CS5222 Computer Networks and Internets

-- Application Layer --

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Slides based on book *Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach.*

Application layer: overview

- Principles of network applications
- Web and HTTP
- E-mail, SMTP, IMAP
- The Domain Name System DNS
- P2P applications
- video streaming and content distribution networks

Creating a network app

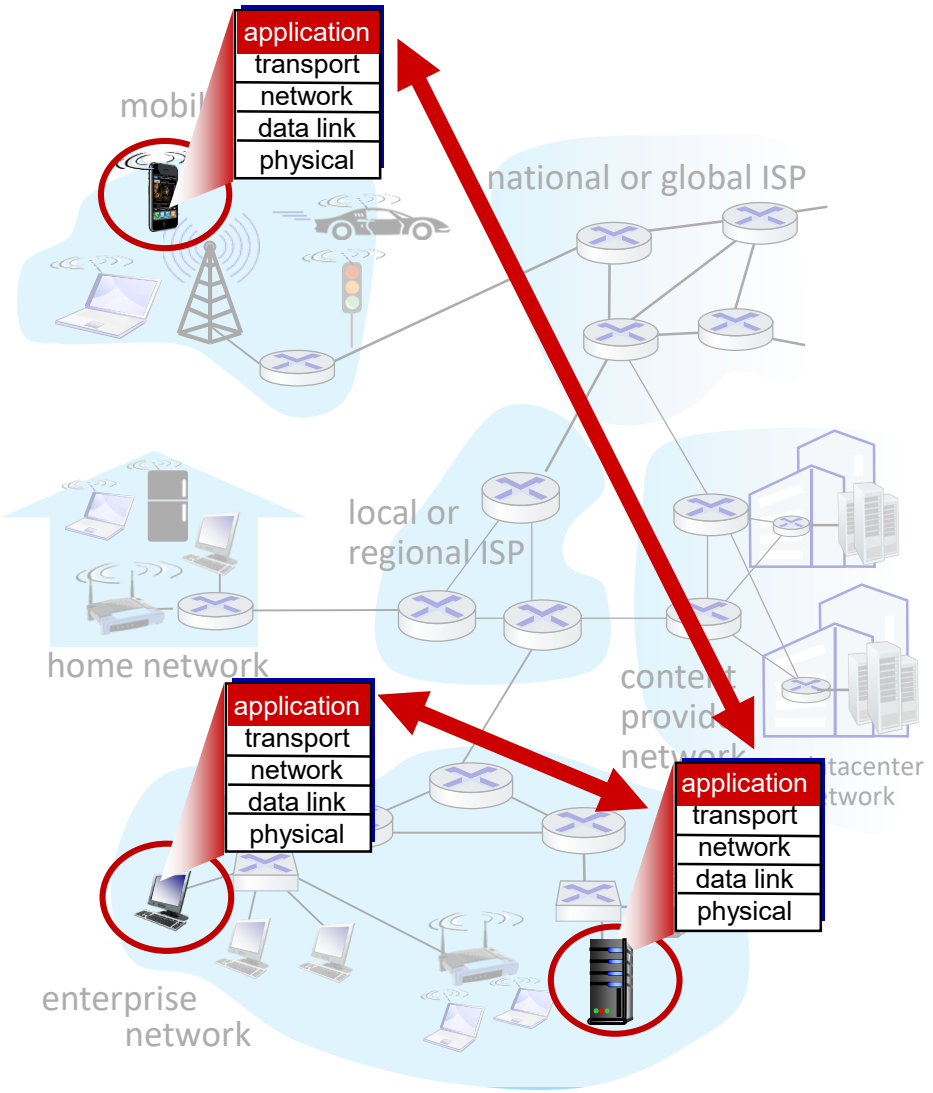
write program that:

- 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 allow for rapid app development, propagation

程序的开发和传播



Some network apps

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

Client-server paradigm

范式

server:

- always-on host
- permanent IP address
- often in data centers, for scaling

可以理解是always-on client，不冲突

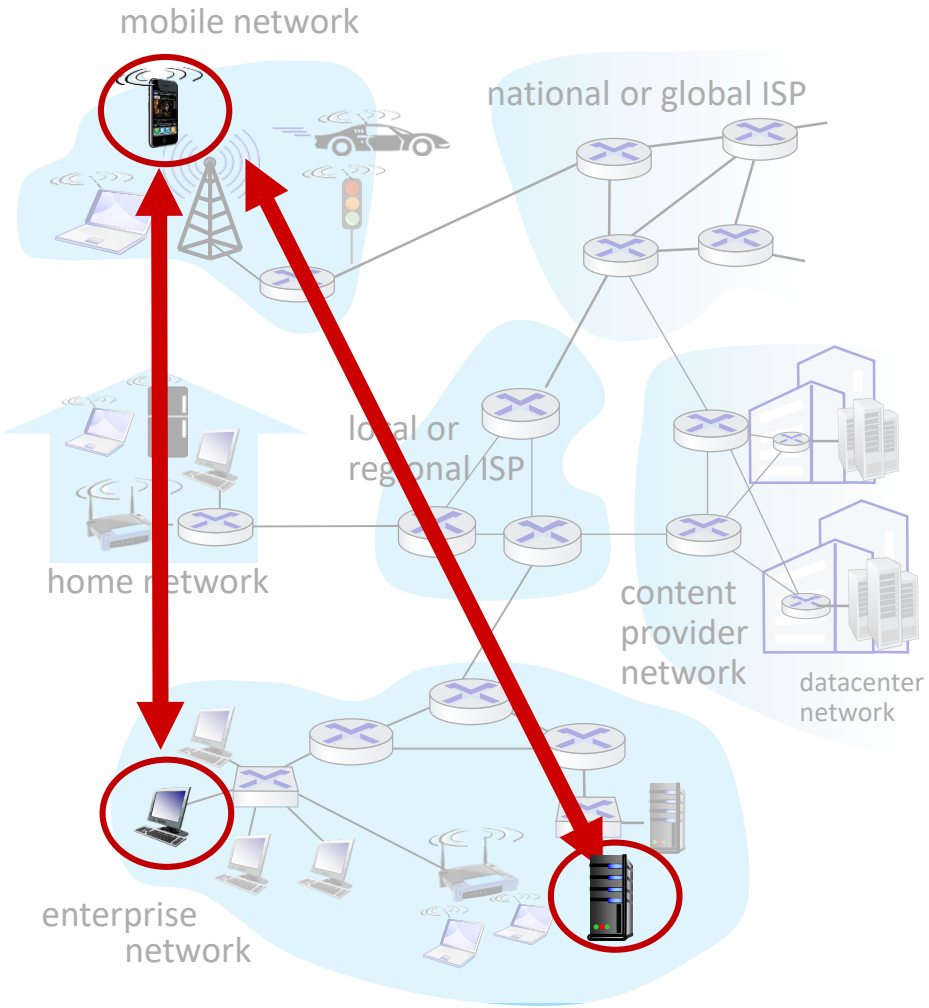
可扩展性

clients:

contact是建立连接，而communicate是连接后的信息交换，翻译为“通信”

