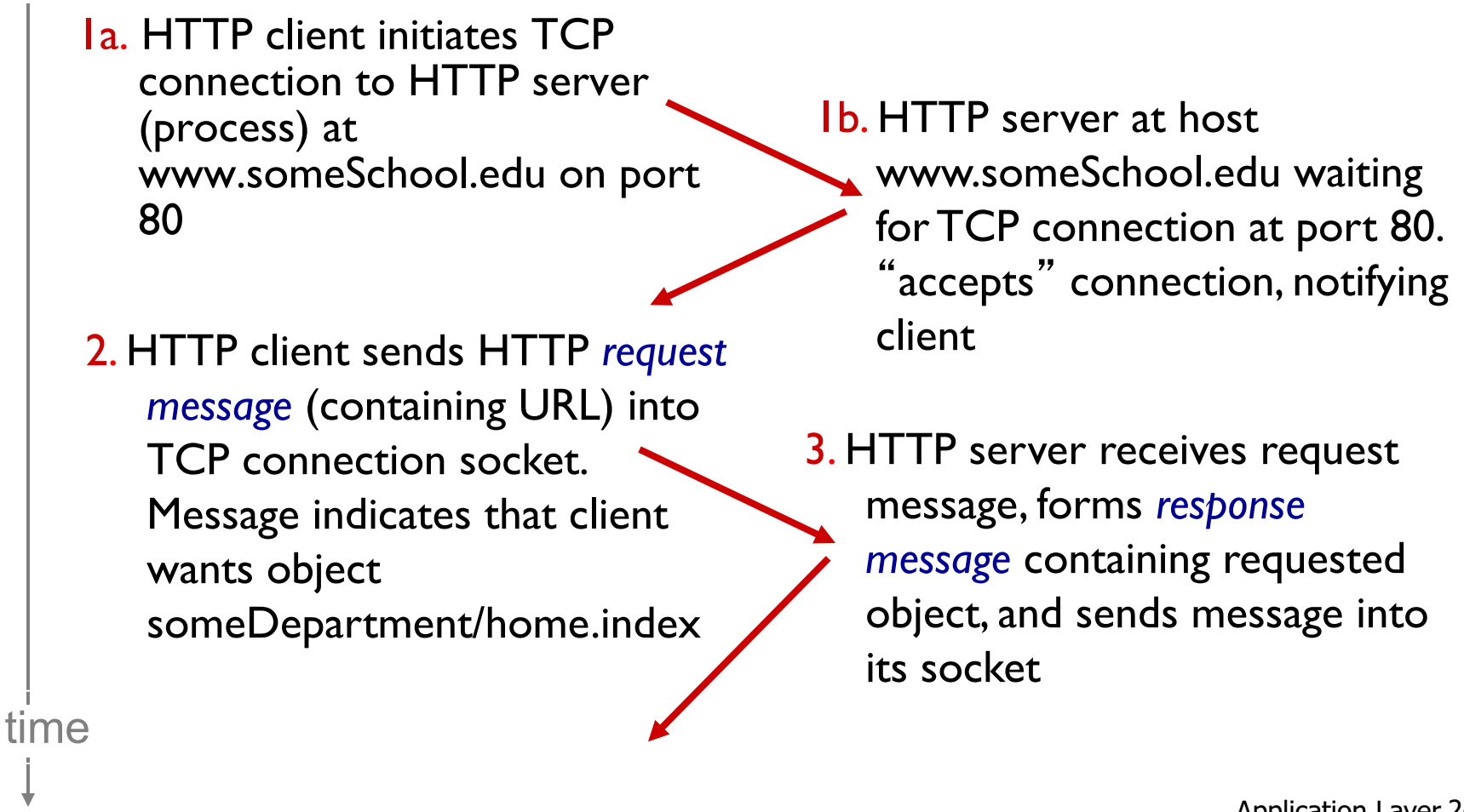
→ Vantaggi: È più sicuro: server non attaccabili facilmente

→ Svantaggi: se devo chiedere molti file consecutivi → per ogni file apro e chiudo ogni connessione

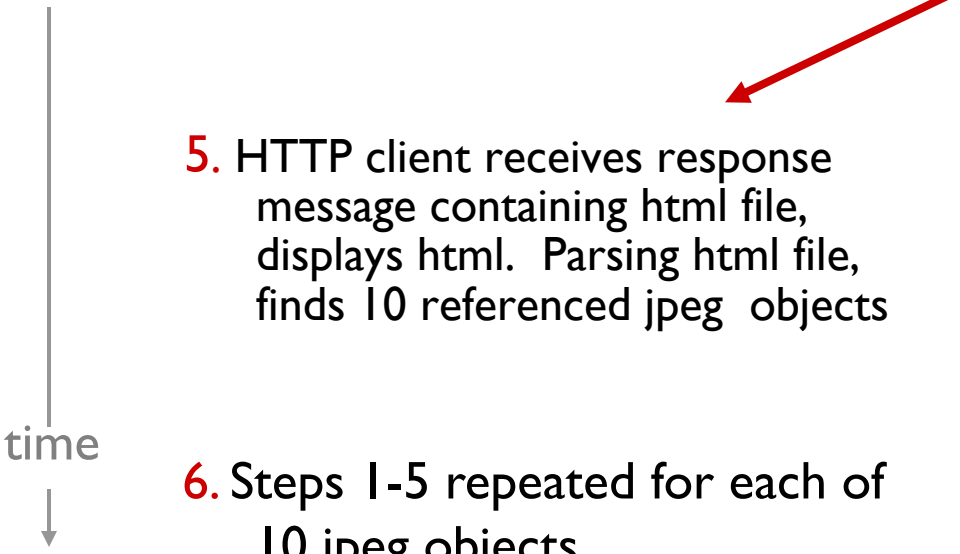
Non-persistent HTTP

suppose user enters URL:
`www.someSchool.edu/someDepartment/home.index`

(contains text, references to 10 jpeg images)



Non-persistent HTTP (cont.)



4. HTTP server closes TCP connection.

5. HTTP client receives response message containing html file, displays html. Parsing html file, finds 10 referenced jpeg objects

6. Steps 1-5 repeated for each of 10 jpeg objects

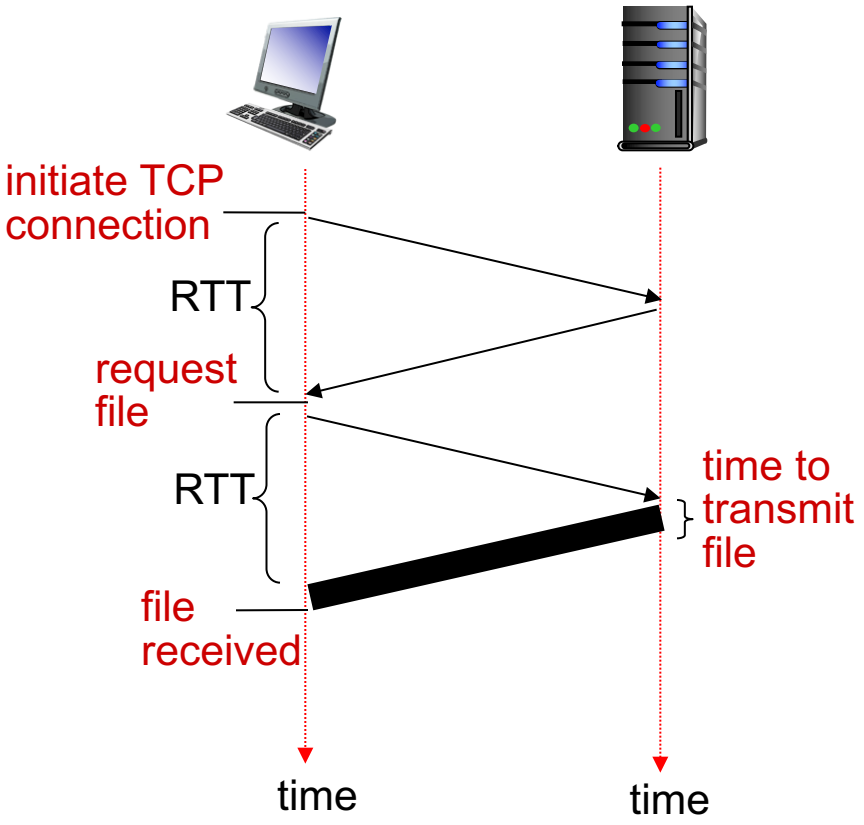
Non-persistent HTTP: response time

RTT (definition): time for a small packet to travel from client to server and back

HTTP response time:

- one RTT to initiate TCP connection
- one RTT for HTTP request and first few bytes of HTTP response to return
- file transmission time
- non-persistent HTTP response time =

  2RTT+ file transmission time



Persistent HTTP

non-persistent HTTP issues:

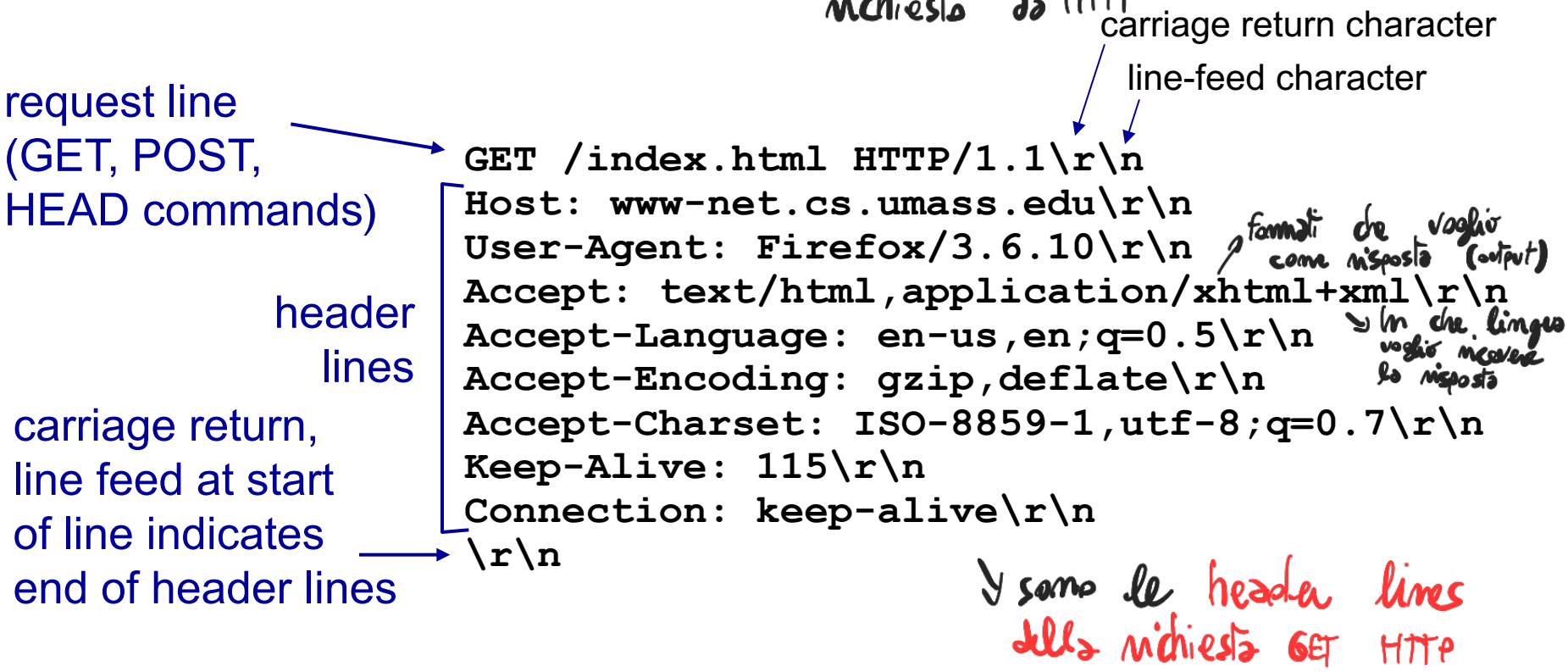
- requires 2 RTTs per object
- OS overhead for *each* TCP connection
- browsers often open parallel TCP connections to fetch referenced objects

persistent HTTP:

- server leaves connection open after sending response
- subsequent HTTP messages between same client/server sent over open connection
- client sends requests as soon as it encounters a referenced object
- as little as one RTT for all the referenced objects

HTTP request message

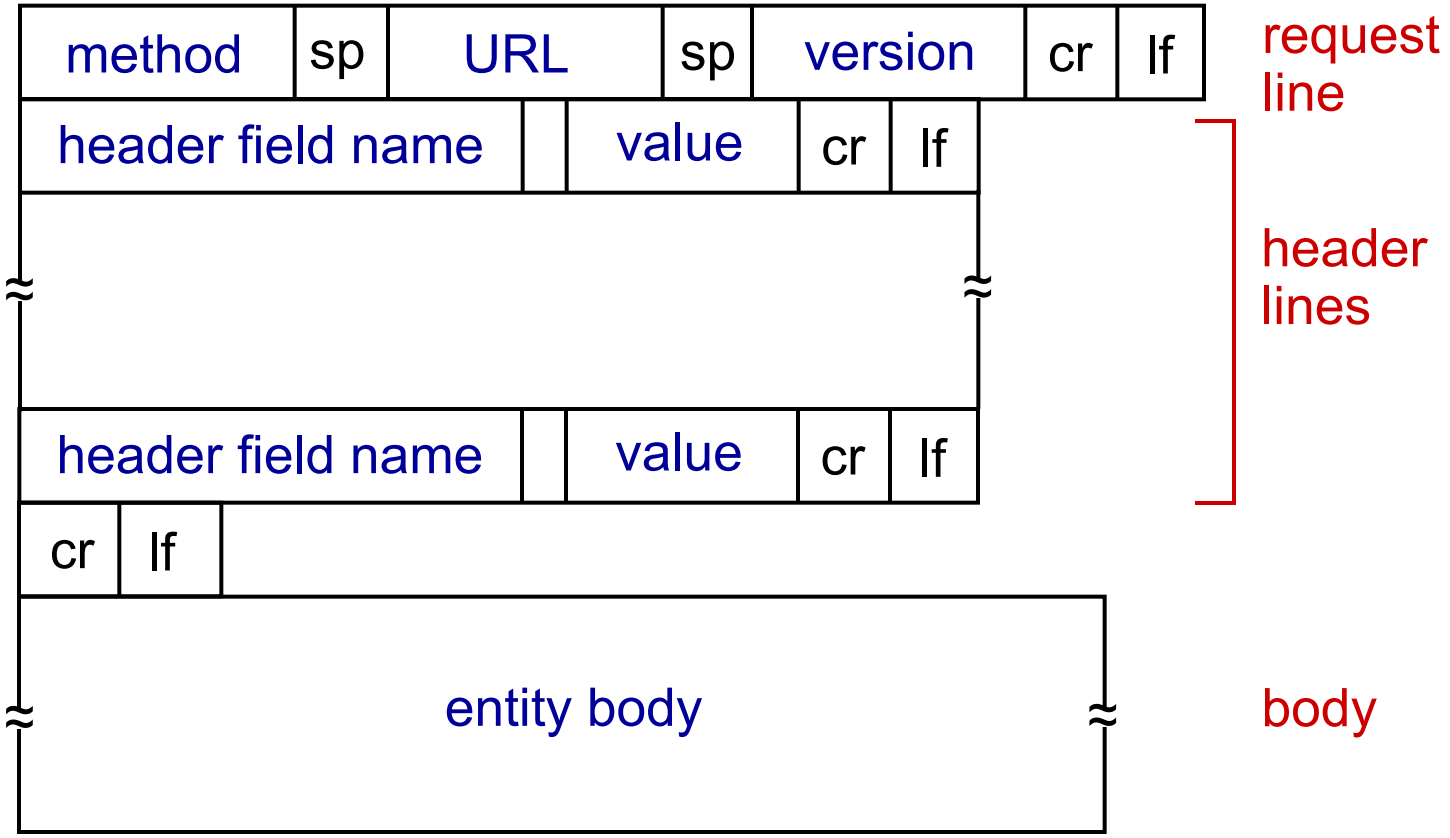
- two types of HTTP messages: *request, response*
- HTTP request message:
  - ASCII (human-readable format) → formato di trasmissione richiesto da HTTP



* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

HTTP request message: general format

→ La struttura sintattica del messaggio HTTP scambiato è rappresentata con questa tabella:



Uploading form input

POST method:

- web page often includes form input
- input is uploaded to server in entity body

URL method:

- uses GET method
- input is uploaded in URL field of request line:

```
www.somesite.com/animalsearch?monkeys&banana
```

Method types

HTTP/1.0:

- GET
- POST
- HEAD
  - asks server to leave requested object out of response

HTTP/1.1:

- GET, POST, HEAD
- PUT
  - uploads file in entity body to path specified in URL field
- DELETE
  - deletes file specified in the URL field

HTTP response message

status line (protocol status code status phrase)

header lines

data, e.g., requested HTML file

tipo di NON ERRORE che voglio avere

```
HTTP/1.1 200 OK\r\n
Date: Sun, 26 Sep 2010 20:09:20 GMT\r\n
Server: Apache/2.0.52 (CentOS)\r\n
Last-Modified: Tue, 30 Oct 2007 17:00:02
   GMT\r\n
ETag: "17dc6-a5c-bf716880"\r\n
Accept-Ranges: bytes\r\n
Content-Length: 2652\r\n
Keep-Alive: timeout=10, max=100\r\n
Connection: Keep-Alive\r\n
Content-Type: text/html; charset=ISO-8859-
   1\r\n
\r\n
data data data data data ...
```

* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

HTTP response status codes

- status code appears in 1st line in server-to-client response message.
- some sample codes:

200 OK

- request succeeded, requested object later in this msg

301 Moved Permanently

- requested object moved, new location specified later in this msg (Location:)

400 Bad Request

- request msg not understood by server

→Errore sintattico nella richiesta (Es. path scritto male, ecc...)

404 Not Found

- requested document not found on this server

505 HTTP Version Not Supported

Trying out HTTP (client side) for yourself

1. Telnet to your favorite Web server:

```
telnet gaia.cs.umass.edu 80
```

opens TCP connection to port 80 (default HTTP server port) at gaia.cs.umass. edu. anything typed in will be sent to port 80 at gaia.cs.umass.edu

2. type in a GET HTTP request:

```
GET /kurose_ross/interactive/index.php HTTP/1.1
Host: gaia.cs.umass.edu
```

by typing this in (hit carriage return twice), you send this minimal (but complete) GET request to HTTP server

3. look at response message sent by HTTP server!