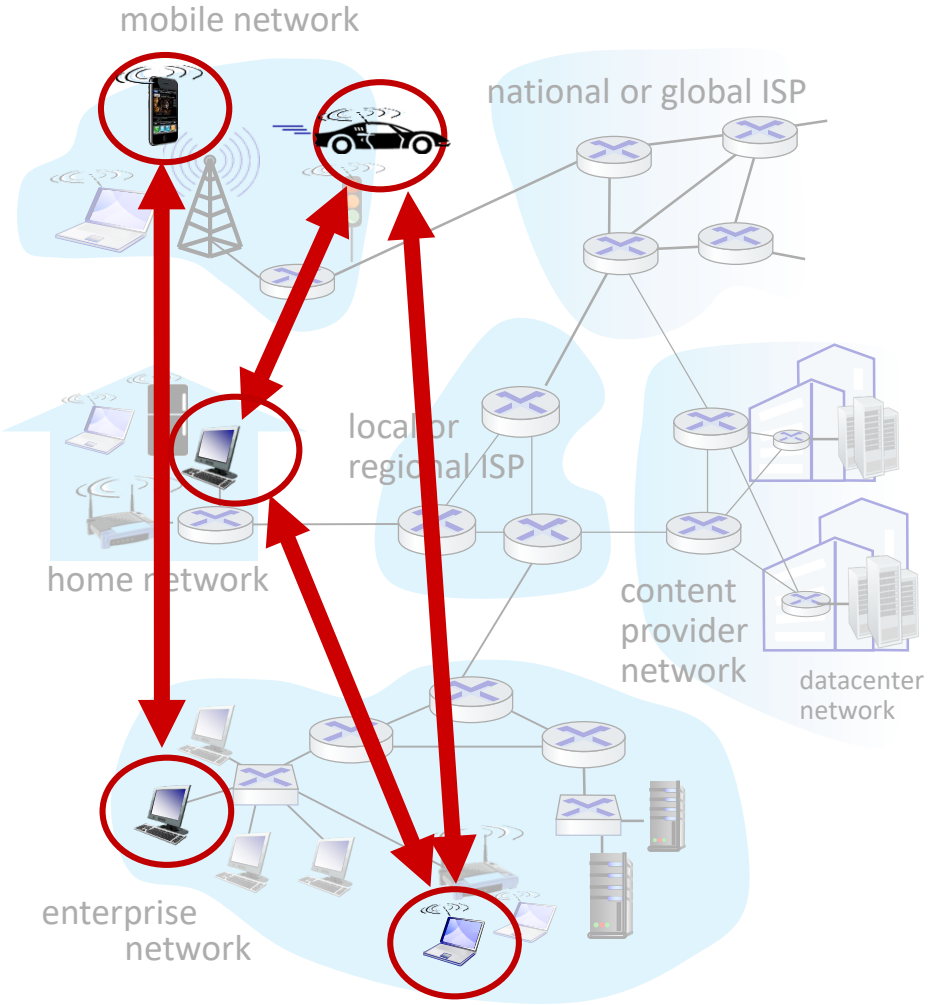
- contact, communicate with server
- may be intermittently connected
- may have dynamic IP addresses
- do *not* communicate directly with each other

- examples: HTTP, IMAP, SMTP



Peer-peer 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
- example: P2P file sharing



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

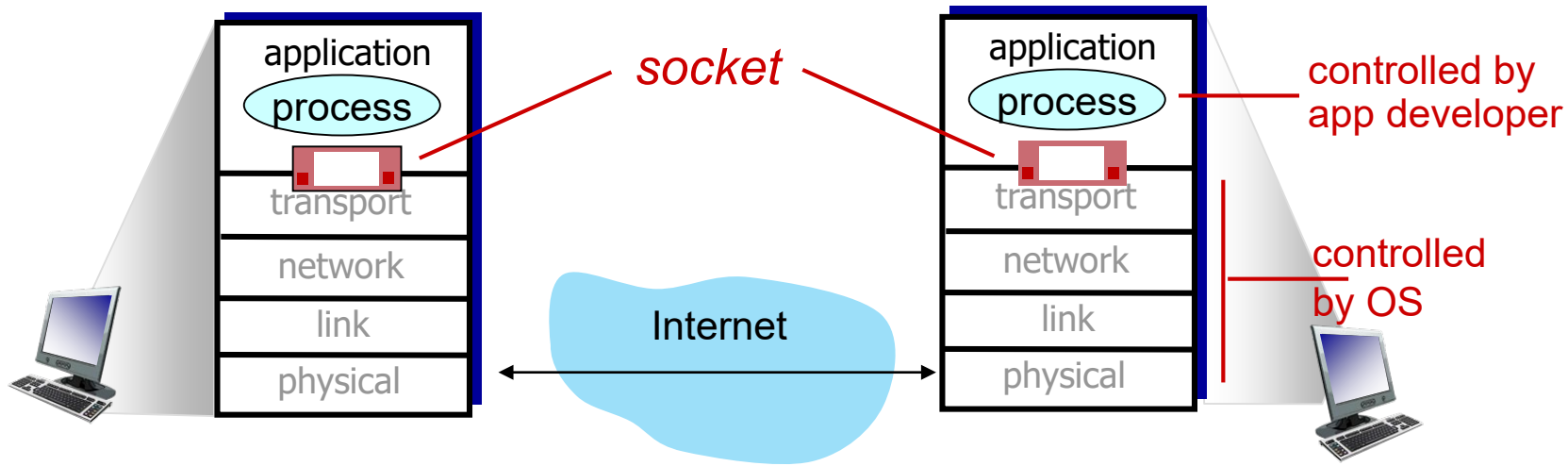
client process: process that initiates communication

server process: process that waits to be contacted

- note: 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 the door”
  - sending process relies on transport infrastructure on other side of door to deliver message to socket at receiving process
  - two sockets involved: one on each side



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 number 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

查了老半天，其实并没有什么原因

An application-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

是名词，可以理解为"**字段**"

open protocols:

- defined in RFCs, everyone has access to protocol definition
- allows for interoperability
- e.g., HTTP, SMTP

这个主语是不同厂家，他们可以互相访问

proprietary protocols:

- e.g., Skype

专有的，对应于上面open protocols

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Web and HTTP

A quick review…

- web page consists of *objects,* each of which can be stored on different Web servers
- object can be HTML file, JPEG image, Javascript file, audio file, …
- web page consists of *base HTML-file* which includes *several referenced objects, each* addressable by a *URL,* e.g.,