(or use Wireshark to look at captured HTTP request/response)

Esempio Server Web su una macchina

http://130.136.5.36 : 8080/pippo.html

Se sulla porta 8080 non c'è il server aperto (che gira) non c'è il welcoming socket → non posso aprire la connessione

In 130.136.5.36 lancio il file.py che implementa il server sulla porta 8080 sulla cartella webserver/:

webserver/Pluto/ con file pippo.html

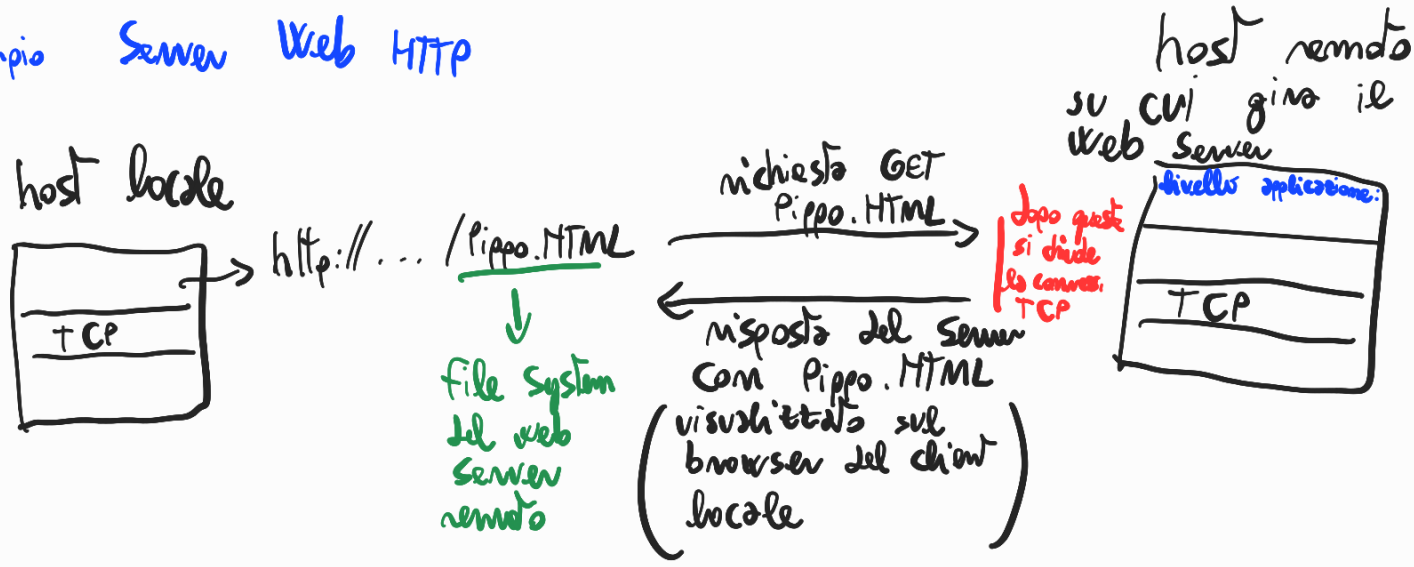
Invio file (telnet)

GET (file.html)
host: (indirizzo IP)

LINK IPERTESTUALE (NAVIGAZIONE IPERTESTUALE)

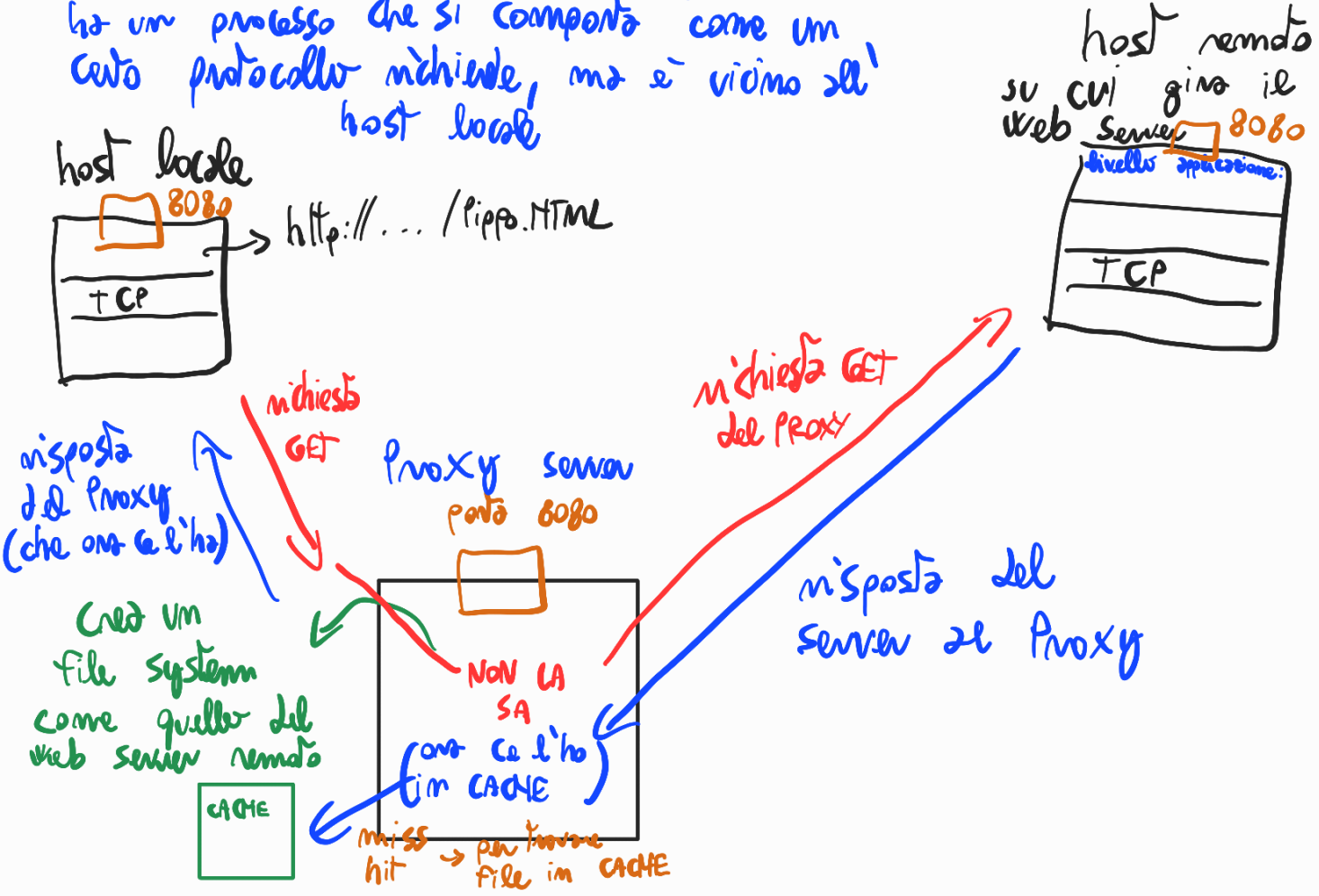
 Clicca qui

Esempio Server Web HTTP



Inserisco un PROXY WEB SERVER

→ Il PROXY è un server di prossimità: ha un processo che si comporta come un certo protocollo richiede, ma è vicino all' host locale



→ Se un utente vuole fare la GET su un file che era già stato richiesto precedentemente (che è presente come copia in CACHE) al Server remoto, ci pensa il Proxy a fornire la risposta

Se il Proxy NON ha il file richiesto (CACHE miss) si comporterà da client e chiederà al web server di fornirgli il file richiesto

(e il Proxy ne avrà una copia in CACHE, immediatamente disponibili per le richieste successive degli utenti di quel file)

VANTAGGI:

→ Velocizza le richieste perché ne ha lle copie il file in CACHE → ci mette poco tempo a gestire le richieste e le risposte

→ Il Proxy anonimizza il client locale che fa la richiesta al server

(Nei log c'è l'indirizzo IP del client)

(L'autorità giudiziaria di un Paese può vedere dentro i log, ma se il paese è diverso, NON può fare niente)

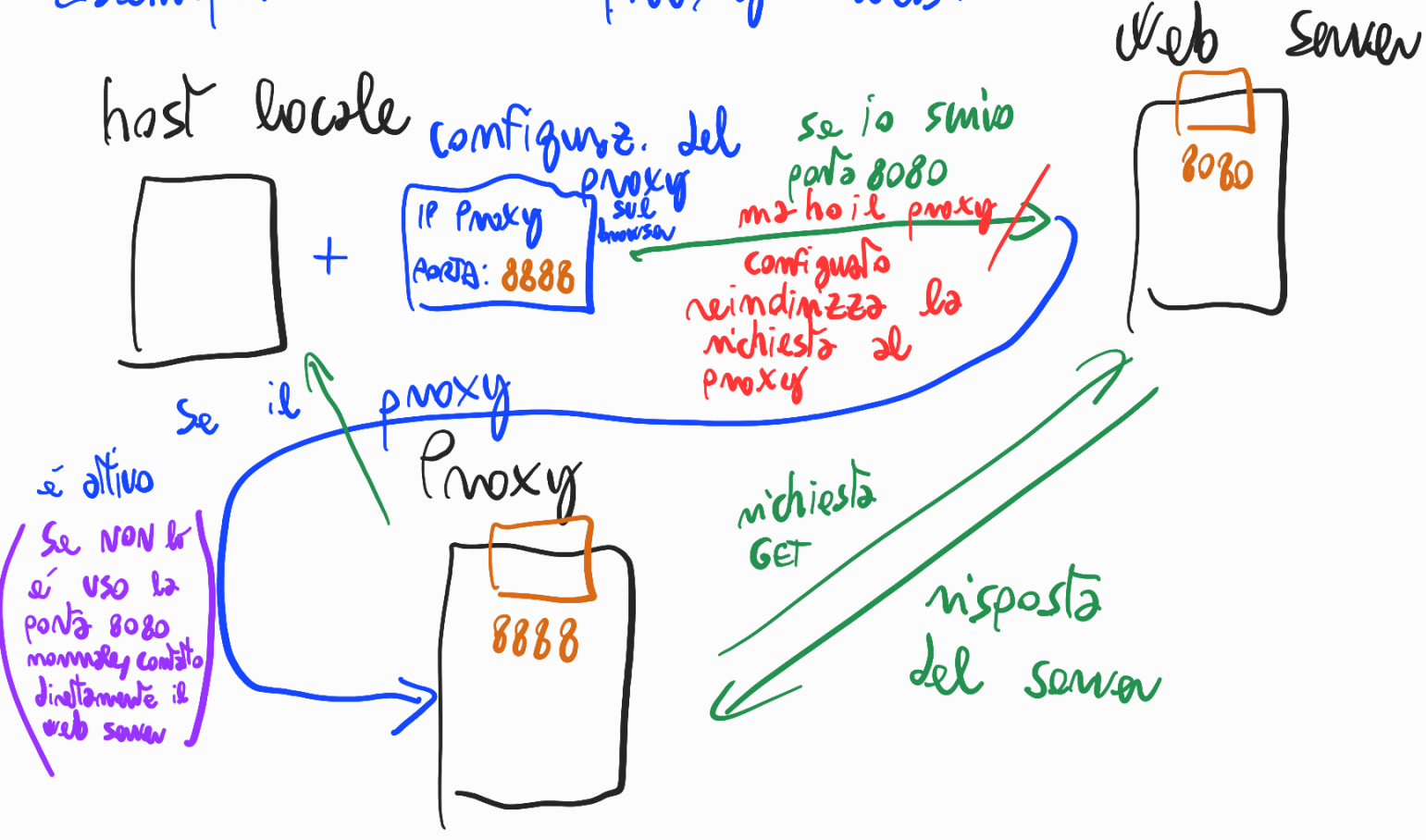
→ Può essere usato per limitare alcune richieste dei client (Es. nelle aziende) verso i server esterni

RISCHI:

MONITORAGGIO per beccarli → si mettono in quarantena i pacchetti sospetti → spesso sono processi criptati che mandano (solo) richieste e NON ricevono mai niente

→ LA CACHE dei PROXY, a livello della PRIVACY, è uno SPYWARE → vede e mantiene tutti i siti visitati da chi, a che ora, ecc...

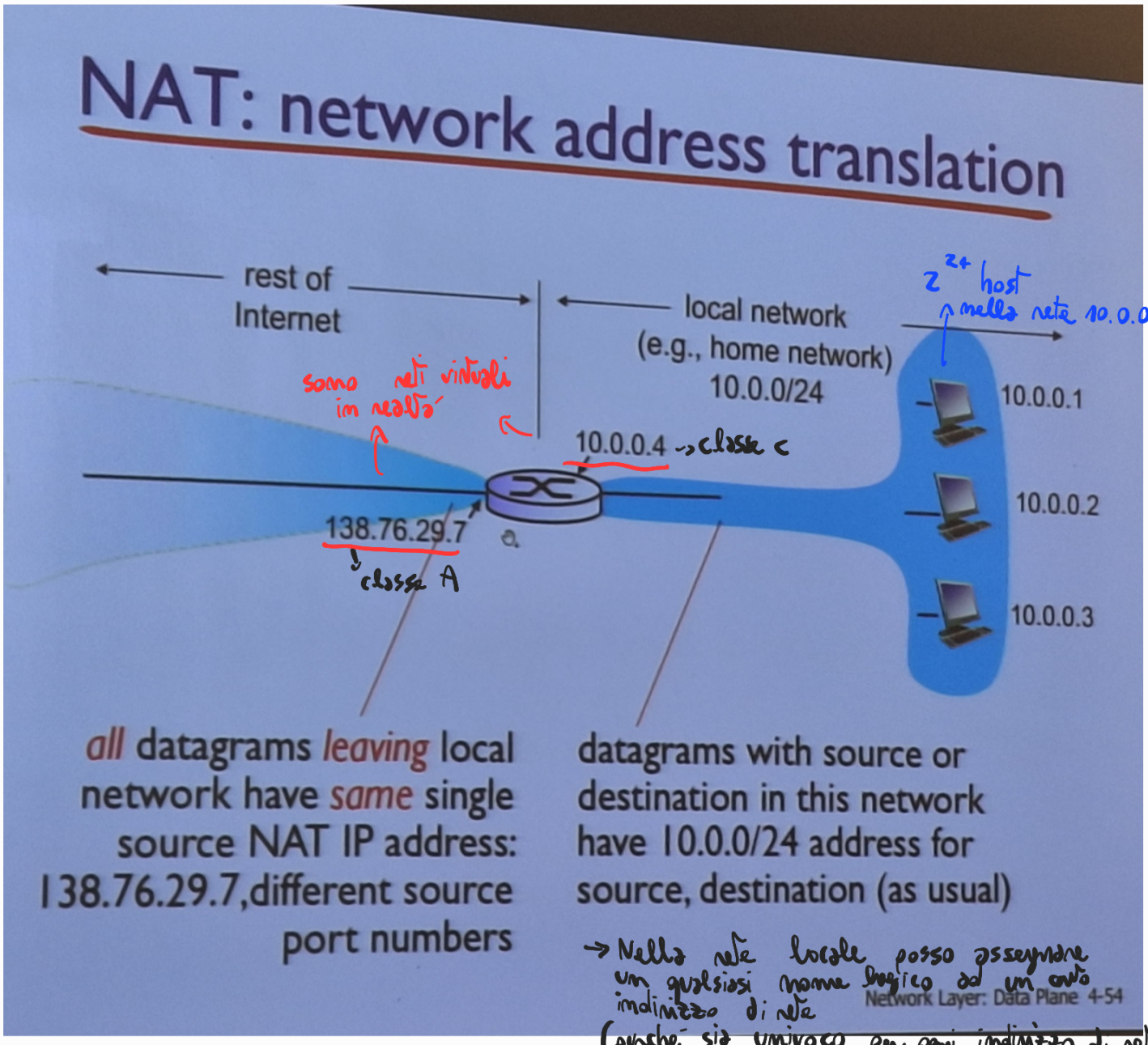
Esempio col proxy Web:



→ Il Proxy invia la risposta al client in hash (stringa alfanumerica)

(chiede di salvarla se il file copia è in CACHE, non vede l'estensione, è in hash)

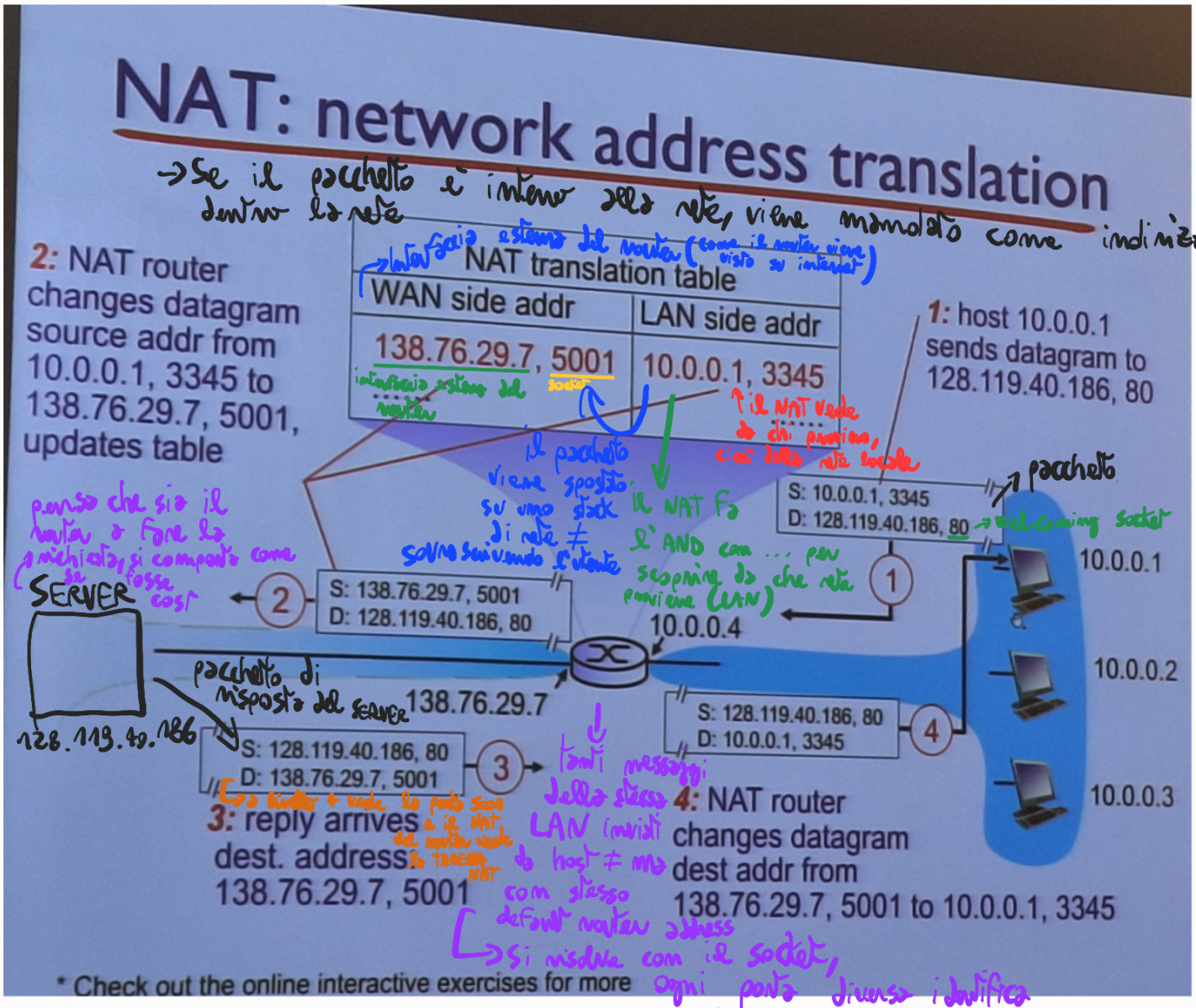
NAT: Network address translation



→ È possibile però grazie al NAT distinguere il nome che usi a "casa tua" (rete locale) rispetto al nome logico che hai su internet

(Questa è l'idea)

→ Parlando con il proprio router padre è possibile perché si è all'interno della stessa rete, ed è lui che si occupa di inoltrare i pacchetti al di fuori della rete locale (internet)



→ La porta sono vista da internet corrisponde ad un certo host locale nella rete LAN (locale)

→ Il router NAT quando riceve la risposta del server la butta nell'interfaccia di rete destra del router NAT (lo traduce) così il pacchetto risposta del server arriva sull'host locale che l'aveva richiesto (10.0.0.1, 3345)

(Se no sembrerebbe che i pacchetti che escono da 138.76.29.7 non si sa che sono host ≠ ad inviarli)

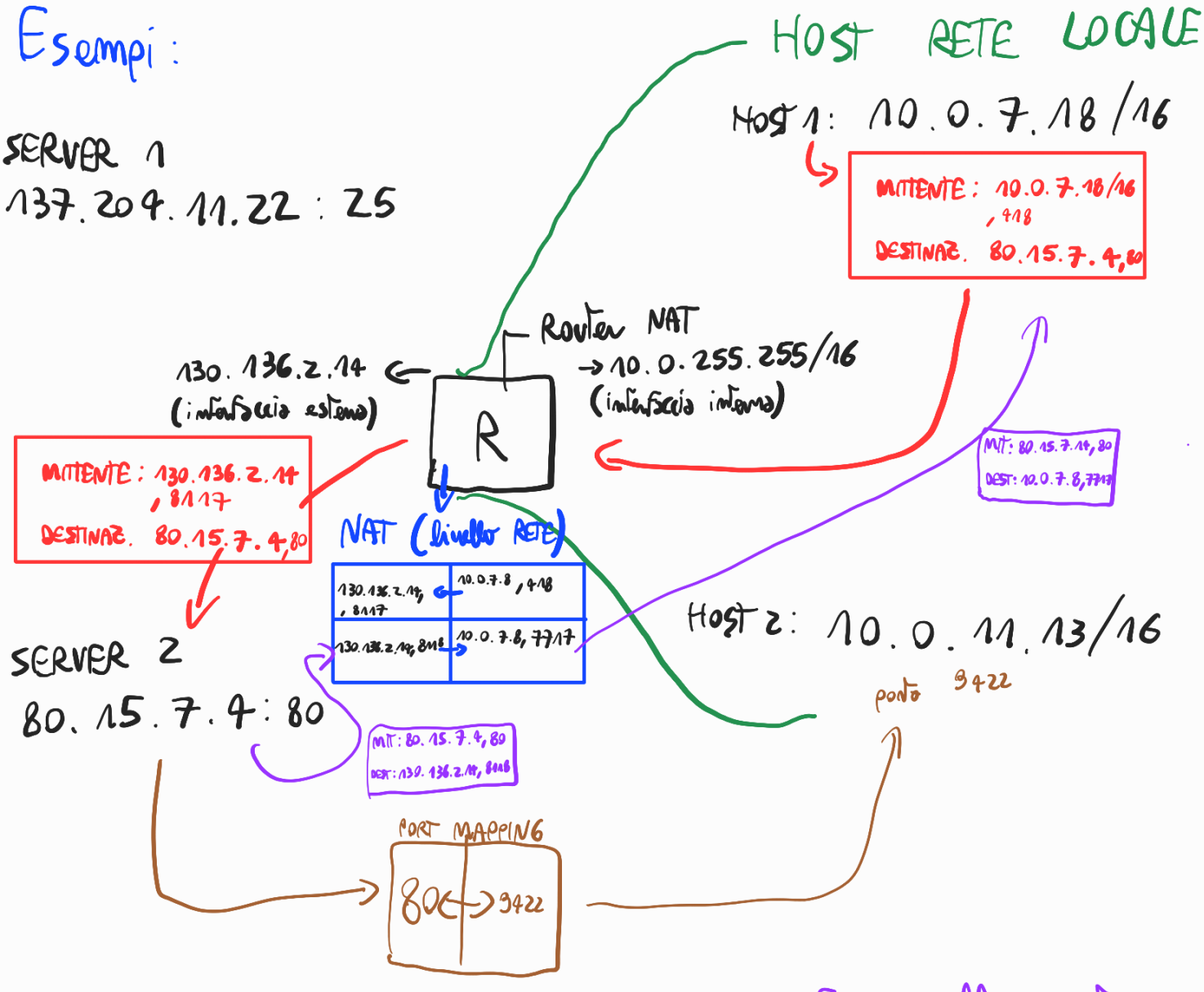
→ NUMERI DI PORTA ≠ (scelti dal router) identificano che provengono da host diversi

NAT: network address translation

- 16-bit port-number field:
  - 60,000 simultaneous connections with a single LAN-side address!
- NAT is controversial:
  - routers should only process up to layer 3
  - address shortage should be solved by IPv6
  - violates end-to-end argument
    - NAT possibility must be taken into account by app designers, e.g., P2P applications
  - NAT traversal: what if client wants to connect to server behind NAT?