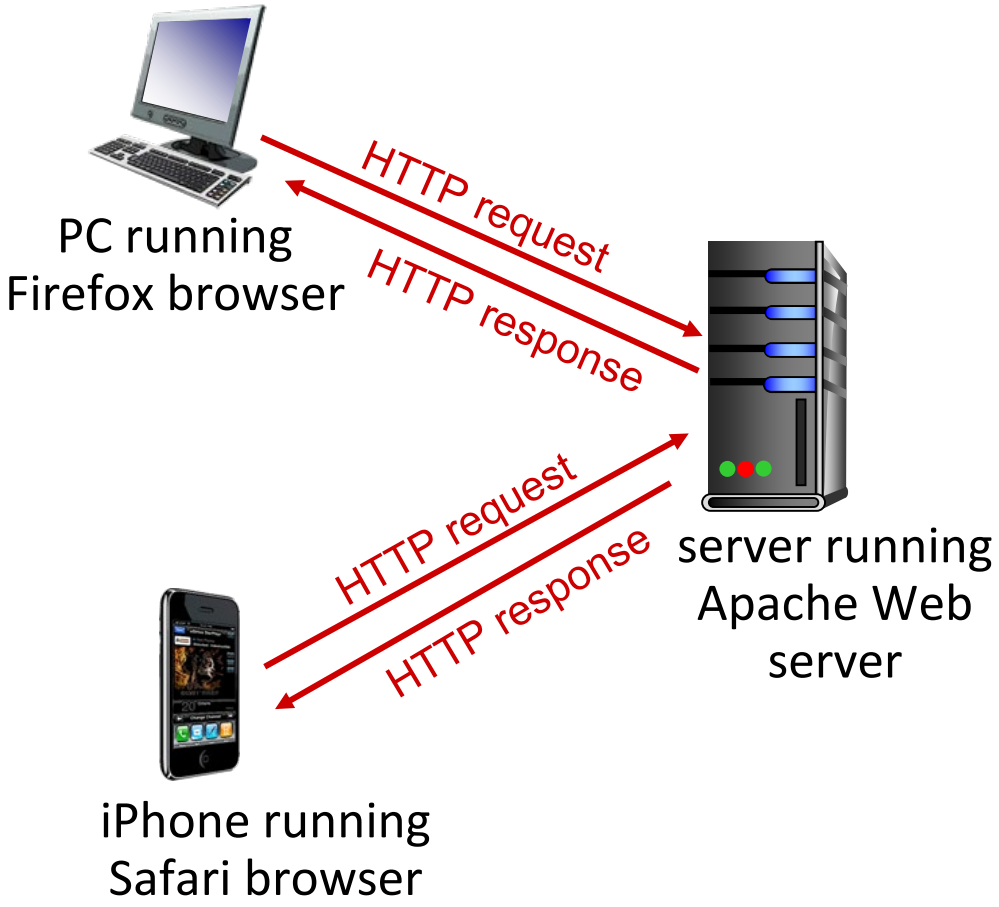
`www.someschool.edu/someDept/pic.gif`

host name | path name

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)

HTTP 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

cookie之类

HTTP connections: two types

Non-persistent HTTP

1. TCP connection opened
2. at most one object sent over TCP connection
3. TCP connection closed

downloading multiple objects required multiple connections

Persistent HTTP

- TCP connection opened
- multiple objects can be sent over a *single* TCP connection between client and that server
- TCP connection closed

Non-persistent HTTP: example

User enters URL: **`www.someSchool.edu/someDepartment/home.index`**
(containing text, references to 10 jpeg images)

1a. HTTP client initiates TCP connection to HTTP server (process) at www.someSchool.edu on port 80

1b. HTTP server at host www.someSchool.edu waiting for TCP connection at port 80 "accepts" connection, notifying client

2. HTTP client sends HTTP *request message* (containing URL) into TCP connection socket. Message indicates that client wants object someDepartment/home.index

3. HTTP server receives request message, forms *response message* containing requested object, and sends message into its socket

time

Non-persistent HTTP: example (cont.)

User enters URL: **`www.someSchool.edu/someDepartment/home.index`**
(containing text, references to 10 jpeg images)

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

time

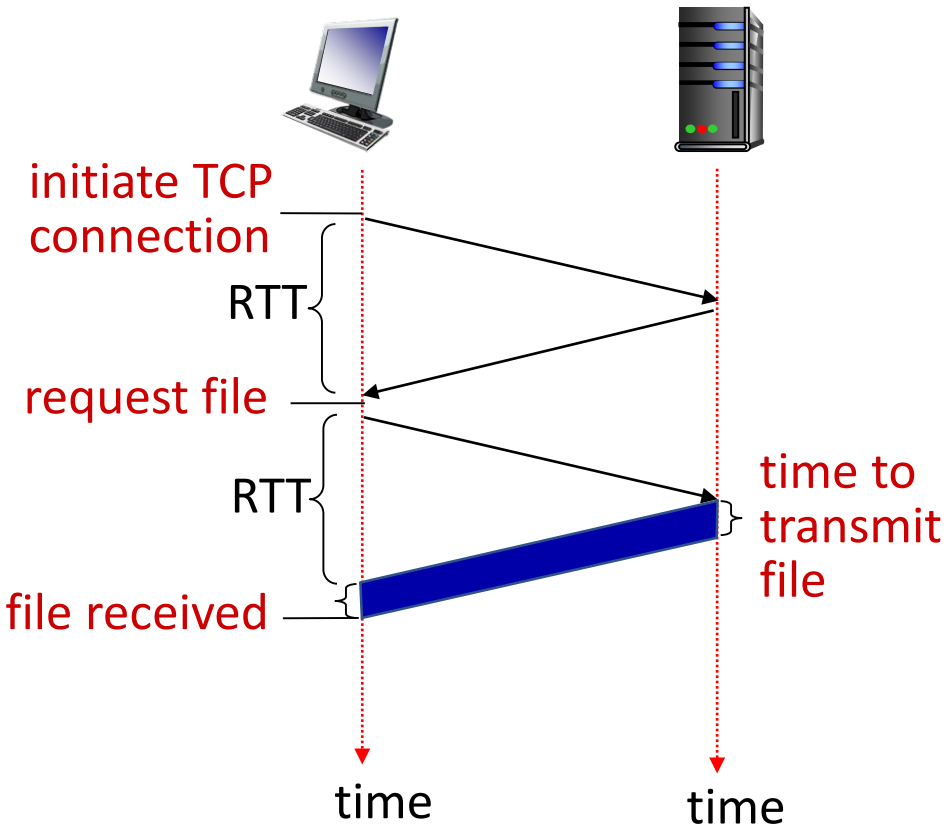
Non-persistent HTTP: response time

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

HTTP response time (per object):

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

一个（不是多个）文件的传输时间，且确实是要有这个时间



Non-persistent HTTP response time = 2RTT+ file transmission time

Persistent HTTP (HTTP 1.1)

Non-persistent HTTP issues:

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

Persistent HTTP (HTTP1.1):

- server leaves connection open after sending response
- subsequent（后续的） HTTP messages between same client/server sent over open connection
- client sends requests as soon as it encounters a referenced object

HTML文件中的引用资源

- as little as one RTT for all the referenced objects (cutting response time in half)

除了第一个对象需要2个RTT外（第一个RTT建立TCP连接），其余对象每个只需要1个RTT（用于发送请求和接收响应）

HTTP request message

- two types of HTTP messages: *request, response*
- HTTP request message:
  - ASCII (human-readable format)

这个序列也被称为CRLF，区别于单纯的空行

carriage return character

line-feed character

request line (GET, POST, HEAD commands)

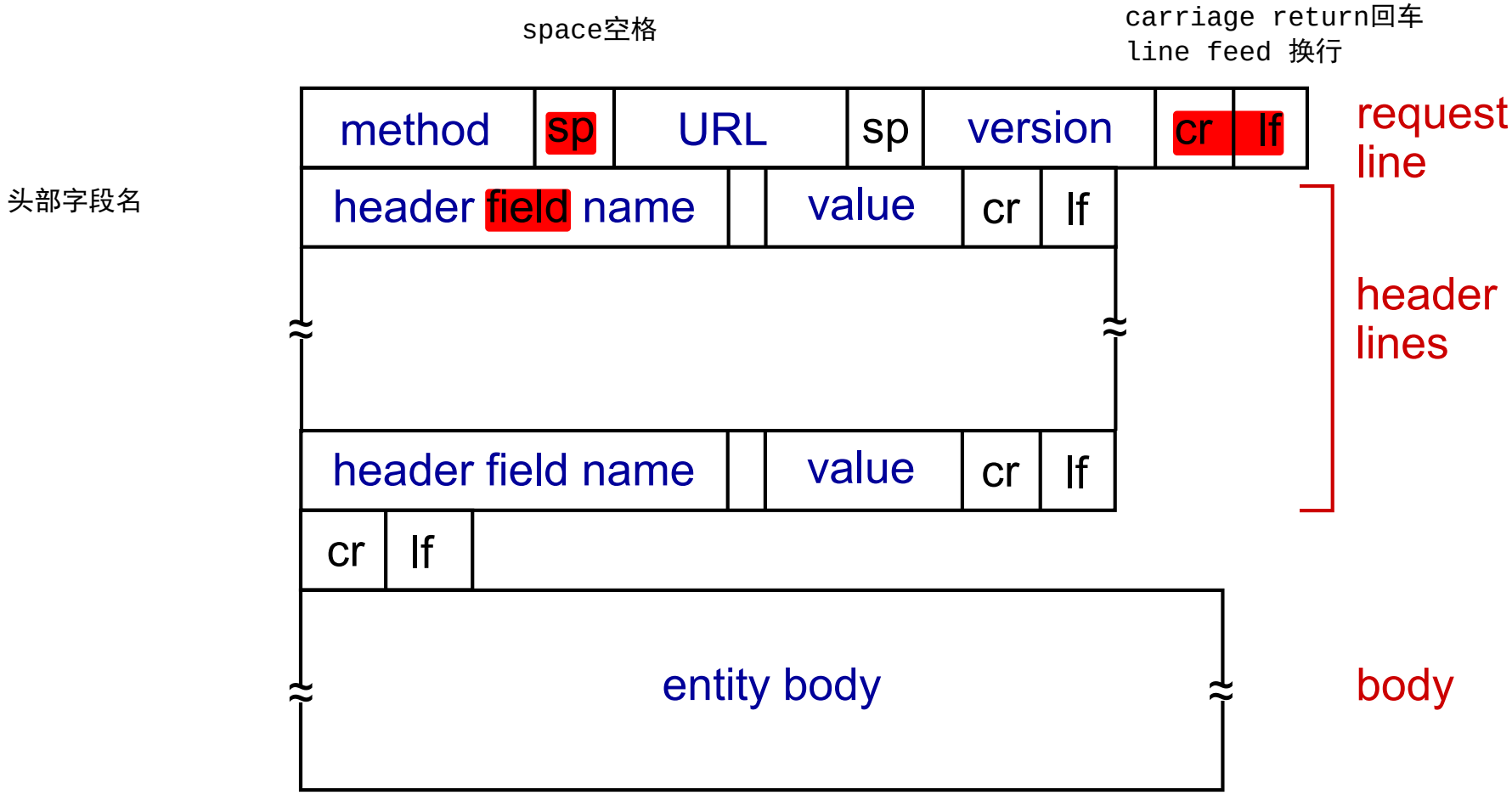
header lines

carriage return, line feed at start of line indicates end of header lines

```
GET /index.html HTTP/1.1\r\n
Host: www-net.cs.umass.edu\r\n
User-Agent: Firefox/3.6.10\r\n
Accept: text/html,application/xhtml+xml\r\n
Accept-Language: en-us,en;q=0.5\r\n
Accept-Encoding: gzip,deflate\r\n
Accept-Charset: ISO-8859-1,utf-8;q=0.7\r\n
Keep-Alive: 115\r\n
Connection: keep-alive\r\n
\r\n
```

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

HTTP request message: general format



Other HTTP request messages

POST method:

- web page often includes form input
- user input sent from client to server in entity body of HTTP POST request message

GET method (for sending data to server):

- include user data in URL field of HTTP GET request message (following a '?'):

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

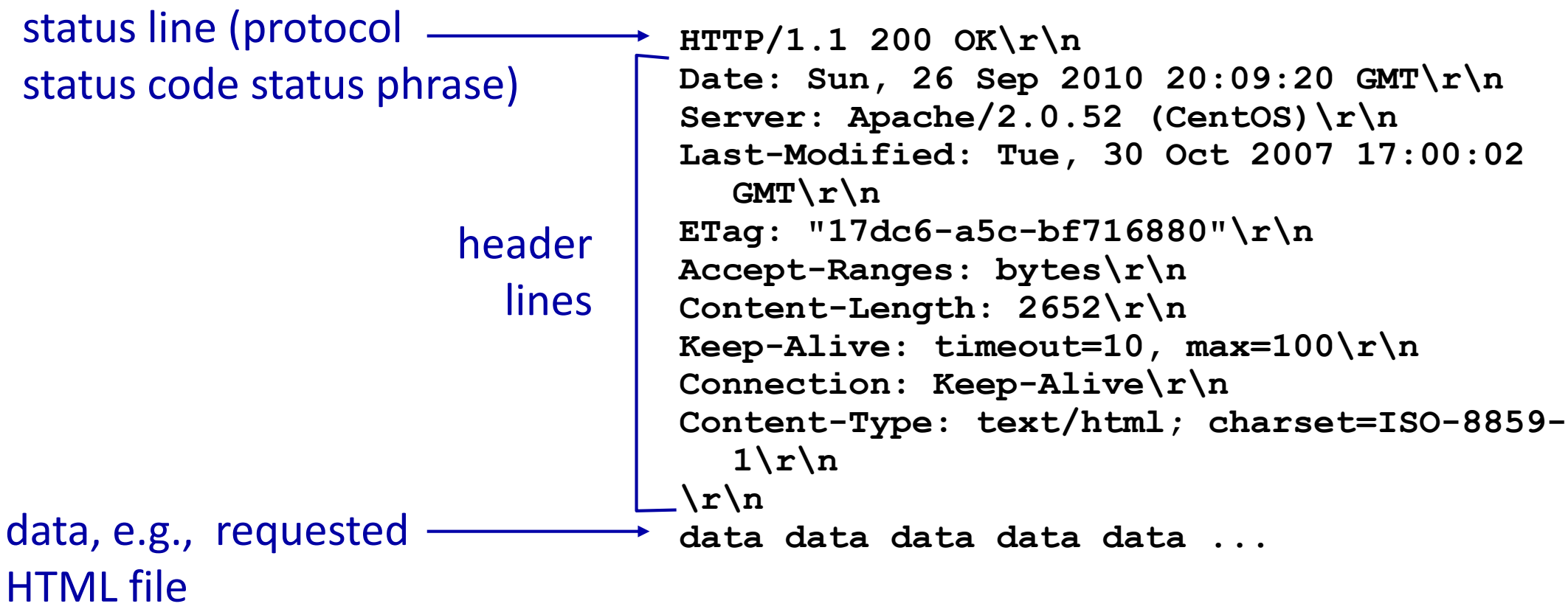
HEAD method:

- requests headers (only) that would be returned *if* specified URL were requested with an HTTP GET method.