Esempi:

SERVER 1
137.204.11.22 : 25



Problema: Raggiungere un server specifico nella rete locale partendo da un server esterno
→ NON riesco!

Soluzione: PORT MAPPING → tabella che traduce la "porta apparente" alla "porta efficace"
(si potrà usare anche per fare "port filtering")

H

User-server state: cookies

many Web sites use cookies

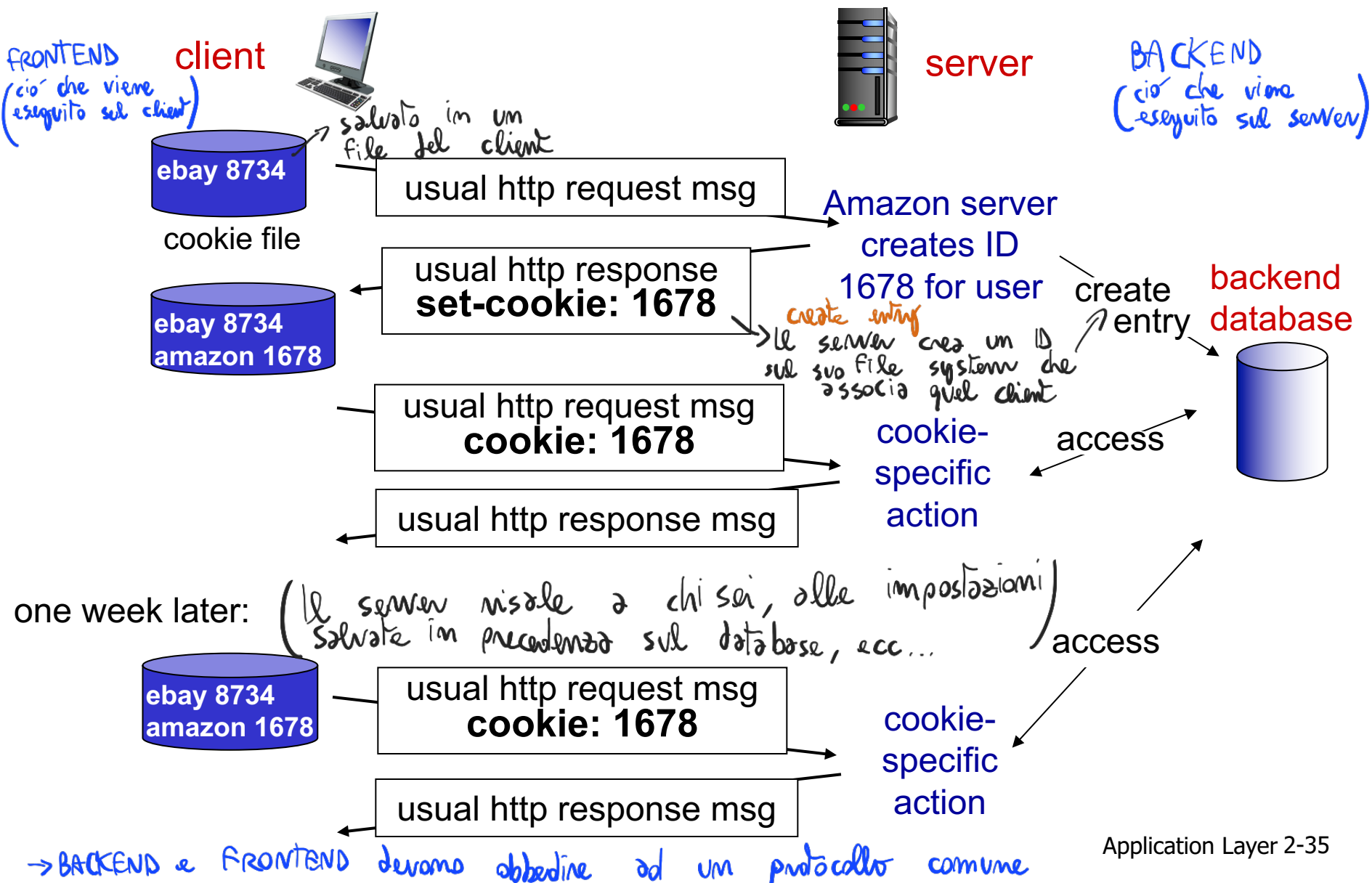
four components:

1) cookie header line of HTTP *response* message
2) cookie header line in next HTTP *request* message
3) cookie file kept on user's host, managed by user's browser
4) back-end database at Web site

example:

- Susan always access Internet from PC
- visits specific e-commerce site for first time
- when initial HTTP requests arrives at site, site creates:
  - unique ID
  - entry in backend database for ID

Cookies: keeping "state" (cont.)



Cookies (continued)

what cookies can be used for:

- authorization
- shopping carts
- recommendations
- user session state (Web e-mail)

aside

cookies and privacy:

- cookies permit sites to learn a lot about you
  - sanno tutto quello che hai fatto su quel sito
- you may supply name and e-mail to sites

how to keep "state":

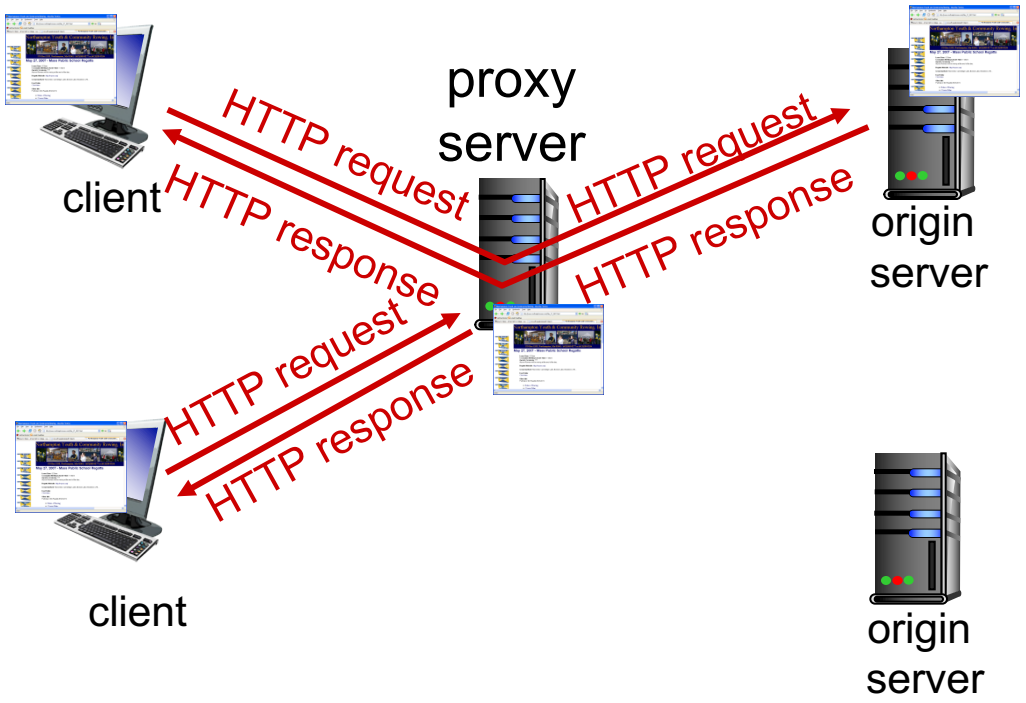
- protocol endpoints: maintain state at sender/receiver over multiple transactions
- cookies: http messages carry state

Web caches (proxy server)

goal: satisfy client request without involving origin server

↳ scarico il server dal lavoro della rete, uso le copie locali e evito di usare la rete, i cookie dei browser, ma il Proxy Server è un potenziale spyware

- user sets browser: Web accesses via cache
- browser sends all HTTP requests to cache
  - object in cache: cache returns object
  - else cache requests object from origin server, then returns object to client



More about Web caching

- cache acts as both client and server
  - server for original requesting client
  - client to origin server
- typically cache is installed by ISP (university, company, residential ISP)

why Web caching?

- reduce response time for client request
- reduce traffic on an institution's access link
- Internet dense with caches: enables "poor" content providers to effectively deliver content (so too does P2P file sharing)

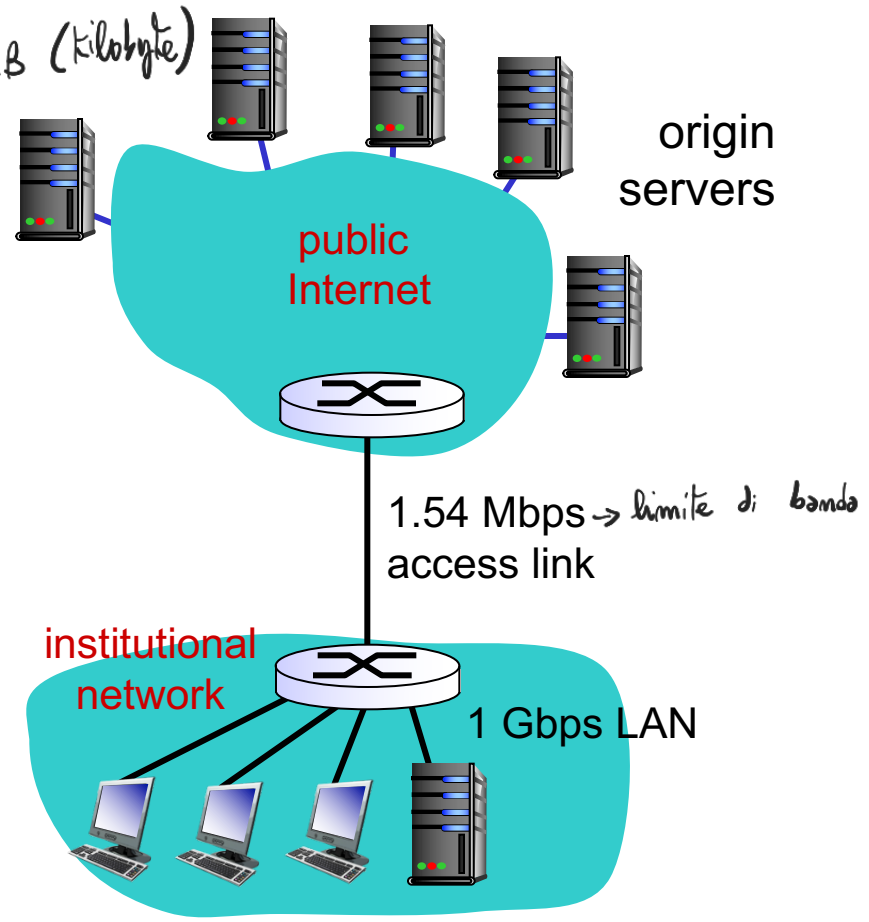
(Esercizio tipo da esame / prova pratica)

Caching example:

→ Modellazione di un sistema di rete che va reso conforme a certi requisiti

assumptions:

- avg (media / average) object size: 100K bits → 100/8 ho i KB (kilobyte)
- avg request rate from browsers to origin servers: 15/sec
- avg data rate (verso il browser) to browsers: 1.50 Mbps
- RTT (round trip time) from institutional router to any origin server: 2 sec
- access link rate: 1.54 Mbps



consequences:

- LAN utilization: 15%
- access link utilization = 99% *problem!*
- total delay = Internet delay + access delay + LAN delay
  = 2 sec + minutes + usecs

Caching example: fatter access link

assumptions:

- avg object size: 100K bits
- avg request rate from browsers to origin servers:15/sec
- avg data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps
- RTT from institutional router to any origin server: 2 sec
- access link rate: ~~1.54 Mbps~~ 154 Mbps

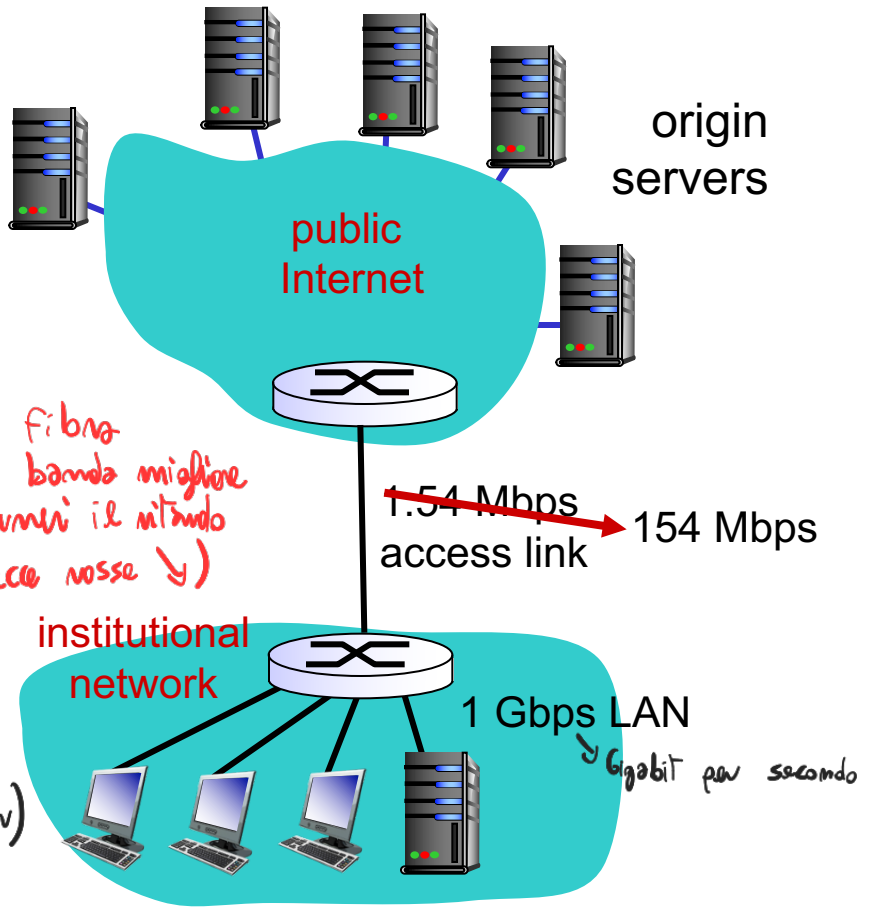
se usassi una fibra o una banda migliore ridurrei il ritardo (frecce rosse ↘)

consequences:

- LAN utilization: 15%
- access link utilization = ~~99%~~ 9.9%
- total delay = Internet delay + access delay + LAN delay (trascurato il ritardo dei server)
  = 2 sec + ~~minutes~~ + usecs
  ↓
  msecs

ritardo totale ←

Se fossero secondi, sarebbe gestibile ma essendo minuti è un ritardo gravi



Cost: increased access link speed (not cheap!)

Caching example: install local cache

→ Local cache: riduce i costi dell'infrastruttura di rete ma ne aumenta l'efficienza

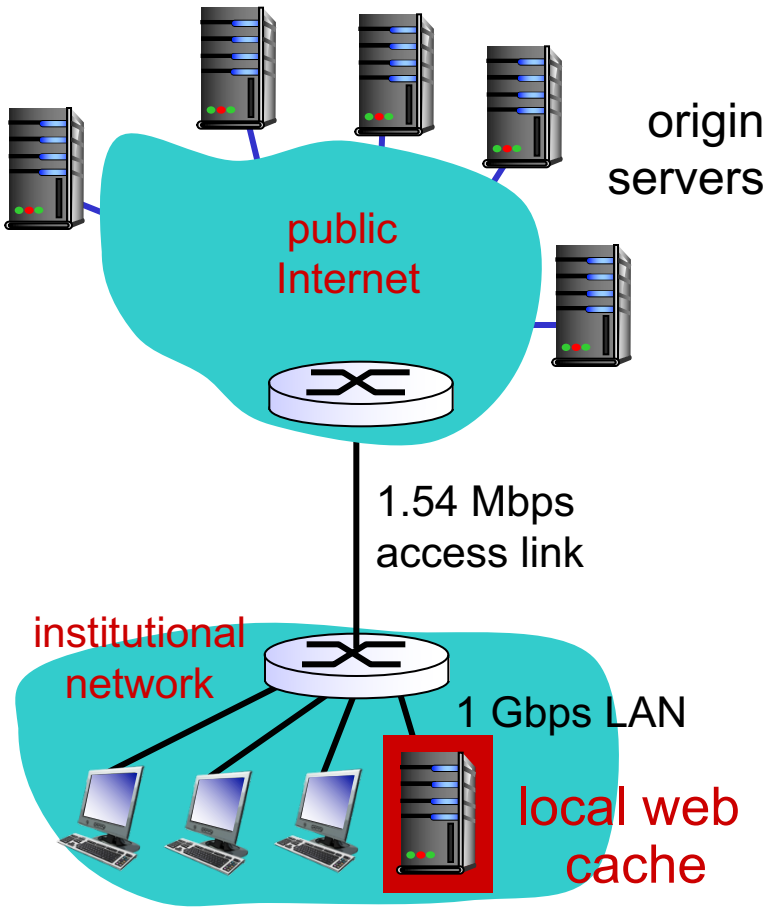
assumptions:

- avg object size: 100K bits
- avg request rate from browsers to origin servers: 15/sec
- avg data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps
- RTT from institutional router to any origin server: 2 sec
- access link rate: 1.54 Mbps

consequences:

- LAN utilization: 15%
- access link utilization = ?
- total delay = ?

How to compute link utilization, delay?



Cost: web cache (cheap!)

Con la web cache

$$\overline{T} = t_{LAN} + (hit) \cdot t_{LAN} + (1 - hit) \cdot (t_{access\_link} + t_{INTERNET} + t_{INTERNET} + t_{ACCESS} + t_{LAN})$$

- t_{LAN}: paga il t_{LAN} per arrivare in web cache
- t_{LAN}: TEMPO di attraversamento della LAN
- (hit): hit rate nella web cache, $0 \leq bit \leq 1$ (0 c'è 1 o non c'è 0)
- t_{access_link}: vo in internet
- $t_{INTERNET}$: devo attendere t_{LAN} per restituire la risposta
- $t_{INTERNET}$: devo tornare nella LAN per fornire la risposta
- t_{ACCESS}
- t_{LAN}
- $(1 - hit)$: se c'è l'hit → c'è cache miss

L'idea per avere un web server funzionante ed efficiente è di avere un hit ratio molto alto (cache hit nel web server)

→ Se uso l'effetto "slashdotted" è una rete, è opportuno usare una web cache

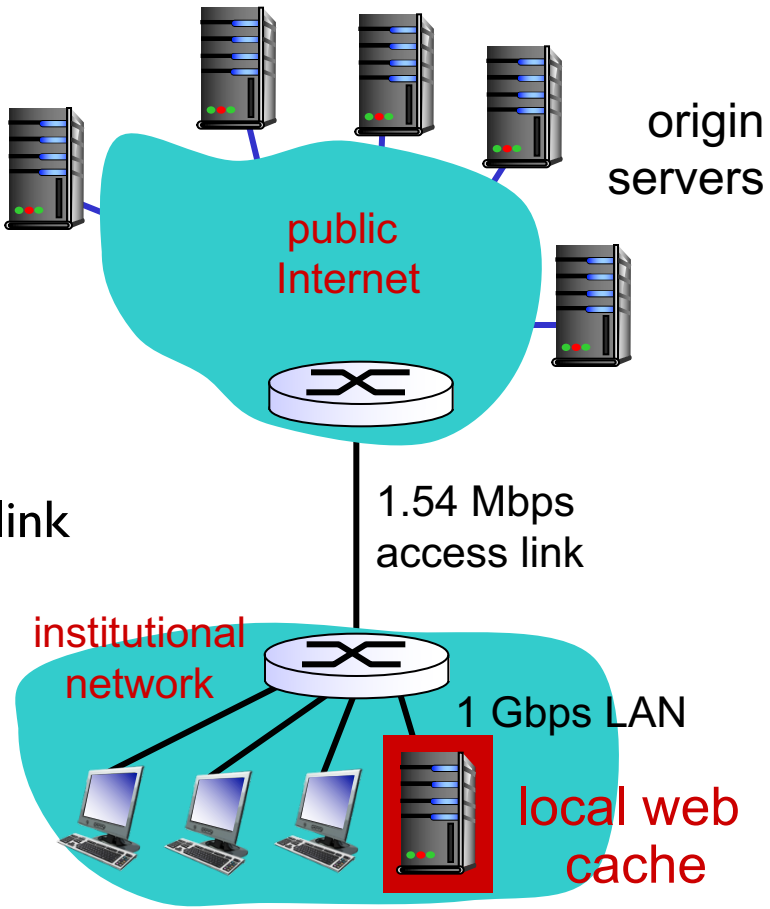
→ Se c'è l'"effetto slashdotted" ma il file richiesto da molti (quindi presente in cache) è frequentemente soggetto a modifiche il web server dovrà richiederlo aggiornato su internet continuamente

Caching example: install local cache

Calculating access link utilization, delay with cache:

- suppose cache hit rate is 0.4
  - 40% requests satisfied at cache, 60% requests satisfied at origin
- access link utilization:
  - 60% of requests use access link
- data rate to browsers over access link

  = 0.6*1.50 Mbps = .9 Mbps
  - utilization = 0.9/1.54 = .58
- total delay
  - = 0.6 * (delay from origin servers) +0.4 * (delay when satisfied at cache)
  - = 0.6 (2.01) + 0.4 (~msecs) = ~ 1.2 secs
  - less than with 154 Mbps link (and cheaper too!)



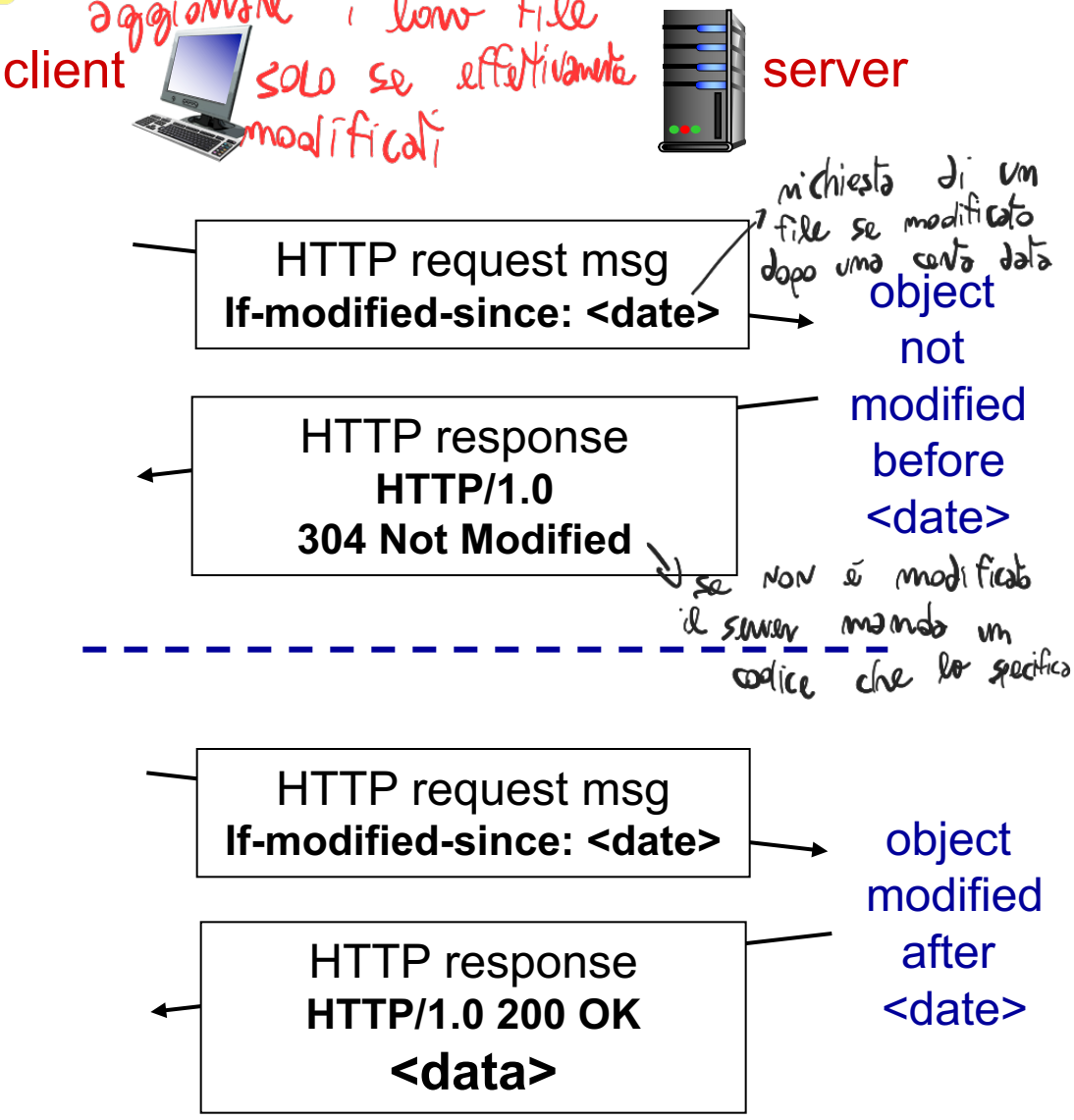
Conditional GET

Si usa perché il browser e il proxy web server possono periodicamente aggiornare i loro file solo se effettivamente modificati

- *Goal:* don't send object if cache has up-to-date cached version
  - no object transmission delay
  - lower link utilization
- *cache:* specify date of cached copy in HTTP request

  `If-modified-since: <date>`
- *server:* response contains no object if cached copy is up-to-date:

  `HTTP/1.0 304 Not Modified`



Chapter 2: outline

2.1 principles of network applications

2.2 Web and HTTP

2.3 electronic mail

- SMTP, POP3, IMAP

2.4 DNS

2.5 P2P applications

2.6 video streaming and content distribution networks

2.7 socket programming with UDP and TCP

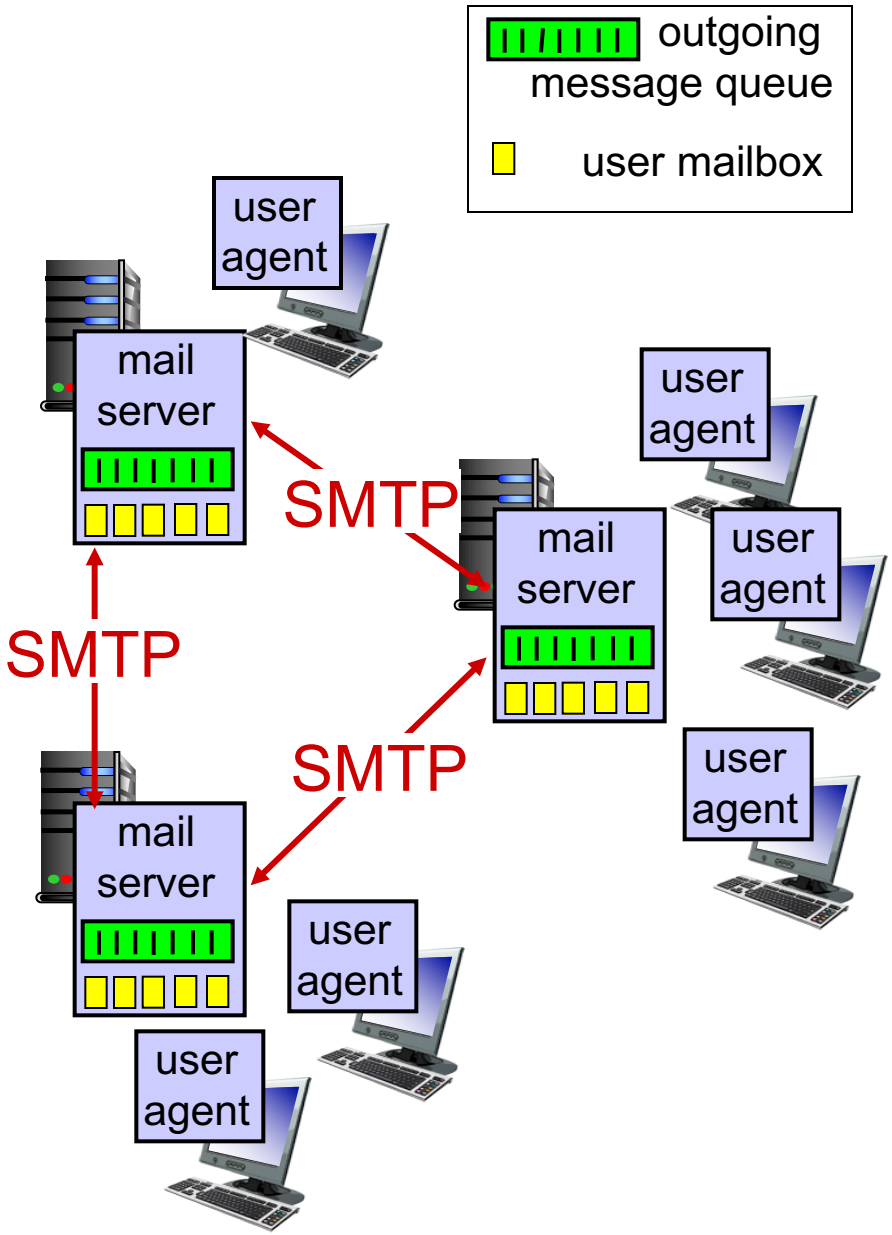
Electronic mail

Three major components:

- user agents
- mail servers
- simple mail transfer protocol: SMTP

User Agent

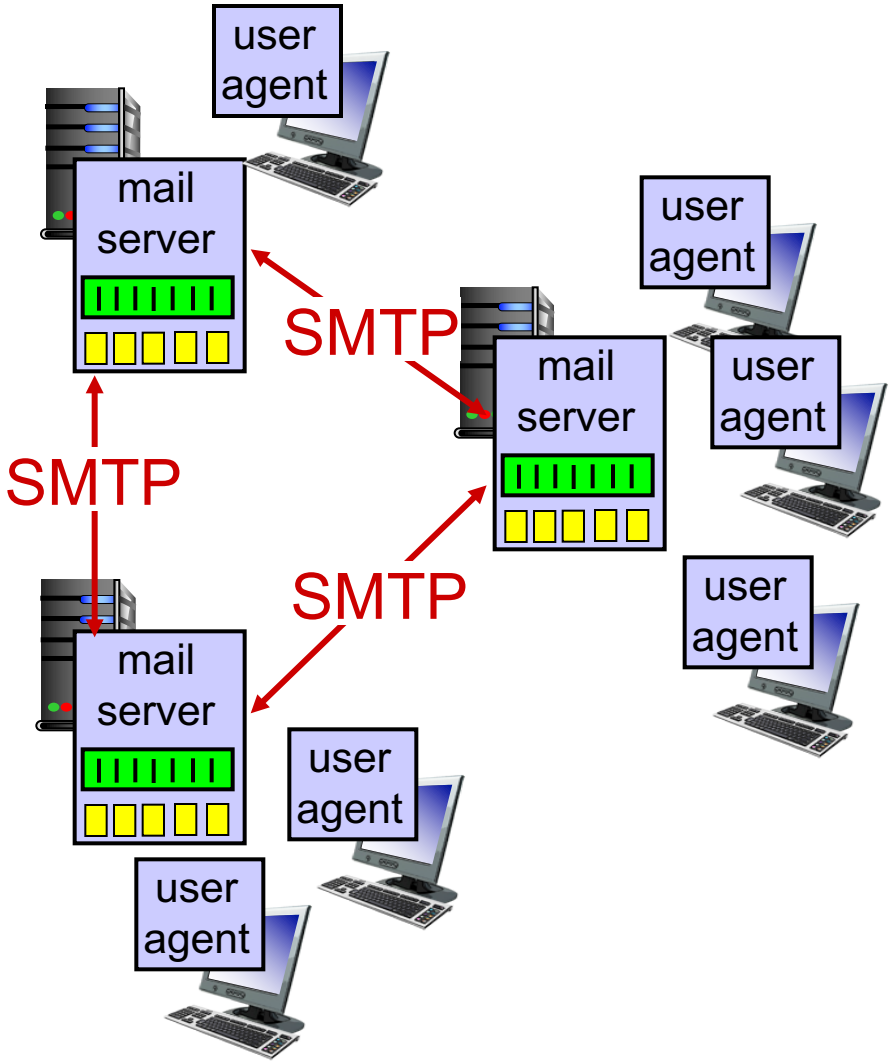
- a.k.a. "mail reader"
- composing, editing, reading mail messages
- e.g., Outlook, Thunderbird, iPhone mail client
- outgoing, incoming messages stored on server



Electronic mail: mail servers

mail servers:

- *mailbox* contains incoming messages for user
- *message queue* of outgoing (to be sent) mail messages
- *SMTP protocol* between mail servers to send email messages
  - client: sending mail server
  - "server": receiving mail server



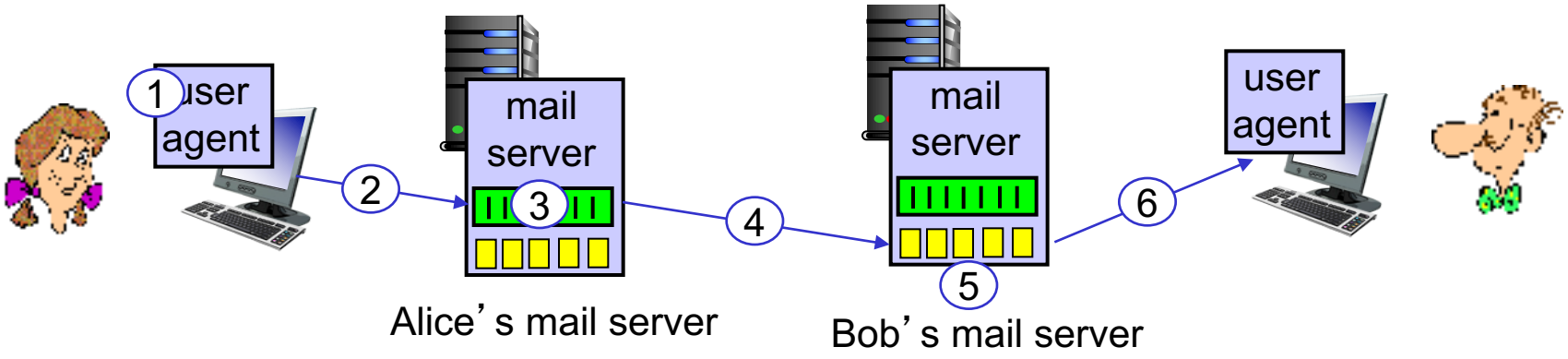
Electronic Mail: SMTP [RFC 2821]

Documentazione

- uses TCP to reliably transfer email message from client to server, port 25
- direct transfer: sending server to receiving server
- three phases of transfer
  - handshaking (greeting)
  - transfer of messages
  - closure
- command/response interaction (like HTTP)
  - commands: ASCII text
  - response: status code and phrase
- messages must be in 7-bit ASCI

Scenario: Alice sends message to Bob

1) Alice uses UA to compose message "to" `bob@someschool.edu`
2) Alice's UA sends message to her mail server; message placed in message queue
3) client side of SMTP opens TCP connection with Bob's mail server
4) SMTP client sends Alice's message over the TCP connection
5) Bob's mail server places the message in Bob's mailbox
6) Bob invokes his user agent to read message



Sample SMTP interaction

```
S: 220 hamburger.edu
C: HELO crepes.fr
S: 250  Hello crepes.fr, pleased to meet you
C: MAIL FROM: <alice@crepes.fr>
S: 250 alice@crepes.fr... Sender ok
C: RCPT TO: <bob@hamburger.edu>
S: 250 bob@hamburger.edu ... Recipient ok
C: DATA
S: 354 Enter mail, end with "." on a line by itself
C: Do you like ketchup?
C: How about pickles?
C: .
S: 250 Message accepted for delivery
C: QUIT
S: 221 hamburger.edu closing connection
```

Try SMTP interaction for yourself:

- **`telnet servername 25`**
- see 220 reply from server
- enter HELO, MAIL FROM, RCPT TO, DATA, QUIT commands

above lets you send email without using email client (reader)

SMTP: final words

- SMTP uses persistent connections
- SMTP requires message (header & body) to be in 7-bit ASCII
- SMTP server uses `CRLF.CRLF` to determine end of message

comparison with HTTP:

- HTTP: pull
- SMTP: push
- both have ASCII command/response interaction, status codes
- HTTP: each object encapsulated in its own response message
- SMTP: multiple objects sent in multipart message

Mail message format

SMTP: protocol for exchanging email messages

RFC 822: standard for text message format:

- header lines, e.g.,
  - To:
  - From:
  - Subject:

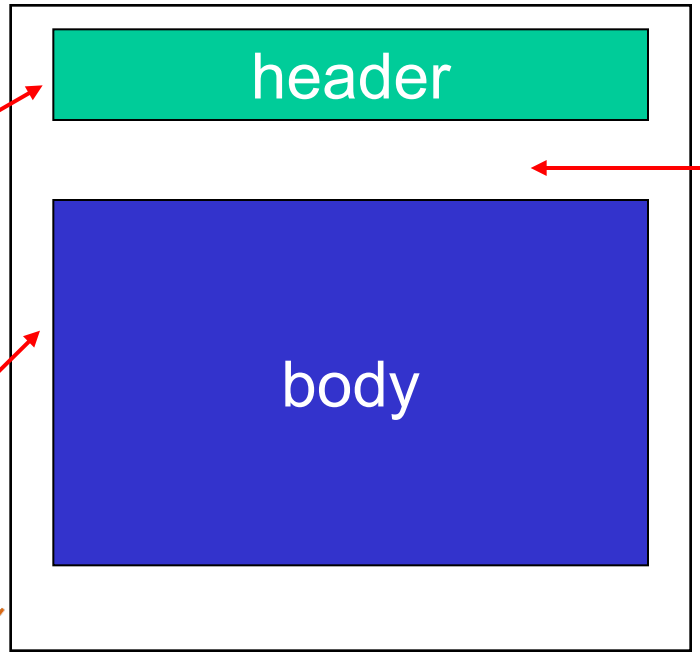
  visibile all'utente (dialogo con l'utente)

  different *from* SMTP MAIL FROM, RCPT TO: commands!