PUT method:

- uploads new file (object) to server
- completely replaces file that exists at specified URL with content in entity body of POST HTTP request message

HTTP response message



* 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 message

  301 Moved Permanently
  - requested object moved, new location specified later in this message (in Location: field)

  400 Bad Request
  - request msg not understood by server

  404 Not Found
  - requested document not found on this server

  505 HTTP Version Not Supported

Maintaining user/server state: cookies

Recall: HTTP GET/response interaction is *stateless*

- no notion of multi-step exchanges of HTTP messages to complete a Web "transaction"
  - no need for client/server to track "state" of multi-step exchange
  - all HTTP requests are independent of each other
  - no need for client/server to "recover" from a partially-completed-but-never-completely-completed transaction

Maintaining user/server state: cookies

Web sites and client browser use *cookies* to maintain some state between transactions

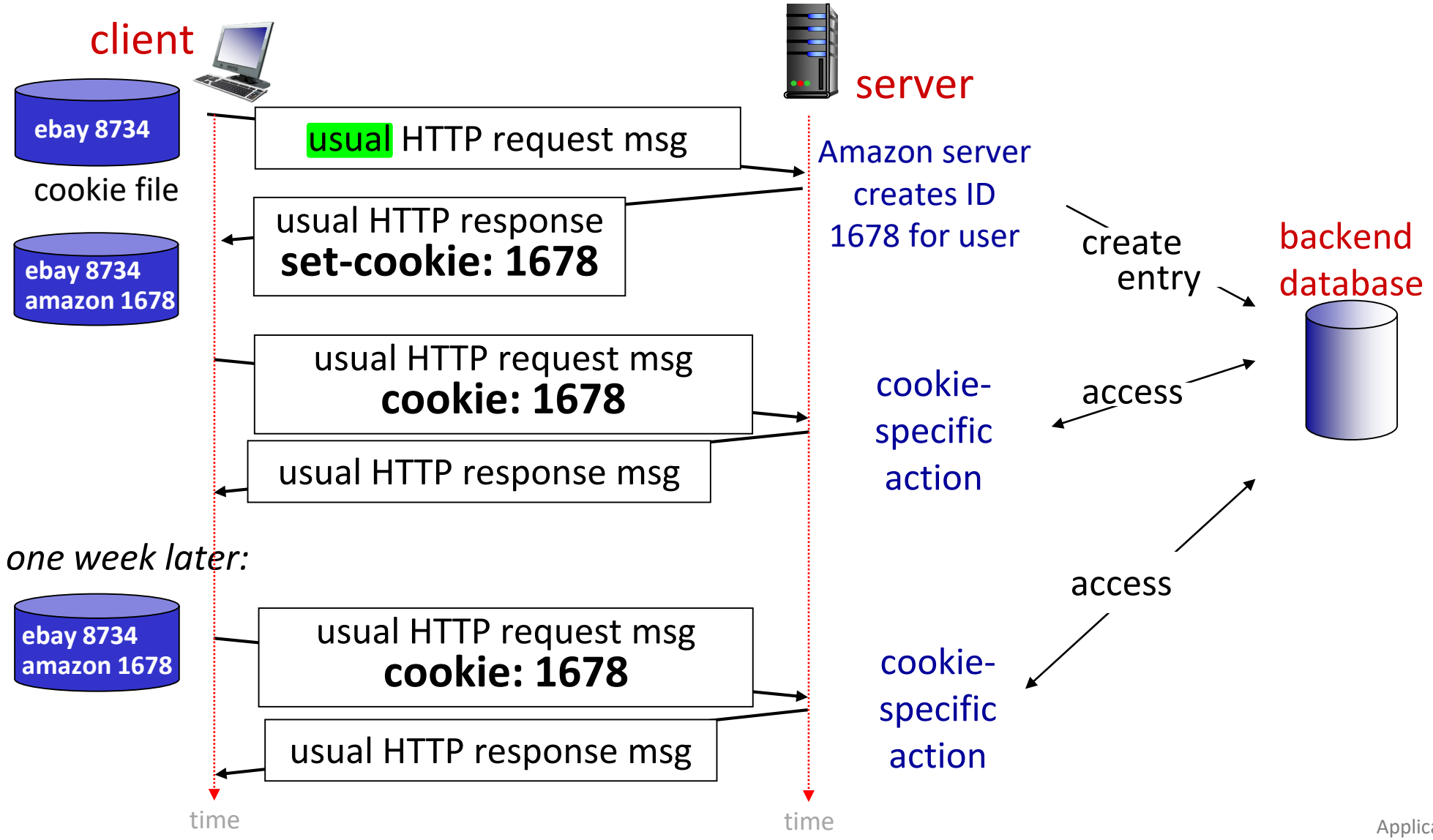
four components:

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 uses browser on laptop, visits specific e-commerce site for first time
- when initial HTTP requests arrives at site, site creates:
  - unique ID (aka "cookie")
  - entry in backend database for ID
- subsequent HTTP requests from Susan to this site will contain cookie ID value, allowing site to "identify" Susan

Maintaining user/server state: cookies



HTTP cookies: comments

What cookies can be used for:

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

Challenge: How to keep state:

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

aside

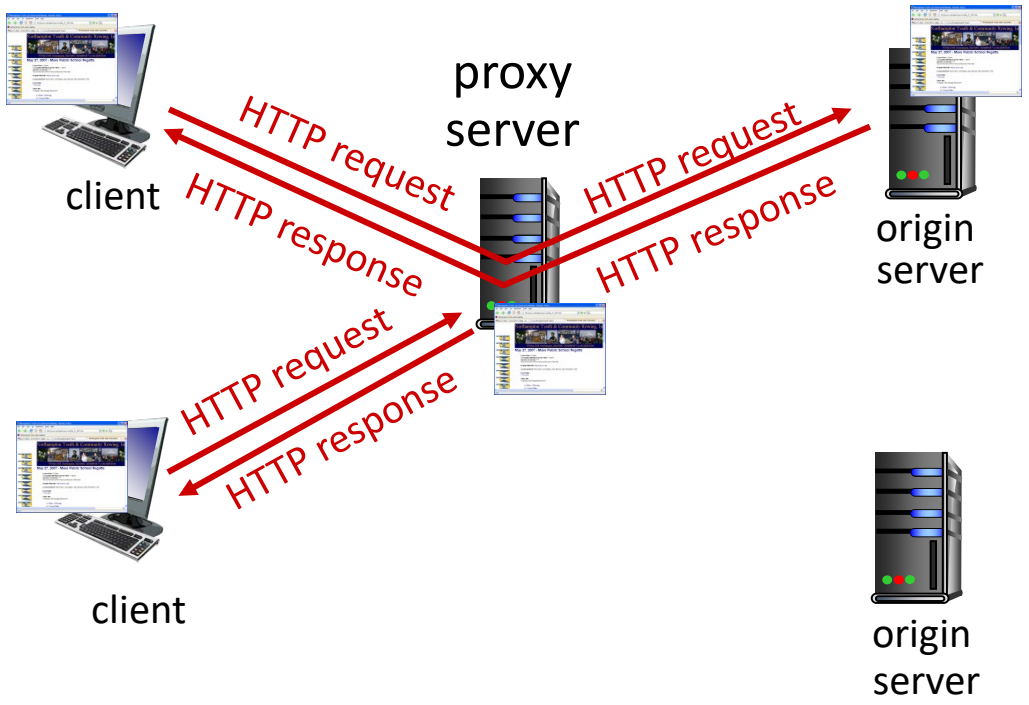
cookies and privacy:

- cookies permit sites to *learn* a lot about you on their site.
- third party persistent cookies (tracking cookies) allow common identity (cookie value) to be tracked across multiple web sites

Web caches (proxy servers)

Goal: satisfy client request without involving origin server

- user configures browser to point to a *Web cache*
- browser sends all HTTP requests to cache
  - *if* object in cache: cache returns object to client
  - *else* cache requests object from origin server, caches received object, then returns object to client



Web caches (proxy servers)

- Web 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
  - cache is closer to client
- reduce traffic on an institution's access link
- Internet is dense with caches
  - enables "poor" content providers to more effectively deliver content

给那些网络资源没那么充足、分发能力不足的"poor"的content providers

Caching example

这个例子是从书本上来的，所以1.5Mbps等等在这个PPT里缺少一部分的背景说明啦，不用太紧张

Scenario:

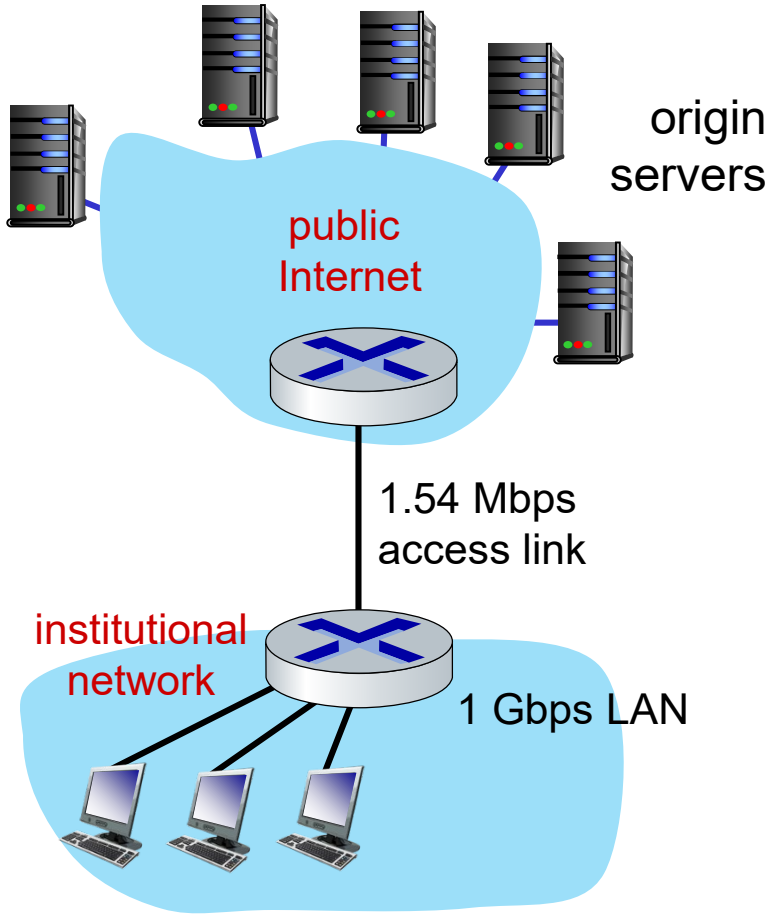
- access link rate: 1.54 Mbps
- RTT from institutional router to server: 2 sec
- Web object size: 100K bits
- Average request rate from browsers to origin servers: 15/sec
  - average data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps

Performance:

```
1.5Mbps/1Gbps=0.0015
1.5Mbps/1.54Mbps=0.97
```

- LAN traffic intensity: .0015
- access link traff.intensity = .97
- end-end delay = Internet delay + access link delay + LAN delay
  = 2 sec + minutes + usecs

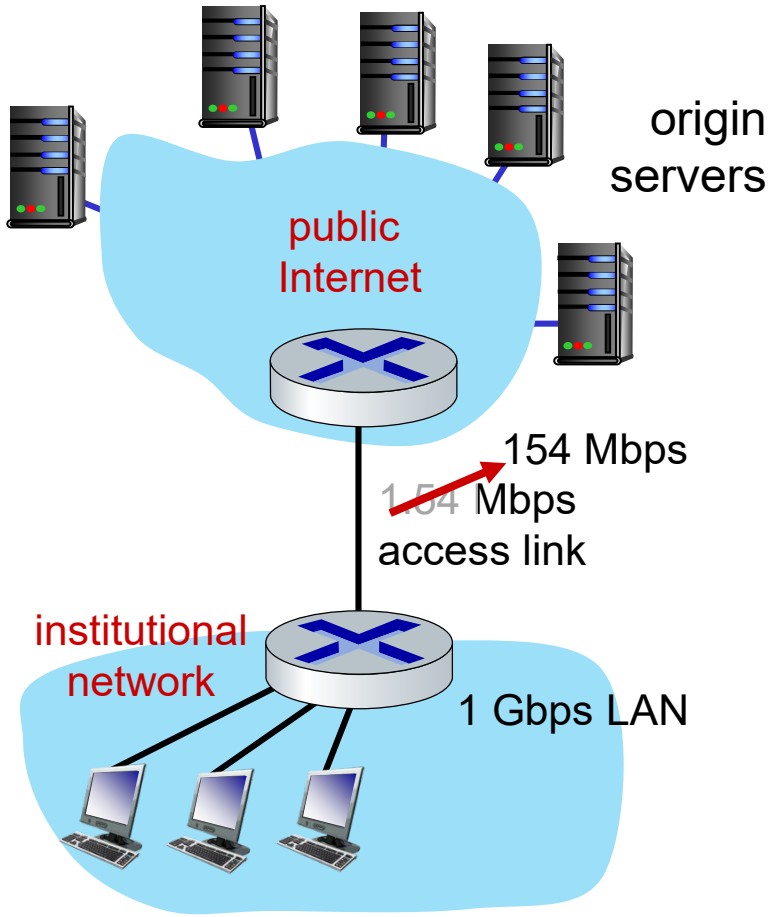
problem: large delays at high utilization!