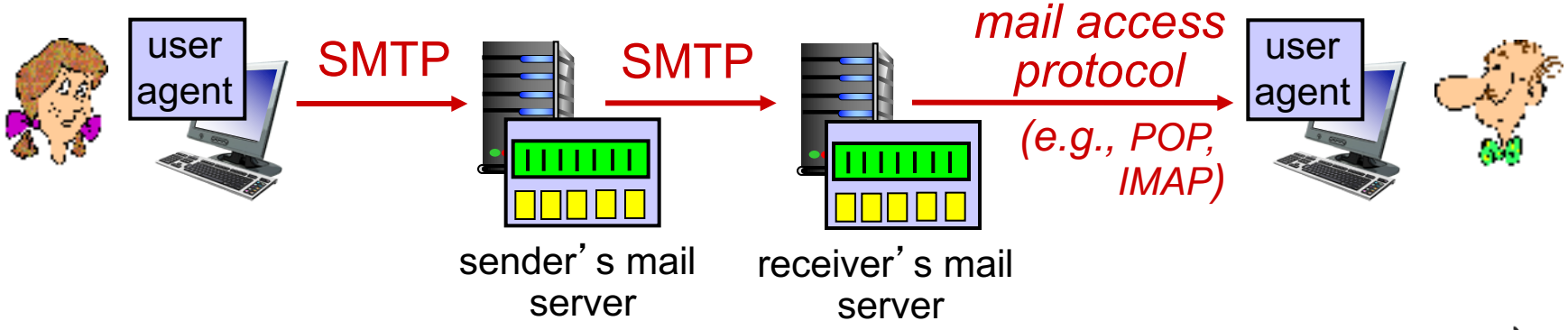
  visibile al server (dialogo con il server)

- Body: the "message"
  - ASCII characters only

  -> '.' di terminazione del body



Mail access protocols



- SMTP: delivery/storage to receiver's server (lo recapita nel proprio mail server (mailer))
- mail access protocol: retrieval from server
  - POP: Post Office Protocol [RFC 1939]: authorization, download
  - IMAP: Internet Mail Access Protocol [RFC 1730]: more features, including manipulation of stored messages on server
  - HTTP: gmail, Hotmail, Yahoo! Mail, etc. → Protocolli per le web mail

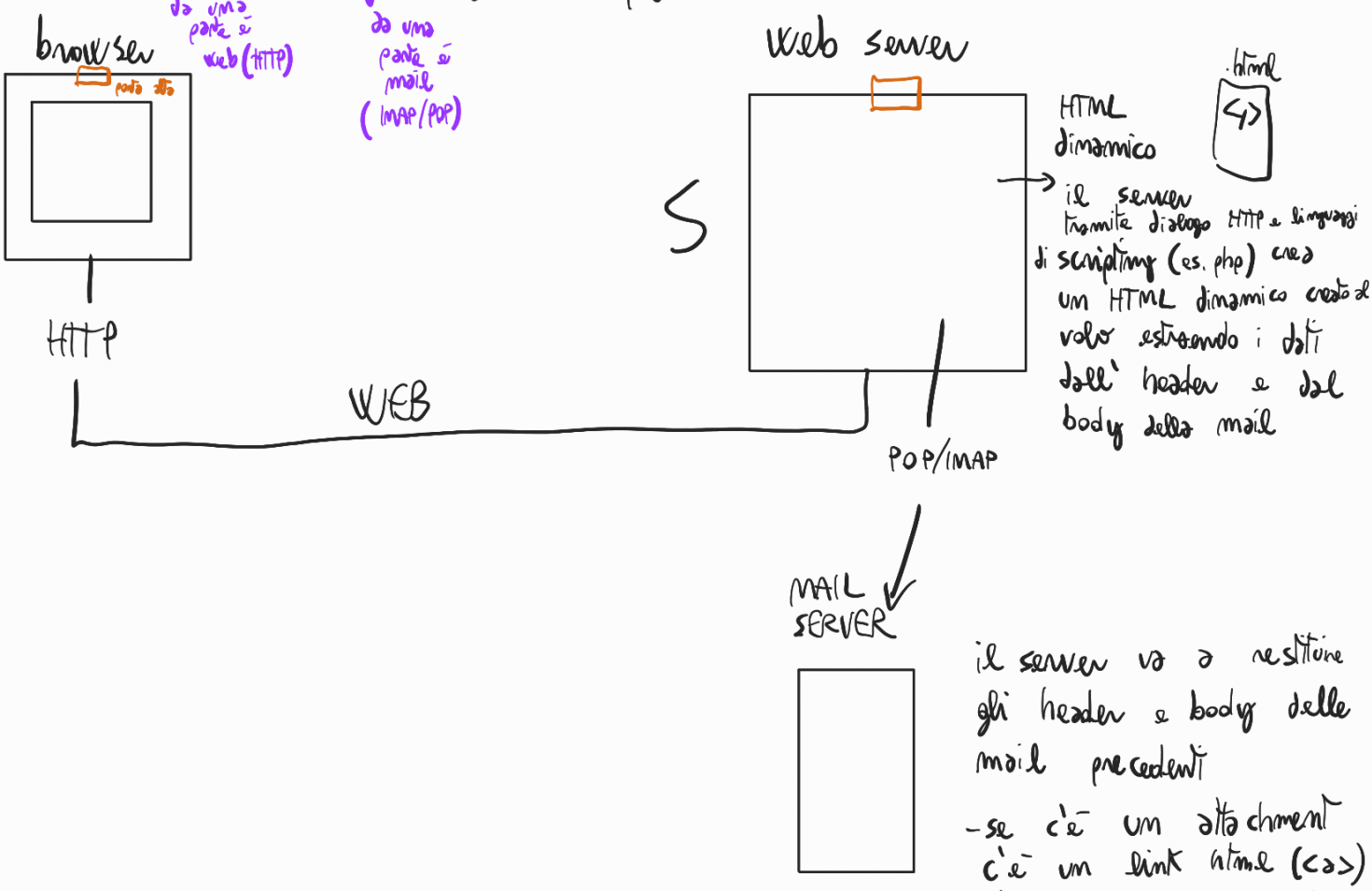
protocolli che si aggiungono a SMPT per estendere il servizio di posta elettronica

fanno le stesse cose ma POP è meno efficiente

modificano, leggono e gestiscono le mail e la casella di posta

SMTP recapita e spedisce le nuove mail

Protocollo HTTP : web mail → è la composizione di una interfaccia di mail per



il server va a restituire gli header e body delle mail precedenti

- se c'è un attachment c'è un link html (<a>) che viene messo nell' HTML dinamico

POP3 protocol

authorization phase

- client commands:
  - **`user`**: declare username
  - **`pass`**: password
- server responses
  - **`+OK`**
  - **`-ERR`**

transaction phase, client:

- **`list`**: list message numbers
- **`retr`**: retrieve message by number
- **`dele`**: delete
- **`quit`**

```
S: +OK POP3 server ready
C: user bob
S: +OK
C: pass hungry
S: +OK user successfully logged on
```

```
C: list
S: 1 498
S: 2 912
S: .
C: retr 1
S: <message 1 contents>
S: .
C: dele 1
C: retr 2
S: <message 1 contents>
S: .
C: dele 2
C: quit
S: +OK POP3 server signing off
```

POP3 (more) and IMAP

more about POP3

- previous example uses POP3 "download and delete" mode
  - Bob cannot re-read e-mail if he changes client
- POP3 "download-and-keep": copies of messages on different clients
- POP3 is stateless across sessions

IMAP

- keeps all messages in one place: at server
- allows user to organize messages in folders
- keeps user state across sessions:
  - names of folders and mappings between message IDs and folder name

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DNS: domain name system

è il meccanismo che traduce il name di risorse di dominio in indirizzo IP & viceversa

people: many identifiers:

- SSN, name, passport #

Internet hosts, routers:

- IP address (32 bit) - used for addressing datagrams
- "name", e.g., www.yahoo.com - used by humans

Q: how to map between IP address and name, and vice versa ?

Es. www.yahoo.com

www: nome della macchina

yahoo: nome della rete

authoritative domain

top level domain (.suffisso finale)

Domain Name System:

- *distributed database* implemented in hierarchy of many *name servers*
- *application-layer protocol:* hosts, name servers communicate to *resolve* names (address/name translation)
  - note: core Internet function, implemented as application-layer protocol
  - complexity at network's "edge"

→ DNS: protocollo che risolve richieste di risoluzione di domini – indirizzi IP e viceversa

DNS: services, structure

DNS services

- hostname to IP address translation
- host aliasing
  - canonical, alias names
- mail server aliasing
- load distribution
  - replicated Web servers: many IP addresses correspond to one name

why not centralize DNS?

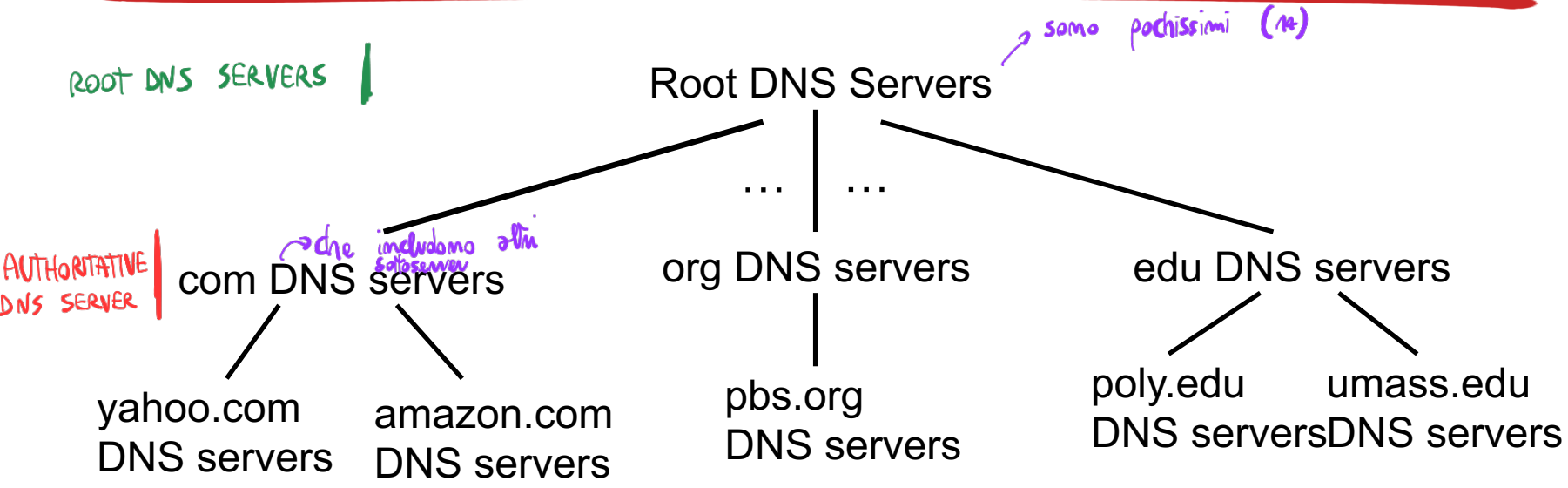
- single point of failure
- traffic volume → troppo dalla rete ad una specifica macchina
- distant centralized database
- maintenance

A: doesn't scale!

servizio di alias

- ALIAS: definito in un record del DNS che associa i nomi ad una macchina con un certo nome (conosciuto da un altro record del DNS) ad uno stesso indirizzo IP

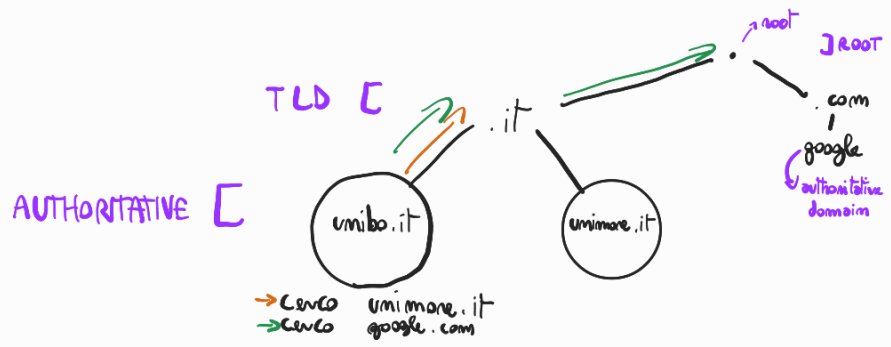
DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database



client wants IP for www.amazon.com; 1st approximation:

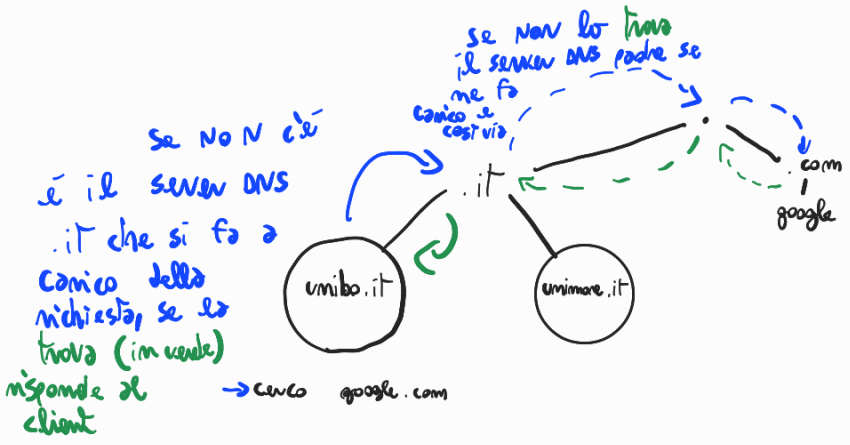
- client queries root server to find com DNS server
- client queries .com DNS server to get amazon.com DNS server
- client queries amazon.com DNS server to get IP address for www.amazon.com

ITERATIVE DNS



→ALLEVIA il lavoro dei server e aumenta di molto caricando il client

RECURSIVE DNS



→ALLEVIA IL LAVORO dei client, aumenta quello dei server

Se uso un web cache

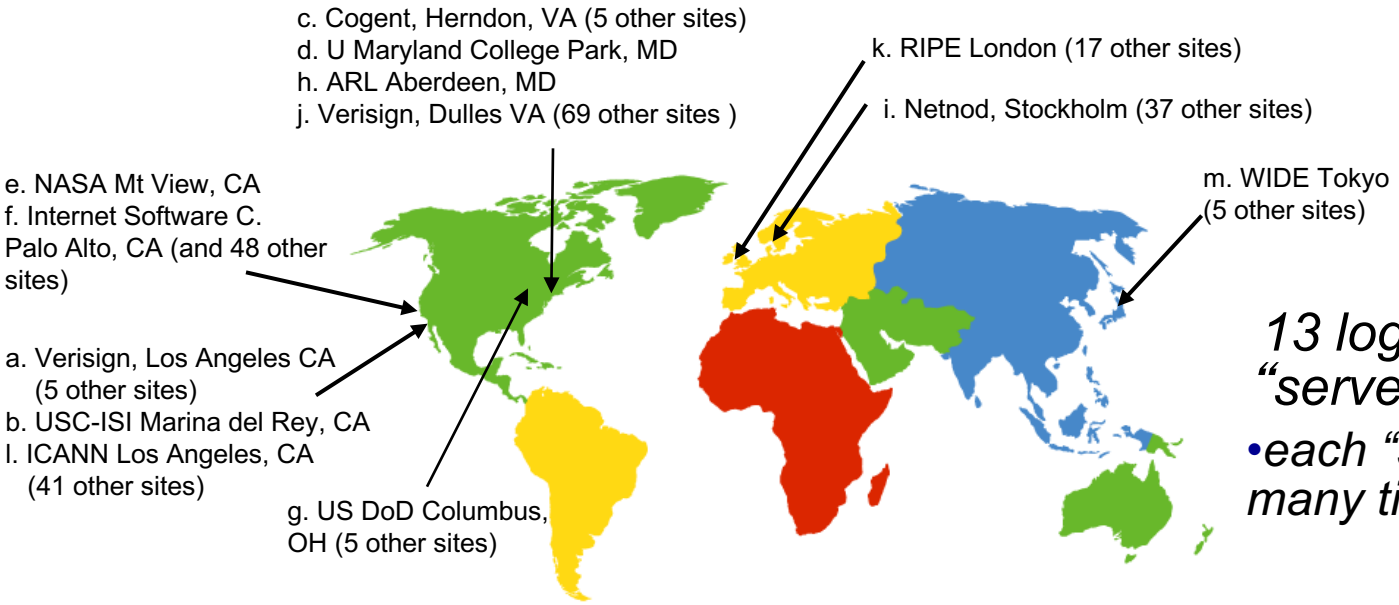
→ Se una macchina é obsoleta, la richiesta NON viene soddisfatta (web cache inutile)

→ DNS cache poisoning: in un server si salva un indirizzo errato in cache e questo errore si propaga anche nei server DNS collegati nella sotto-gerarchia del "server avvelenato" che può risolvere un certo indirizzo IP errato e quindi la richiesta NON viene soddisfatta (non viene risolto il domain name - indirizzo IP)

→ Il DNS è molto utile, ma una macchina potrebbe navigare su INTERNET anche senza (basterebbe ricordarsi il preciso indirizzo IP)

DNS: root name servers

- contacted by local name server that can not resolve name
- root name server:
  - contacts authoritative name server if name mapping not known
  - gets mapping
  - returns mapping to local name server



13 logical root name "servers" worldwide

- *each "server" replicated many times*

TLD, authoritative servers

top-level domain (TLD) servers:

- responsible for com, org, net, edu, aero, jobs, museums, and all top-level country domains, e.g.: uk, fr, ca, jp
- Network Solutions maintains servers for .com TLD
- Educause for .edu TLD

authoritative DNS servers:

- organization's own DNS server(s), providing authoritative hostname to IP mappings for organization's named hosts
- can be maintained by organization or service provider

Local DNS name server

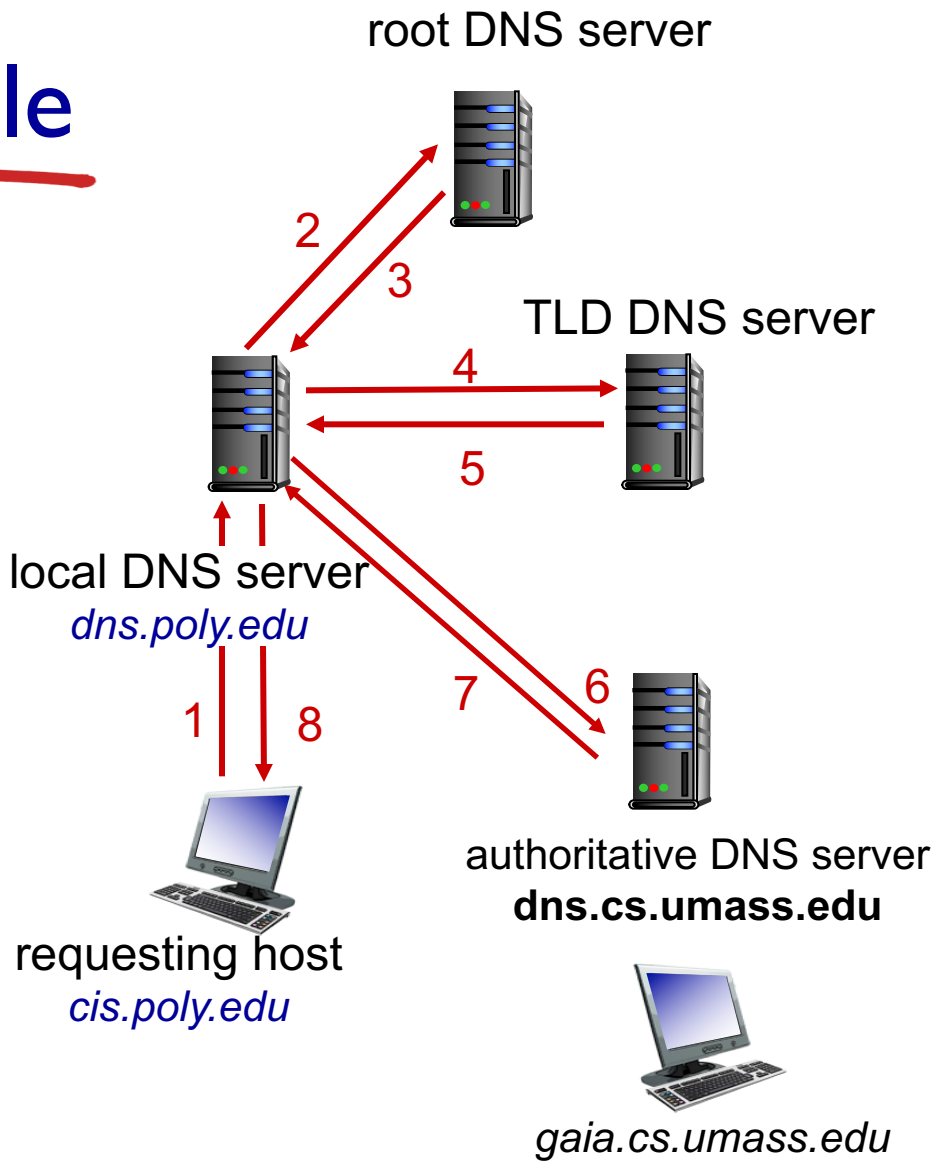
- does not strictly belong to hierarchy
- each ISP (residential ISP, company, university) has one
  - also called "default name server"
- when host makes DNS query, query is sent to its local DNS server
  - has local cache of recent name-to-address translation pairs (but may be out of date!)
  - acts as proxy, forwards query into hierarchy

DNS name resolution example

- host at cis.poly.edu wants IP address for gaia.cs.umass.edu

iterated query:

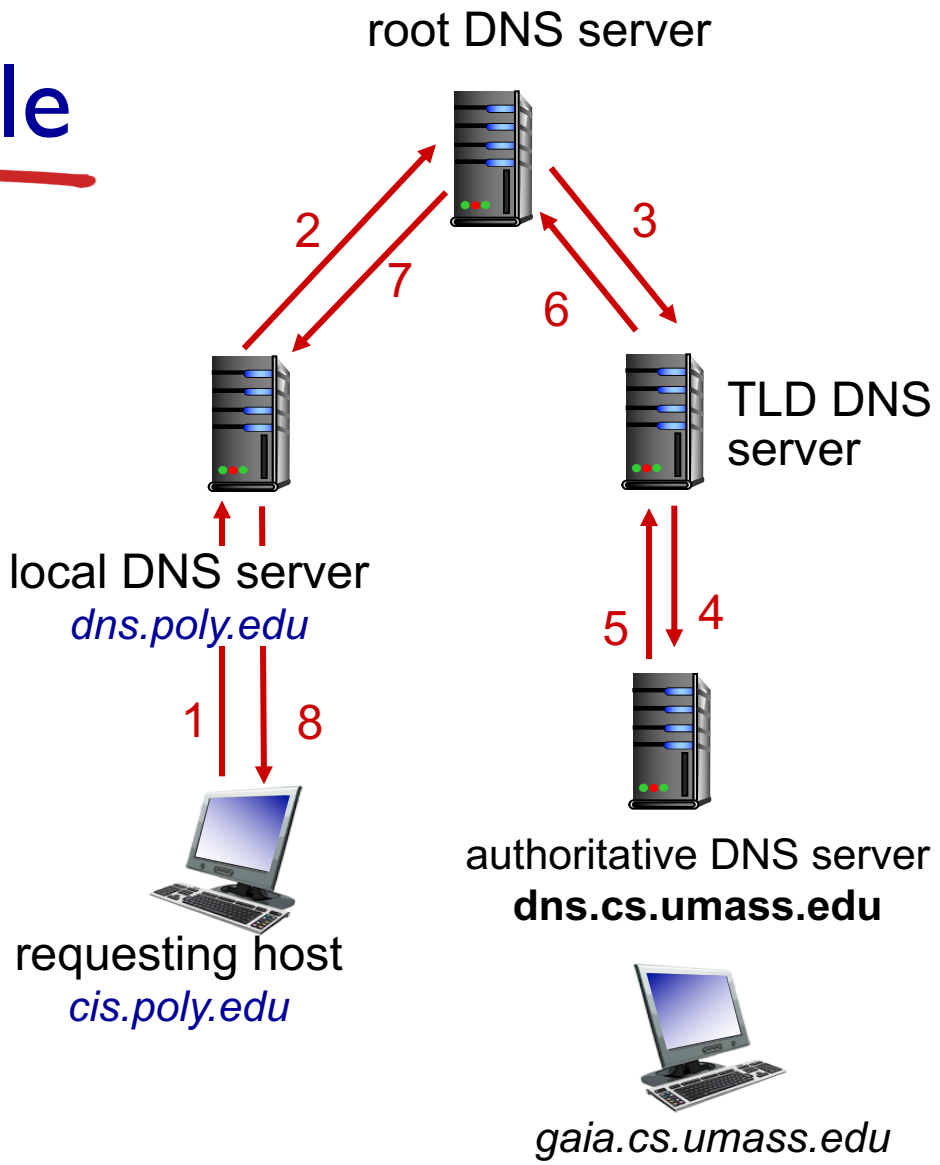
- contacted server replies with name of server to contact
- "I don't know this name, but ask this server"



DNS name resolution example

recursive query:

- puts burden of name resolution on contacted name server
- heavy load at upper levels of hierarchy?



DNS: caching, updating records

- once (any) name server learns mapping, it *caches* mapping
  - cache entries timeout (disappear) after some time (TTL)
  - TLD servers typically cached in local name servers
    - thus root name servers not often visited
- cached entries may be *out-of-date* (best effort name-to-address translation!)
  - if name host changes IP address, may not be known Internet-wide until all TTLs expire
- update/notify mechanisms proposed IETF standard
  - RFC 2136

→ Il DNS è un DATABASE

DNS records

DNS: distributed database storing resource records (RR)

RR format: `(name, value, type, ttl)` (ttl: time to leave)

Ci sono almeno quattro tipi di RECORD: A, NS, CNAME, MX

type=A

- **`name`** is hostname
- **`value`** is IP address

type=NS

- **`name`** is domain (e.g., foo.com)
- **`value`** is hostname of authoritative name server for this domain

type=CNAME

- **`name`** is alias name for some "canonical" (the real) name
- **`www.ibm.com`** is really **`servereast.backup2.ibm.com`**
- **`value`** is canonical name

type=MX

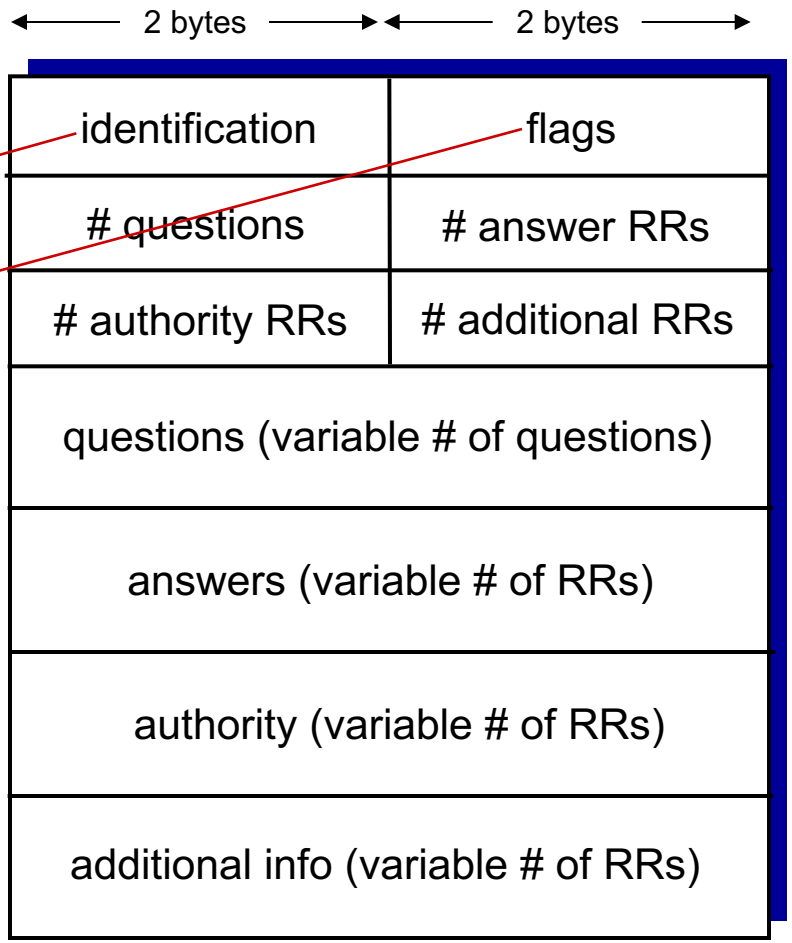
- **`value`** is name of mailserver associated with **`name`**

DNS protocol, messages

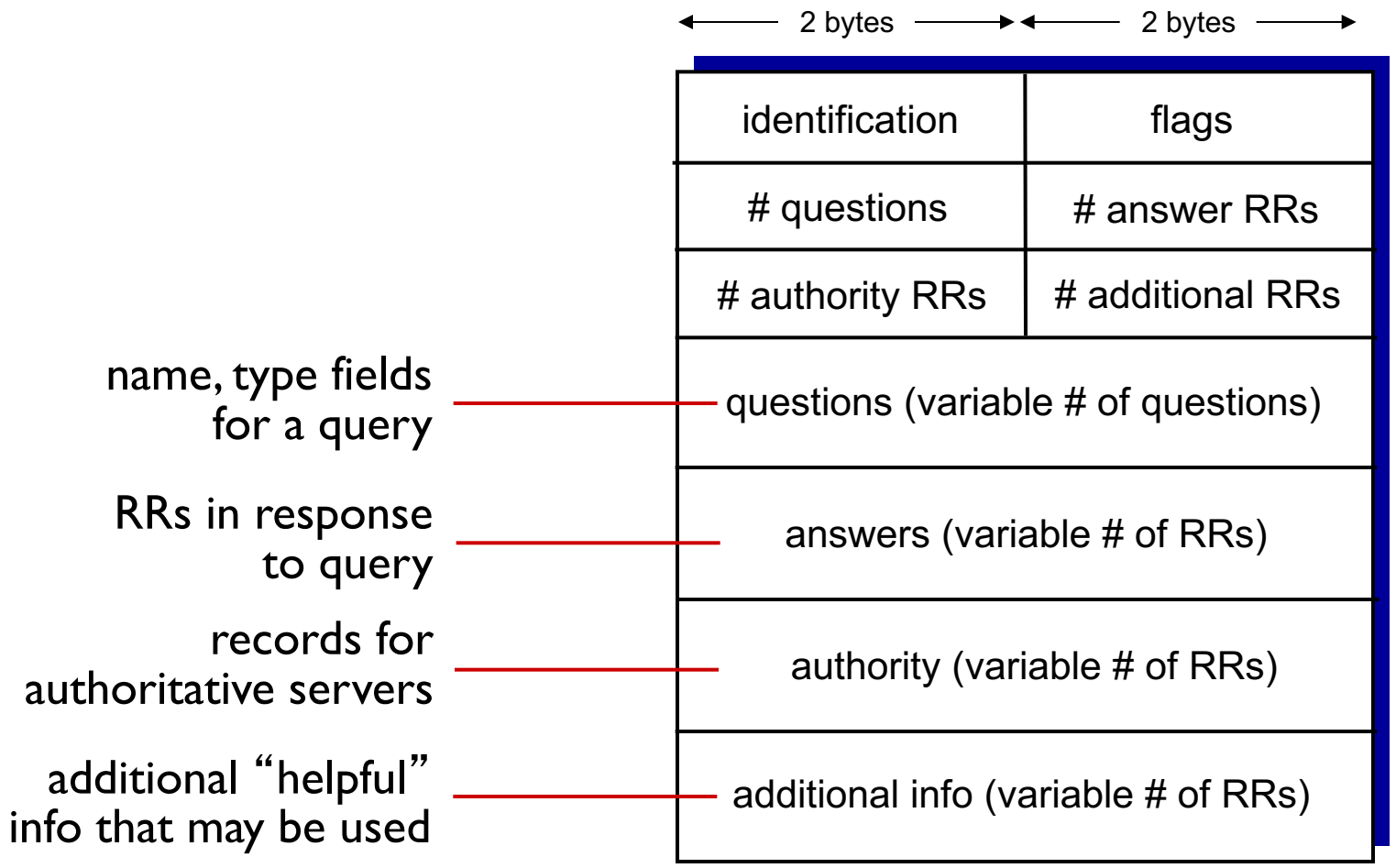
- *query* and *reply* messages, both with same *message format*

message header

- identification: 16 bit # for query, reply to query uses same #
- flags:
  - query or reply
  - recursion desired
  - recursion available
  - reply is authoritative



DNS protocol, messages



Inserting records into DNS

- example: new startup "Network Utopia"
- register name networkuptopia.com at *DNS registrar* (e.g., Network Solutions)
  - provide names, IP addresses of authoritative name server (primary and secondary)
  - registrar inserts two RRs into .com TLD server:
    `(networkutopia.com, dns1.networkutopia.com, NS)`
    `(dns1.networkutopia.com, 212.212.212.1, A)`
- create authoritative server type A record for www.networkuptopia.com; type MX record for networkutopia.com

Attacking DNS

DDoS attacks

- bombard root servers with traffic
  - not successful to date
  - traffic filtering
  - local DNS servers cache IPs of TLD servers, allowing root server bypass
- bombard TLD servers
  - potentially more dangerous

redirect attacks

- man-in-middle
  - Intercept queries
- DNS poisoning
  - Send bogus relies to DNS server, which caches

exploit DNS for DDoS

- send queries with spoofed source address: target IP
- requires amplification

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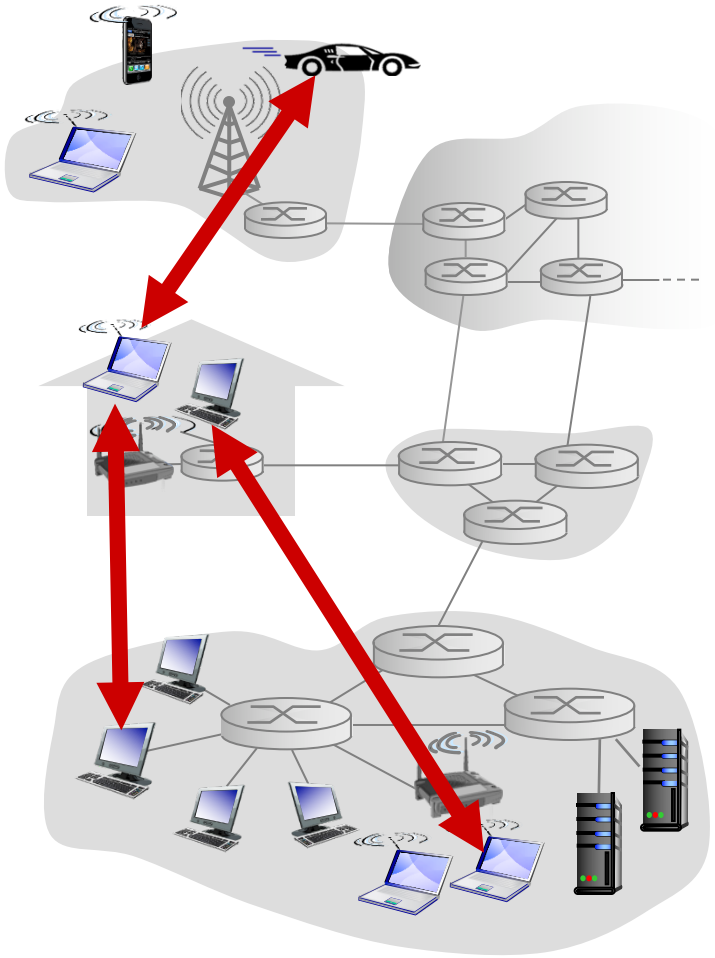
Pure P2P architecture

- *no* always-on server
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- peers are intermittently connected and change IP addresses

examples:

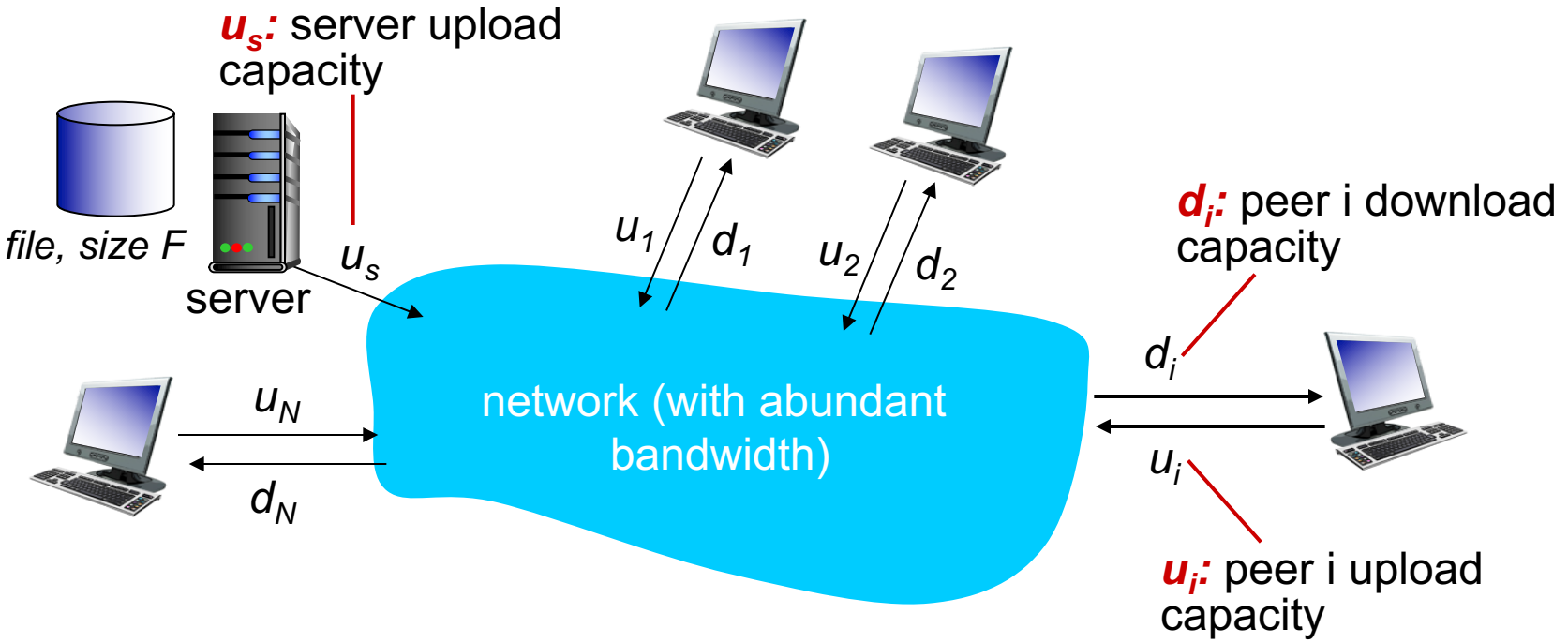
- file distribution (BitTorrent)
- Streaming (KanKan)
- VoIP (Skype)



File distribution: client-server vs P2P

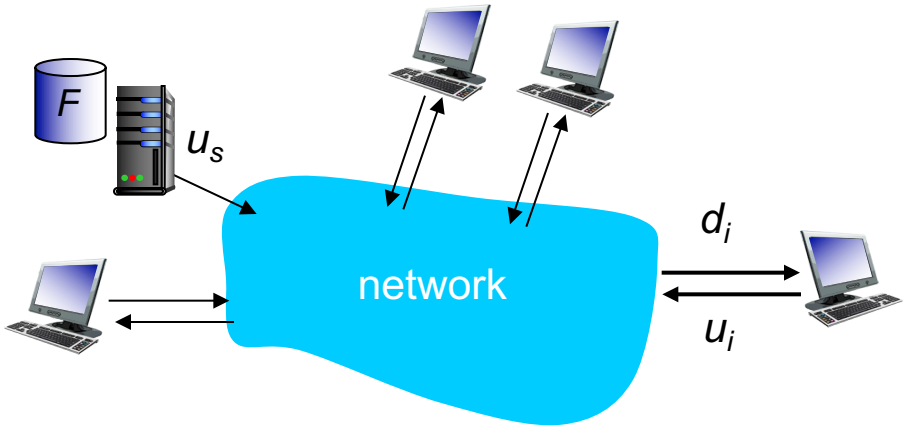
Question: how much time to distribute file (size *F*) from one server to *N* peers?

- peer upload/download capacity is limited resource



File distribution time: client-server

- *server transmission:* must sequentially send (upload) *N* file copies:
  - time to send one copy: F/u_s
  - time to send *N* copies: NF/u_s
- *client:* each client must download file copy
  - d_{min} = min client download rate
  - min client download time: F/d_{min}



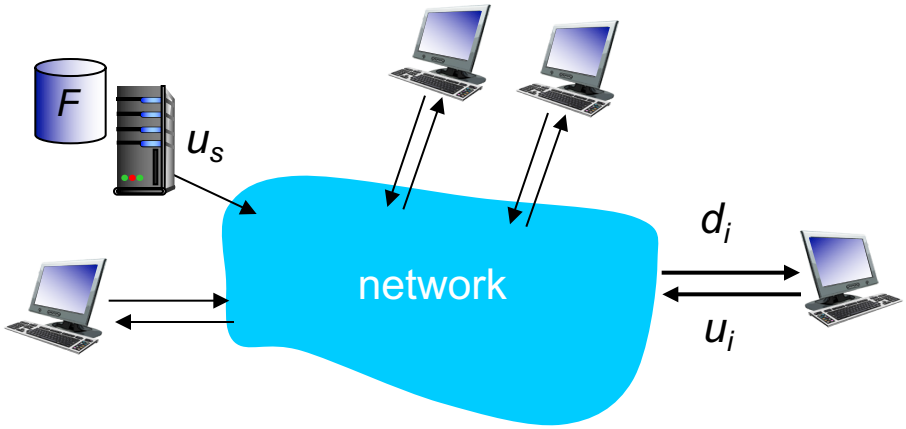
time to distribute F to N clients using client-server approach

$$D_{c\text{-}s} \geq max\{NF/u_s, F/d_{min}\}$$

increases linearly in N

File distribution time: P2P

- *server transmission:* must upload at least one copy
  - time to send one copy: F/u_s
- *client:* each client must download file copy
  - min client download time: F/d_{min}
- *clients:* as aggregate must download NF bits
  - max upload rate (limiting max download rate) is $u_s + \Sigma u_i$



time to distribute F to N clients using P2P approach

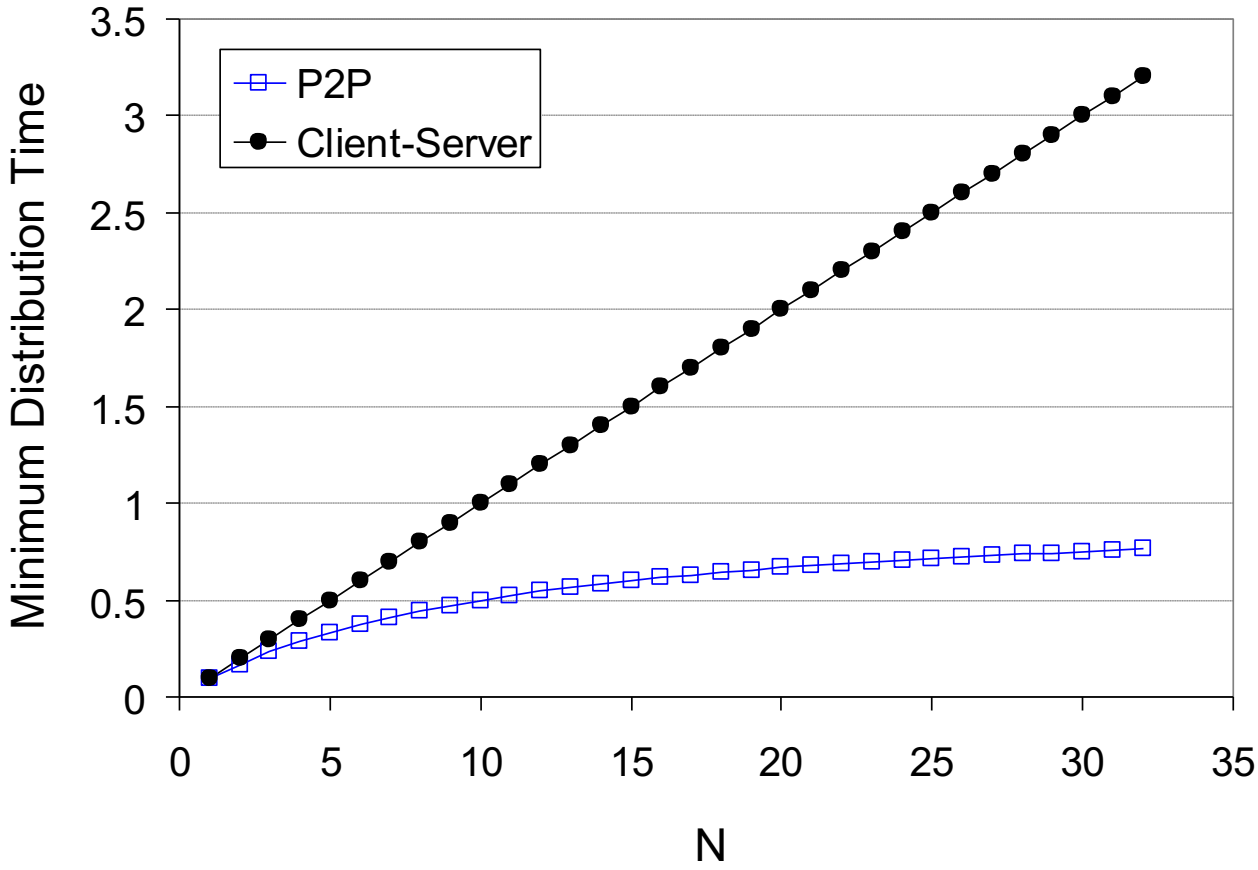
$$D_{P2P} \geq max\{F/u_s, F/d_{min}, NF/(u_s + \Sigma u_i)\}$$