Caching example: buy a faster access link

Scenario:

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



Performance:

- LAN traffic intensity: .0015
- access link traff.intensity = .97 → .0097
- end-end delay = Internet delay + access link delay + LAN delay
  = 2 sec + minutes + usecs → msecs

Cost: faster access link (expensive!)

Caching example: install a web cache

Scenario:

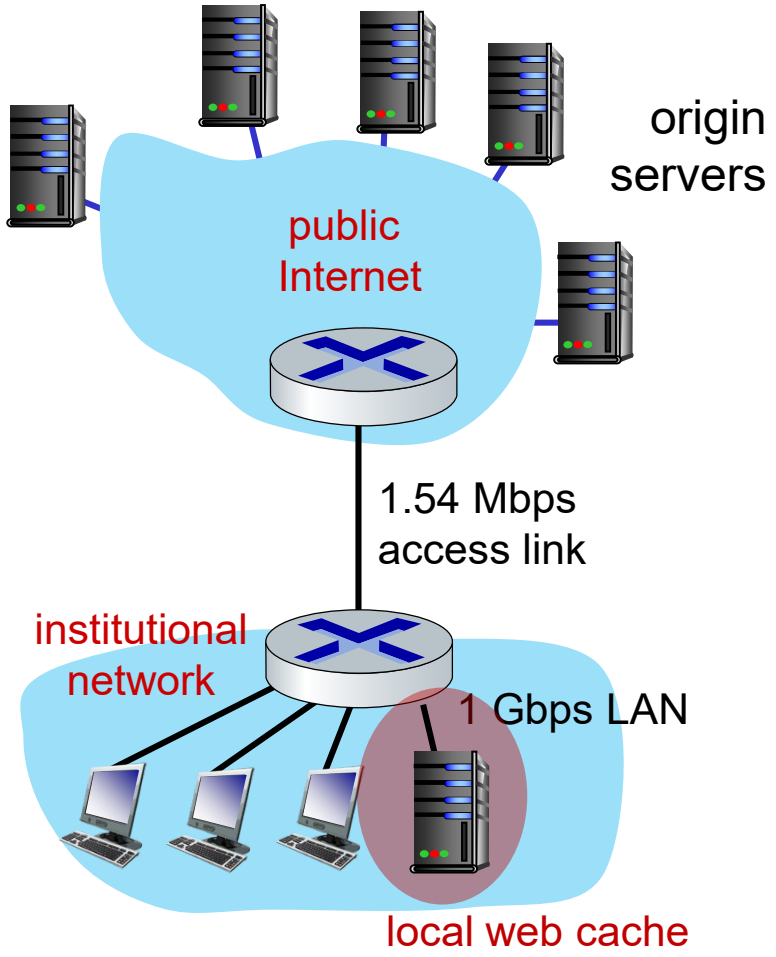
- access link rate: 1.54 Mbps
- RTT from institutional router to server: 2 sec
- Web object size: 100K bits
- Avg request rate from browsers to origin servers: 15/sec
  - avg data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps

Performance:

- LAN traffic intensity: .?
- access link traff.intensity = ?
- average end-end delay = ?

Cost: web cache (cheap!)

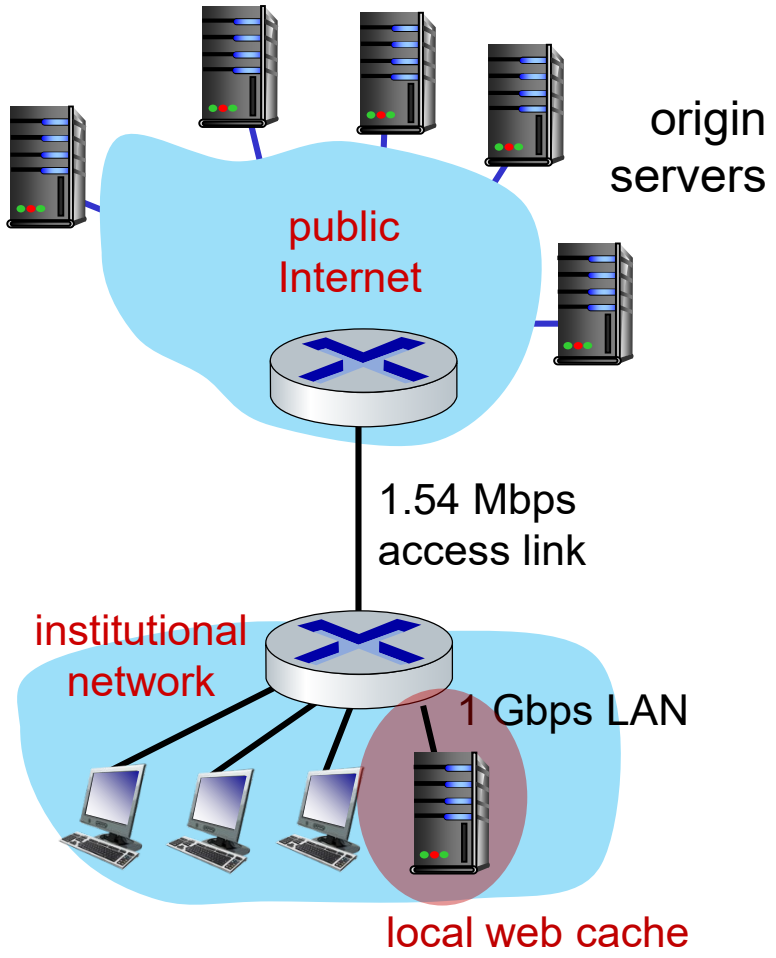
How to compute traffic intensity, delay?



Caching example: install a web cache

Calculating access link traffic intensity, end-end delay:

- suppose cache hit rate is 0.4: 40% requests satisfied at cache, 60% requests satisfied at origin
- access link: 60% of requests use access link
- data rate to browsers over access link
  = 0.6 * 1.50 Mbps = .9 Mbps
- traffic intensity = 0.9/1.54 = .58
- average end-end delay
  = 0.6 * (delay from origin servers)
  + 0.4 * (delay when satisfied at cache)
  = 0.6 (2.01) + 0.4 (~msecs) = ~ 1.2 secs



lower average end-end delay than with 154 Mbps link (and cheaper too!)