increases linearly in N …

… but so does this, as each peer brings service capacity

Client-server vs. P2P: example

client upload rate = u, F/u = 1 hour, $u_s = 10u$, $d_{min} \geq u_s$

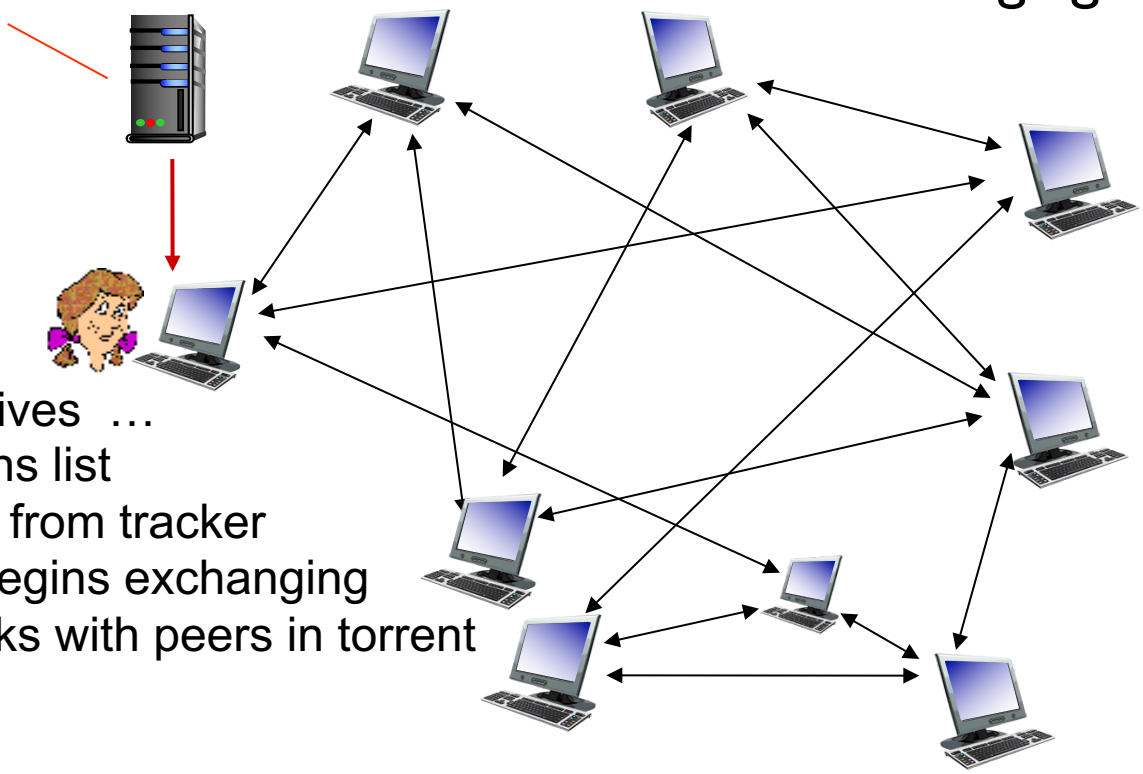


P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

- file divided into 256Kb chunks
- peers in torrent send/receive file chunks

tracker: tracks peers participating in torrent

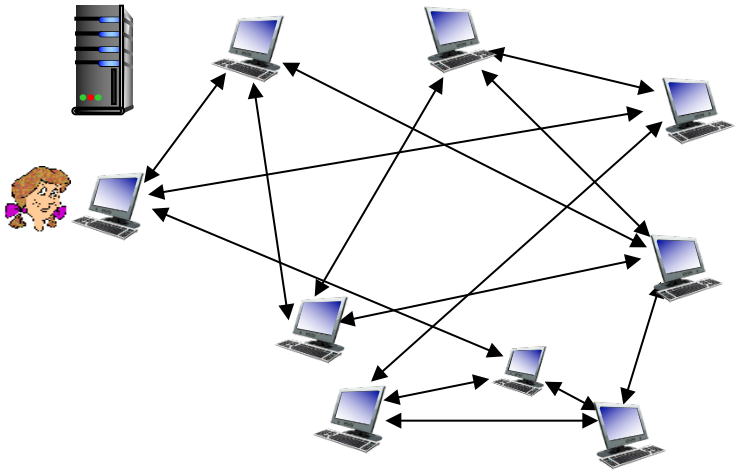
torrent: group of peers exchanging chunks of a file



Alice arrives …
… obtains list
of peers from tracker
… and begins exchanging
file chunks with peers in torrent

P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

- peer joining torrent:
  - has no chunks, but will accumulate them over time from other peers
  - registers with tracker to get list of peers, connects to subset of peers ("neighbors")



- while downloading, peer uploads chunks to other peers
- peer may change peers with whom it exchanges chunks
- *churn:* peers may come and go
- once peer has entire file, it may (selfishly) leave or (altruistically) remain in torrent

BitTorrent: requesting, sending file chunks

requesting chunks:

- at any given time, different peers have different subsets of file chunks
- periodically, Alice asks each peer for list of chunks that they have
- Alice requests missing chunks from peers, rarest first

sending chunks: tit-for-tat

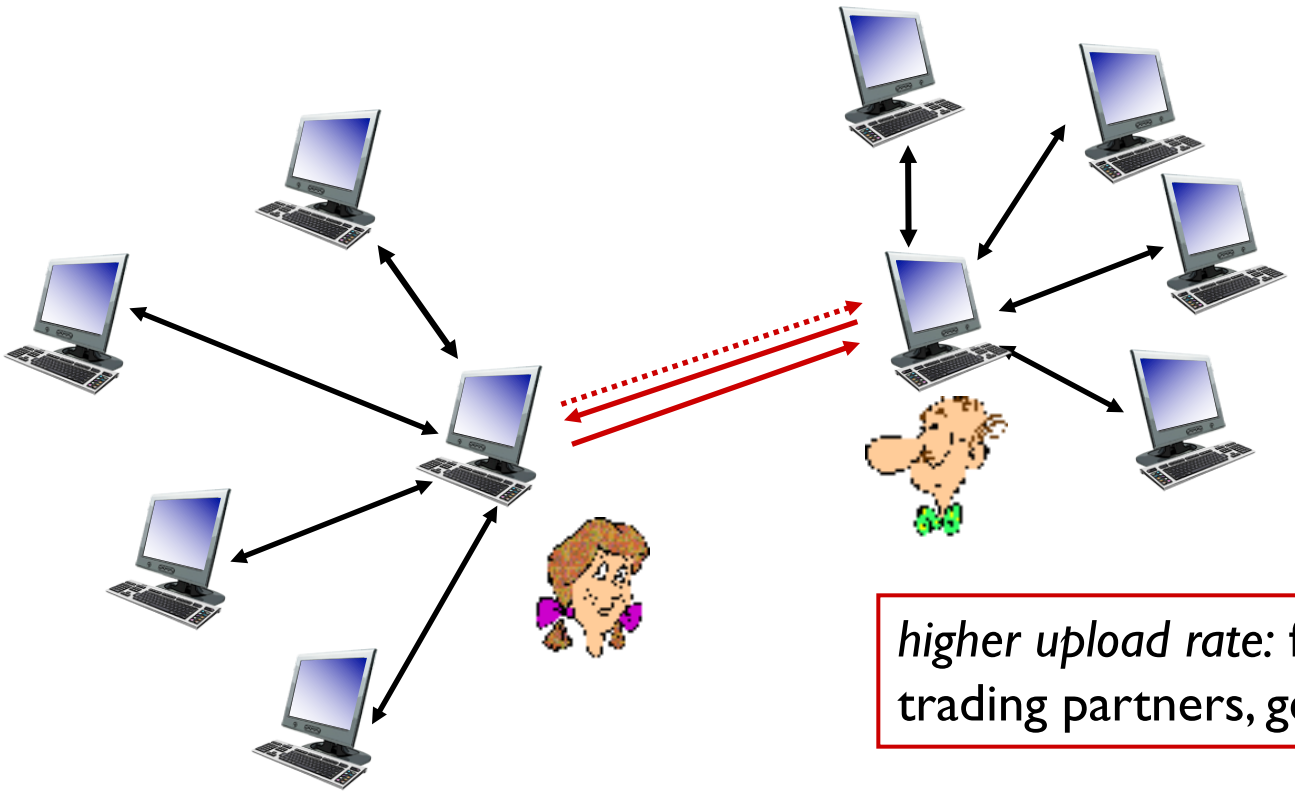
- Alice sends chunks to those four peers currently sending her chunks *at highest rate*
  - other peers are choked by Alice (do not receive chunks from her)
  - re-evaluate top 4 every10 secs
- every 30 secs: randomly select another peer, starts sending chunks
  - "optimistically unchoke" this peer
  - newly chosen peer may join top 4

BitTorrent: tit-for-tat

(1) Alice "optimistically unchokes" Bob

(2) Alice becomes one of Bob's top-four providers; Bob reciprocates

(3) Bob becomes one of Alice's top-four providers



higher upload rate: find better trading partners, get file faster !

Chapter 2: outline

2.1 principles of network applications

2.2 Web and HTTP

2.3 electronic mail

- SMTP, POP3, IMAP

2.4 DNS

2.5 P2P applications

2.6 video streaming and content distribution networks (CDNs)

2.7 socket programming with UDP and TCP

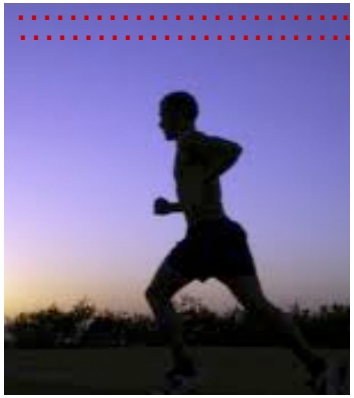
Video Streaming and CDNs: context

- video traffic: major consumer of Internet bandwidth
  - Netflix, YouTube: 37%, 16% of downstream residential ISP traffic
  - ~1B YouTube users, ~75M Netflix users
- challenge: scale - how to reach ~1B users?
  - single mega-video server won't work (why?)
- challenge: heterogeneity
  - different users have different capabilities (e.g., wired versus mobile; bandwidth rich versus bandwidth poor)
- *solution:* distributed, application-level infrastructure

Multimedia: video

- video: sequence of images displayed at constant rate
  - e.g., 24 images/sec
- digital image: array of pixels
  - each pixel represented by bits
- coding: use redundancy *within* and *between* images to decrease # bits used to encode image
  - spatial (within image)
  - temporal (from one image to next)

spatial coding example: instead of sending *N* values of same color (all purple), send only two values: color value (*purple*) *and number of repeated values (*N)



frame *i*

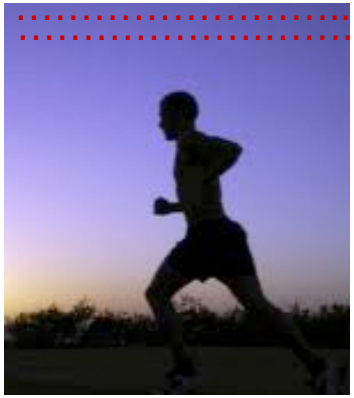
frame *i+1*

temporal coding example: instead of sending complete frame at i+1, send only differences from frame i

Multimedia: video

- CBR: (constant bit rate): video encoding rate fixed
- VBR: (variable bit rate): video encoding rate changes as amount of spatial, temporal coding changes
- examples:
  - MPEG 1 (CD-ROM) 1.5 Mbps
  - MPEG2 (DVD) 3-6 Mbps
  - MPEG4 (often used in Internet, < 1 Mbps)

spatial coding example: instead of sending *N* values of same color (all purple), send only two values: color value (*purple*) *and number of repeated values (*N)



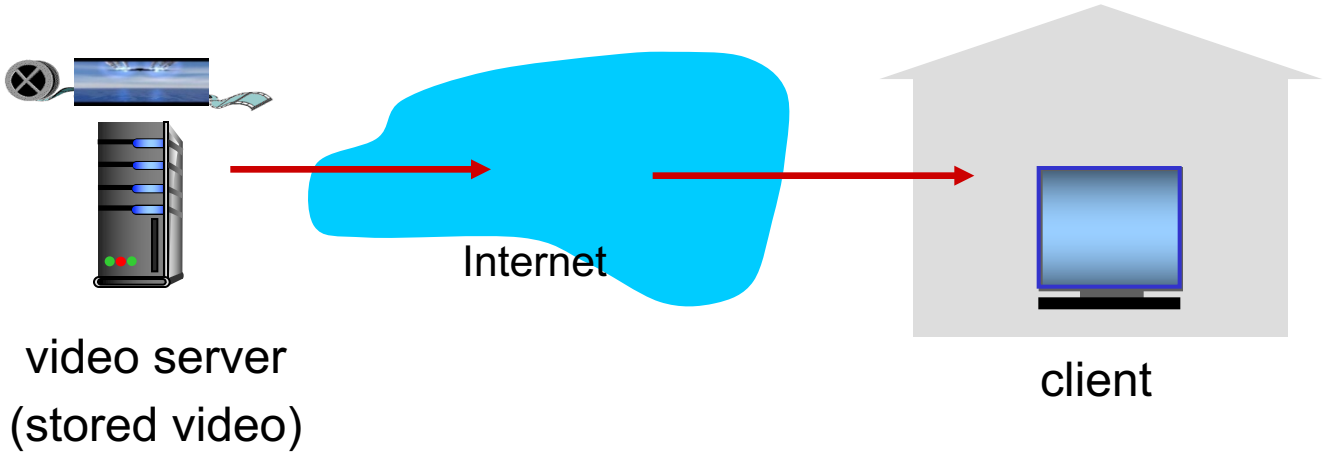
frame *i*

frame *i+1*

temporal coding example: instead of sending complete frame at i+1, send only differences from frame i

Streaming stored video:

simple scenario:



Streaming multimedia: DASH

- *DASH: D*ynamic, *A*daptive *S*treaming over *H*TTP
- *server:*
  - divides video file into multiple chunks
  - each chunk stored, encoded at different rates
  - *manifest file:* provides URLs for different chunks
- *client:*
  - periodically measures server-to-client bandwidth
  - consulting manifest, requests one chunk at a time
    - chooses maximum coding rate sustainable given current bandwidth
    - can choose different coding rates at different points in time (depending on available bandwidth at time)

Streaming multimedia: DASH

- *DASH: Dynamic, Adaptive Streaming over HTTP*
- *"intelligence"* at client: client determines
  - *when* to request chunk (so that buffer starvation, or overflow does not occur)
  - *what encoding rate* to request (higher quality when more bandwidth available)
  - *where* to request chunk (can request from URL server that is "close" to client or has high available bandwidth)

Content distribution networks

- *challenge:* how to stream content (selected from millions of videos) to hundreds of thousands of *simultaneous* users?

- *option 1:* single, large "mega-server"
  - single point of failure
  - point of network congestion
  - long path to distant clients
  - multiple copies of video sent over outgoing link

….quite simply: this solution *doesn't scale*

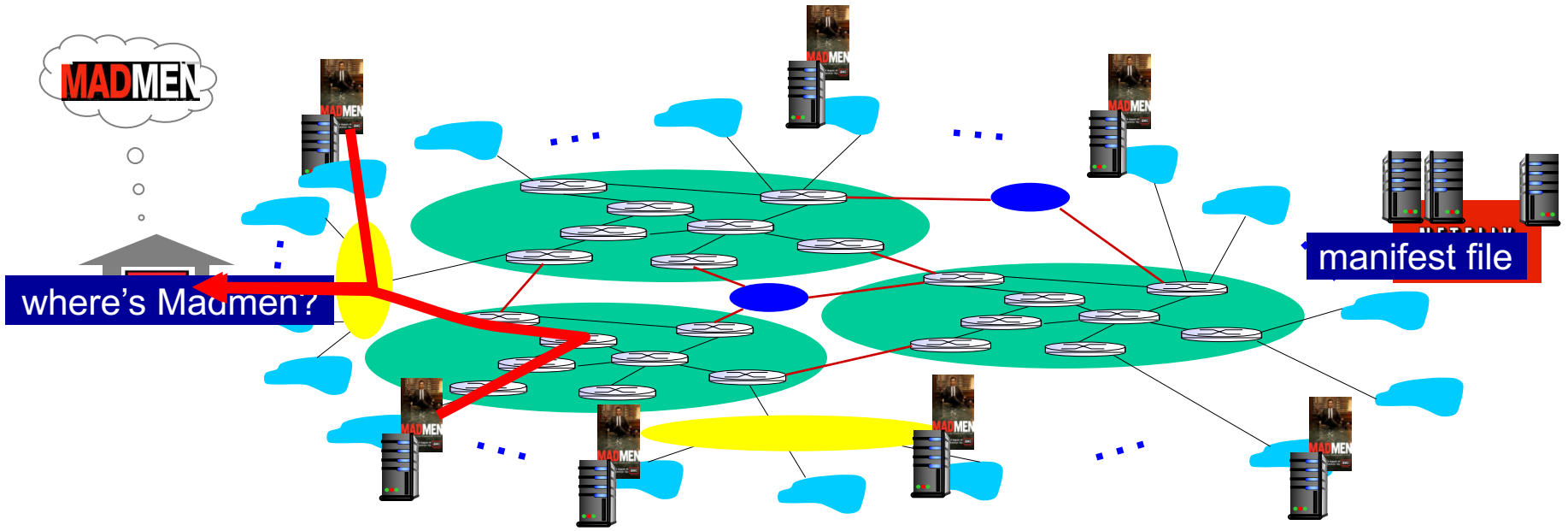
Content distribution networks

- *challenge:* how to stream content (selected from millions of videos) to hundreds of thousands of simultaneous users?

- *option 2:* store/serve multiple copies of videos at multiple geographically distributed sites *(CDN)*
  - *enter deep:* push CDN servers deep into many access networks
    - close to users
    - used by Akamai, 1700 locations
  - *bring home:* smaller number (10's) of larger clusters in POPs near (but not within) access networks
    - used by Limelight

Content Distribution Networks (CDNs)

- CDN: stores copies of content at CDN nodes
  - e.g. Netflix stores copies of MadMen
- subscriber requests content from CDN
  - directed to nearby copy, retrieves content
  - may choose different copy if network path congested



Content Distribution Networks (CDNs)

OTT challenges: coping with a congested Internet

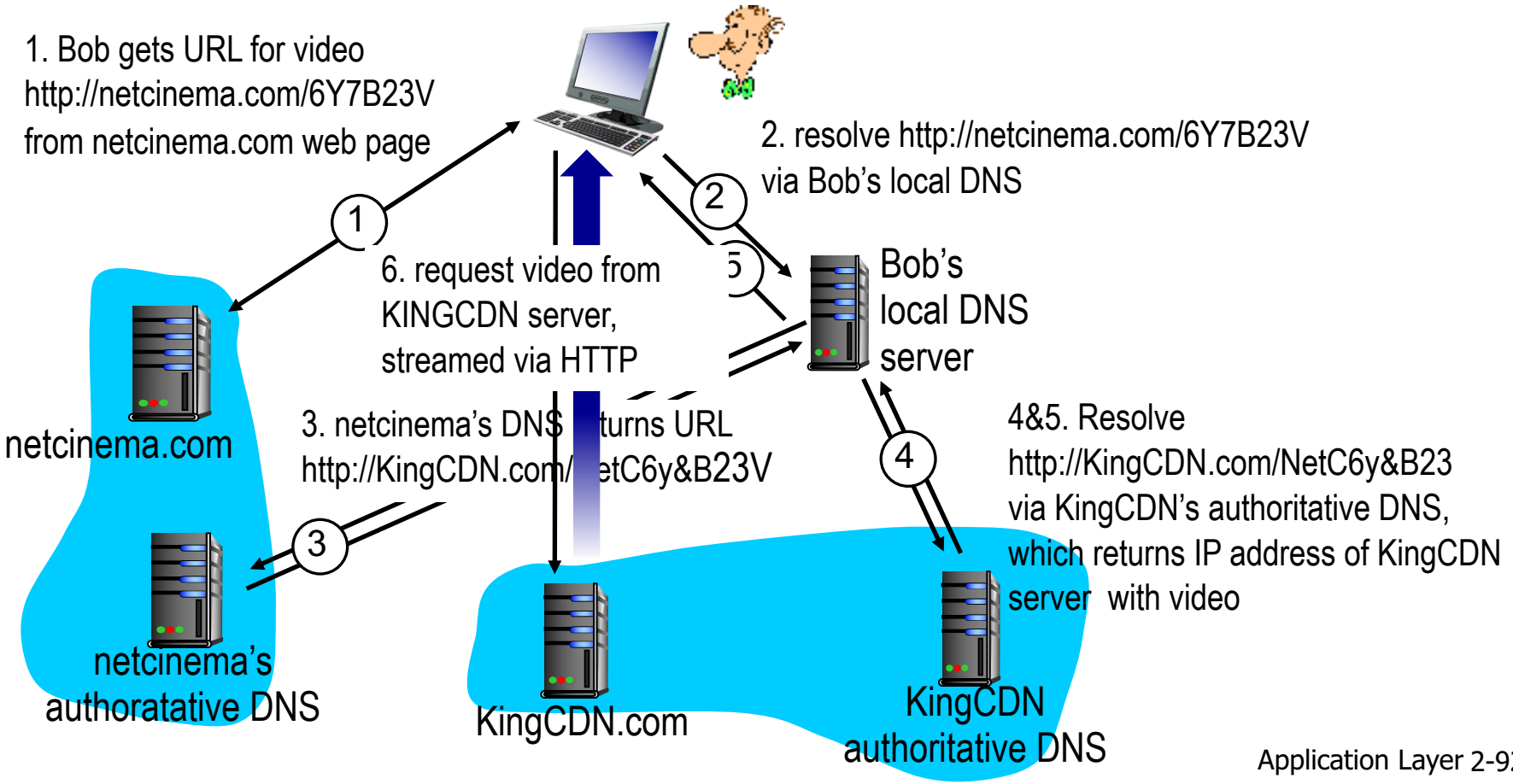
- from which CDN node to retrieve content?
- viewer behavior in presence of congestion?
- what content to place in which CDN node?

more .. in chapter 7

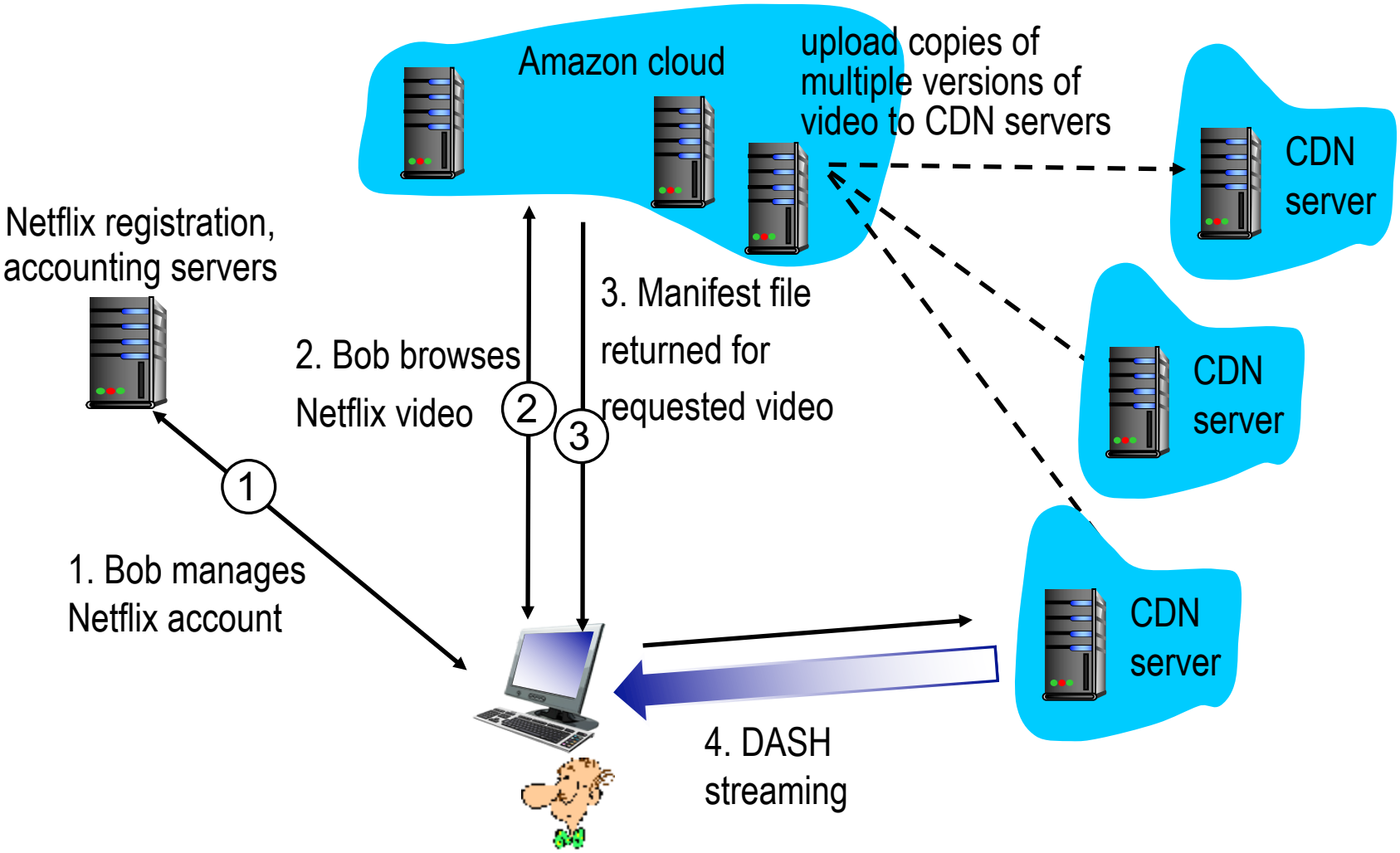
CDN content access: a closer look

Bob (client) requests video http://netcinema.com/6Y7B23V

- video stored in CDN at http://KingCDN.com/NetC6y&B23V



Case study: Netflix



Chapter 2: outline

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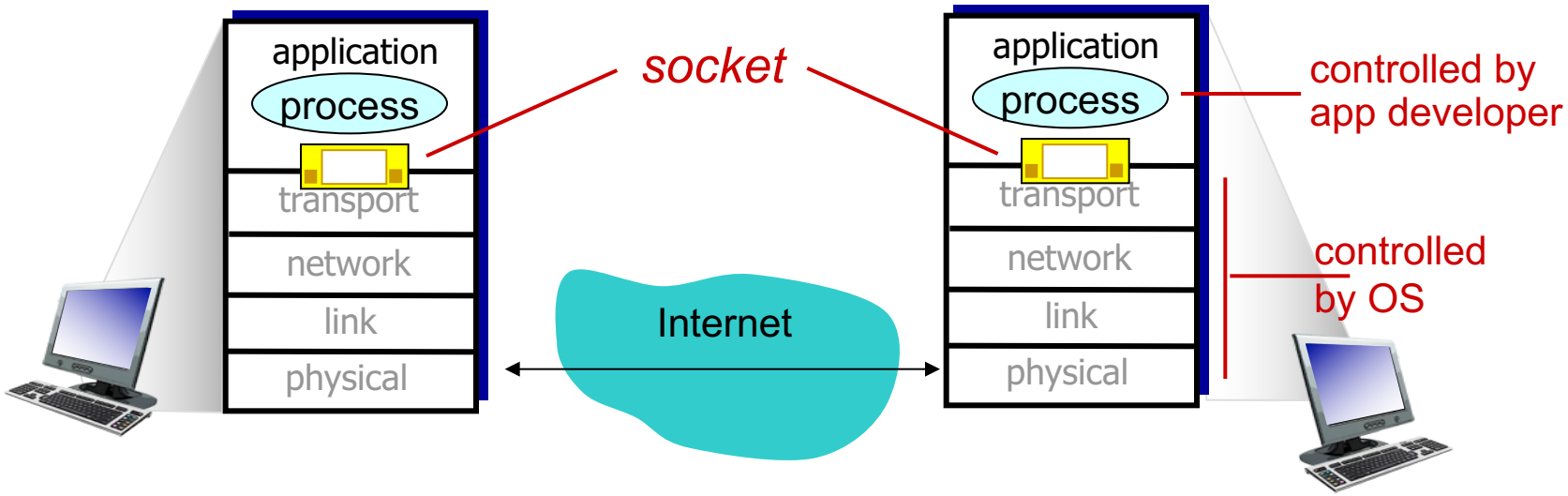
2.7 socket programming with UDP and TCP

Socket programming

goal: learn how to build client/server applications that communicate using sockets

socket: door between application process and end-end-transport protocol



Socket programming

Two socket types for two transport services:

- *UDP:* unreliable datagram
- *TCP:* reliable, byte stream-oriented

Application Example:

1. client reads a line of characters (data) from its keyboard and sends data to server
2. server receives the data and converts characters to uppercase
3. server sends modified data to client
4. client receives modified data and displays line on its screen

Socket programming *with UDP*

UDP: no "connection" between client & server

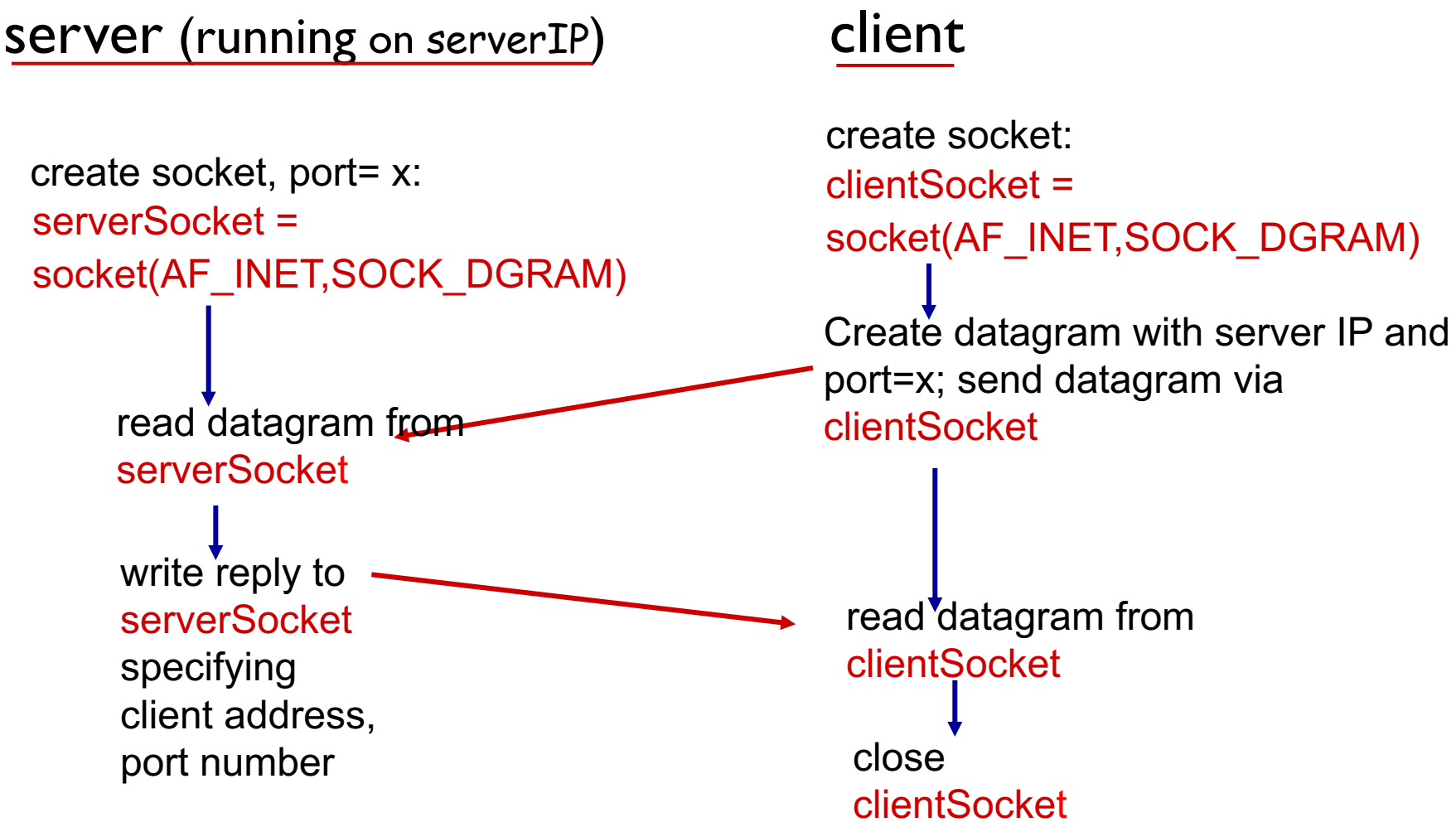
- no handshaking before sending data
- sender explicitly attaches IP destination address and port # to each packet
- receiver extracts sender IP address and port# from received packet

UDP: transmitted data may be lost or received out-of-order

Application viewpoint:

- UDP provides *unreliable* transfer of groups of bytes ("datagrams") between client and server

Client/server socket interaction: UDP



Example app: UDP client

Python UDPClient

include Python's socket library

```
from socket import *
serverName = 'hostname'
serverPort = 12000
```

create UDP socket for server

```
clientSocket = socket(AF_INET,
                      SOCK_DGRAM)
```

get user keyboard input

```
message = raw_input('Input lowercase sentence:')
```

Attach server name, port to message; send into socket

```
clientSocket.sendto(message.encode(),
                    (serverName, serverPort))
```

read reply characters from socket into string

```
modifiedMessage, serverAddress =
                    clientSocket.recvfrom(2048)
```

print out received string and close socket

```
print modifiedMessage.decode()
clientSocket.close()
```

Example app: UDP server

Python UDPServer

```
from socket import *
serverPort = 12000
serverSocket = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_DGRAM)
serverSocket.bind(('', serverPort))
print ("The server is ready to receive")
while True:
    message, clientAddress = serverSocket.recvfrom(2048)
    modifiedMessage = message.decode().upper()
    serverSocket.sendto(modifiedMessage.encode(),
                        clientAddress)
```

create UDP socket

bind socket to local port number 12000

loop forever

Read from UDP socket into message, getting client's address (client IP and port)

send upper case string back to this client

Socket programming *with TCP*

client must contact server

- server process must first be running
- server must have created socket (door) that welcomes client's contact

client contacts server by:

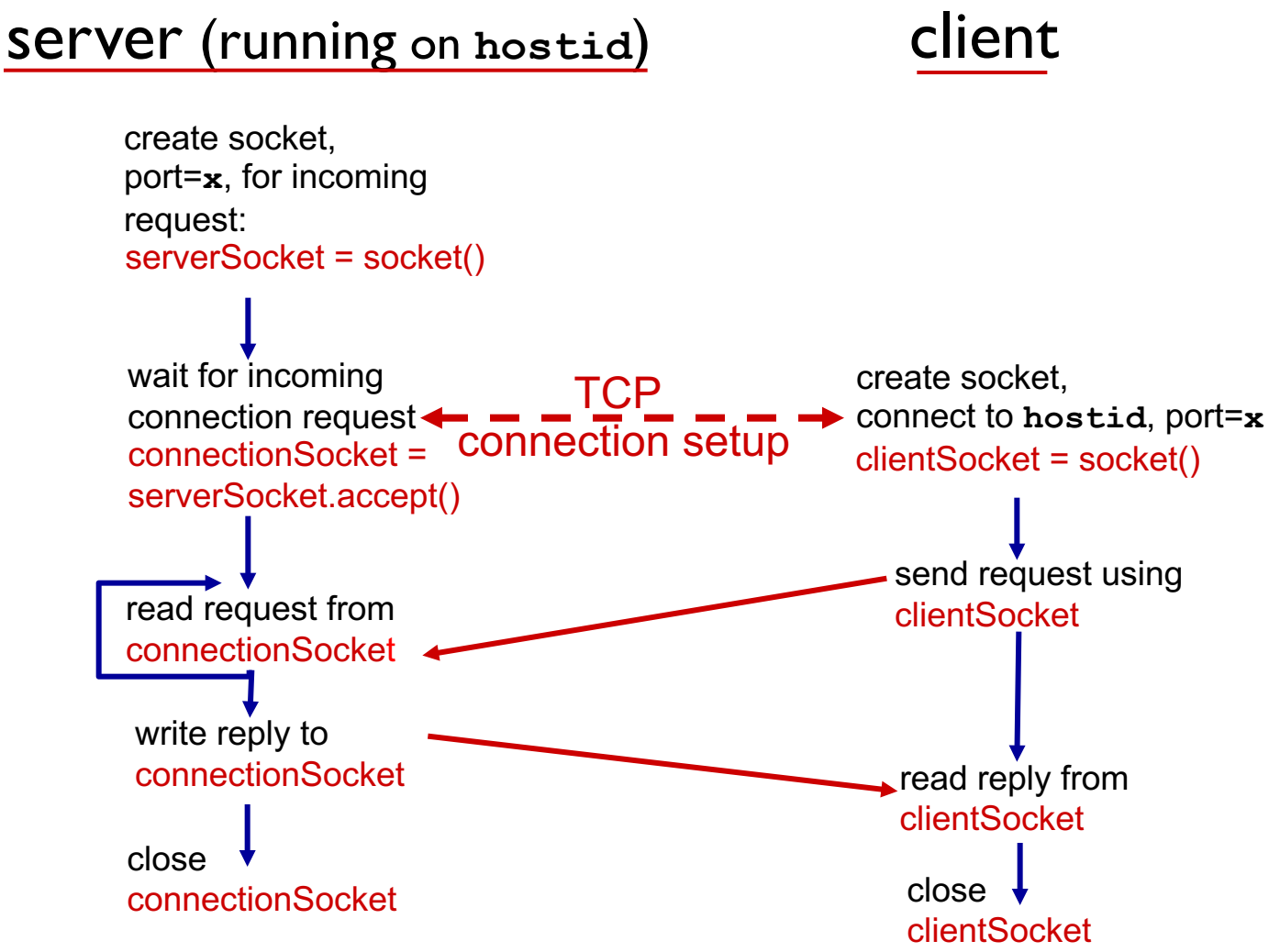
- Creating TCP socket, specifying IP address, port number of server process
- *when client creates socket:* client TCP establishes connection to server TCP

- when contacted by client, *server TCP creates new socket* for server process to communicate with that particular client
  - allows server to talk with multiple clients
  - source port numbers used to distinguish clients (more in Chap 3)

application viewpoint:

TCP provides reliable, in-order byte-stream transfer ("pipe") between client and server

Client/server socket interaction: TCP



Example app: TCP client

Python TCPClient

```
from socket import *
serverName = 'servername'
serverPort = 12000
clientSocket = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM)
clientSocket.connect((serverName,serverPort))
sentence = raw_input('Input lowercase sentence:')
clientSocket.send(sentence.encode())
modifiedSentence = clientSocket.recv(1024)
print ('From Server:', modifiedSentence.decode())
clientSocket.close()
```

create TCP socket for server, remote port 12000

No need to attach server name, port

Example app: TCP server

Python TCPServer

```
from socket import *
serverPort = 12000
serverSocket = socket(AF_INET,SOCK_STREAM)
serverSocket.bind(('',serverPort))
serverSocket.listen(1)
print 'The server is ready to receive'
while True:
    connectionSocket, addr = serverSocket.accept()

    sentence = connectionSocket.recv(1024).decode()
    capitalizedSentence = sentence.upper()
    connectionSocket.send(capitalizedSentence.
                          encode())

    connectionSocket.close()
```

create TCP welcoming socket

server begins listening for incoming TCP requests

loop forever

server waits on accept() for incoming requests, new socket created on return

read bytes from socket (but not address as in UDP)

close connection to this client (but *not* welcoming socket)

Chapter 2: summary

our study of network apps now complete!

- application architectures
  - client-server
  - P2P
- application service requirements:
  - reliability, bandwidth, delay
- Internet transport service model
  - connection-oriented, reliable: TCP
  - unreliable, datagrams: UDP
- specific protocols:
  - HTTP
  - SMTP, POP, IMAP
  - DNS
  - P2P: BitTorrent
- video streaming, CDNs
- socket programming: TCP, UDP sockets

Chapter 2: summary

most importantly: learned about protocols!

- typical request/reply message exchange:
  - client requests info or service
  - server responds with data, status code
- message formats:
  - *headers*: fields giving info about data
  - *data:* info(payload) being communicated

important themes:

- control vs. messages
  - in-band, out-of-band
- centralized vs. decentralized
- stateless vs. stateful
- reliable vs. unreliable message transfer
- "complexity at network edge"