Conditional GET

Goal: don't send object if cache has up-to-date cached version

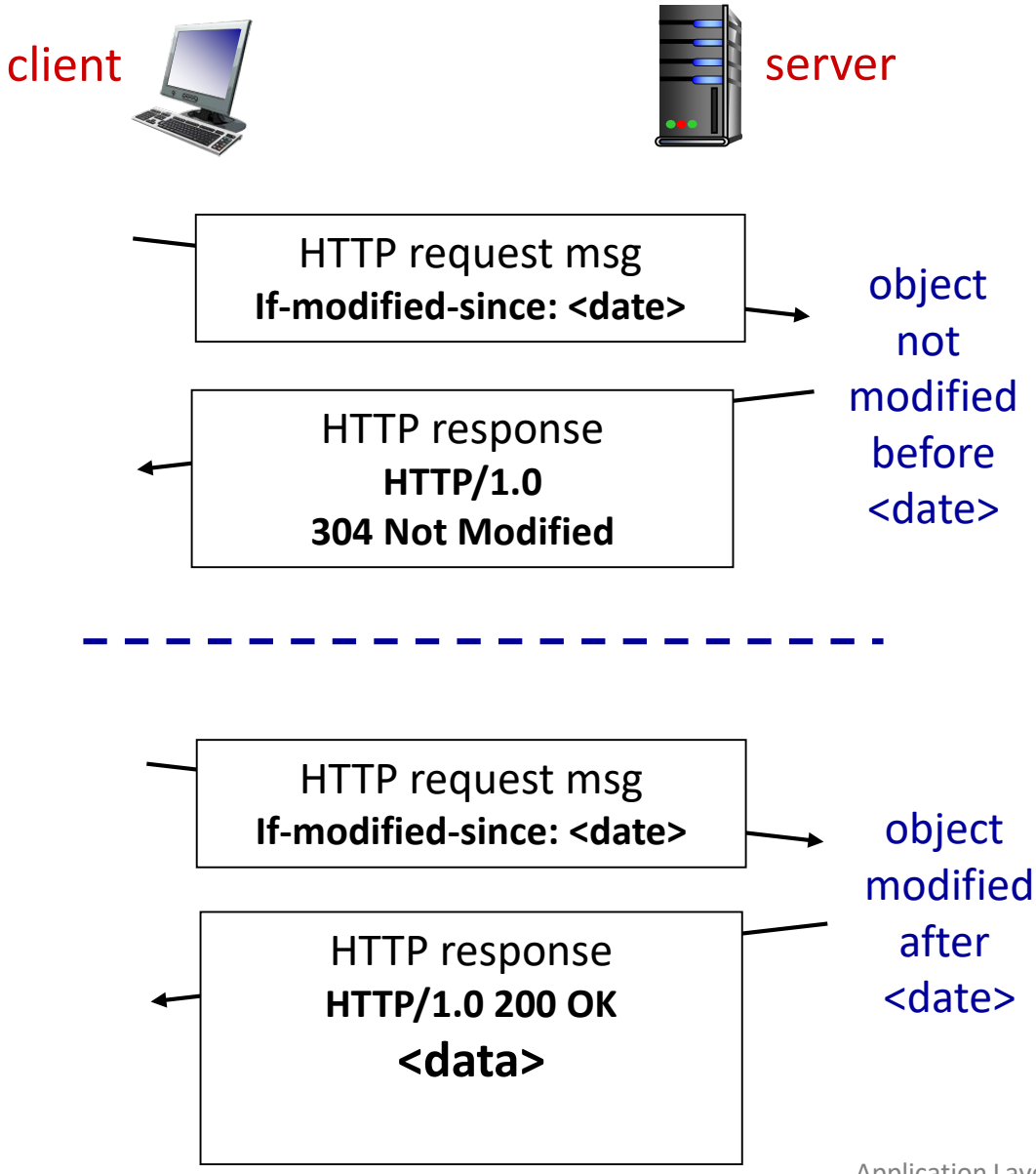
- no object transmission delay
- lower link utilization

- *cache:* specify date of cached copy in HTTP request

  If-modified-since: <date> 上次更新日期

- *server:* response contains no object if cached copy is up-to-date:

  HTTP/1.0 304 Not Modified



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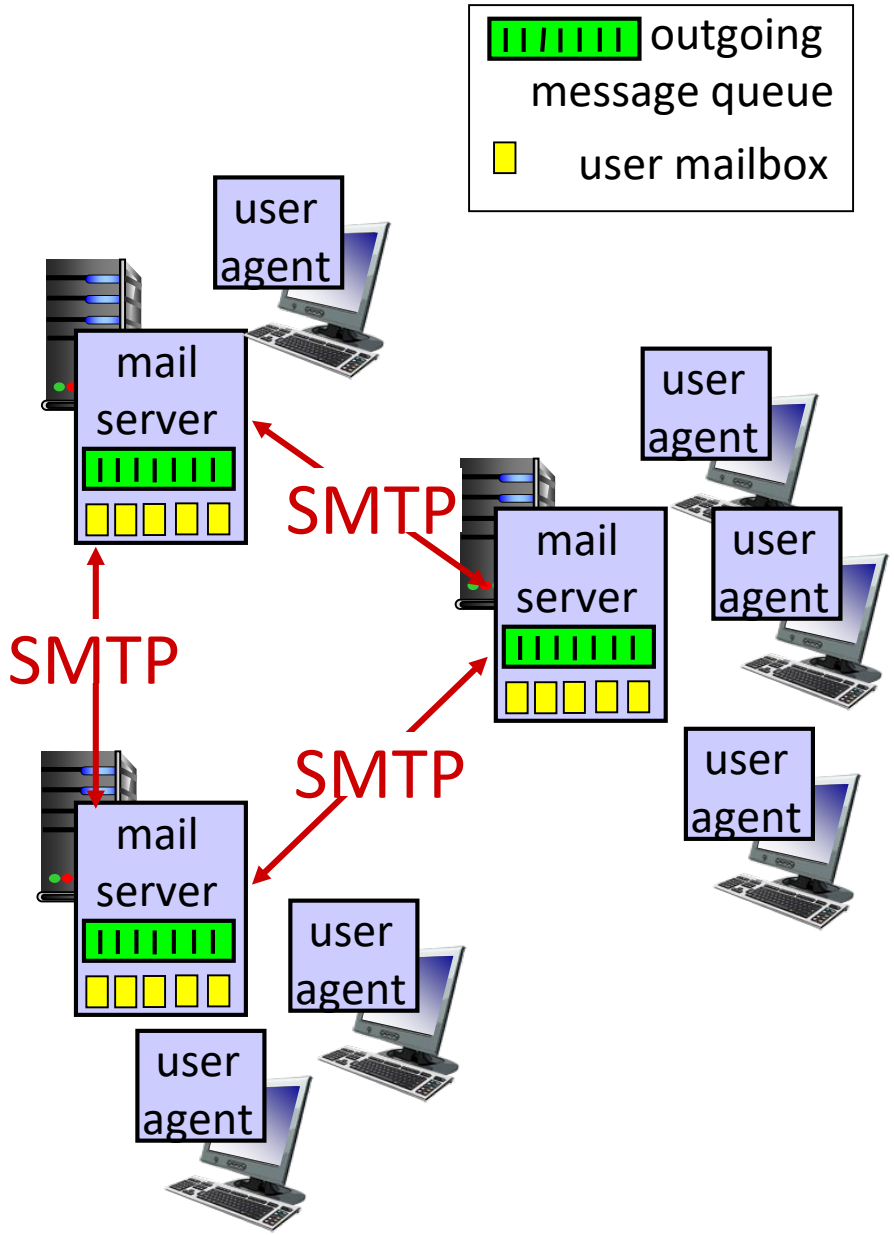
E-mail

Three major components:

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

User Agent

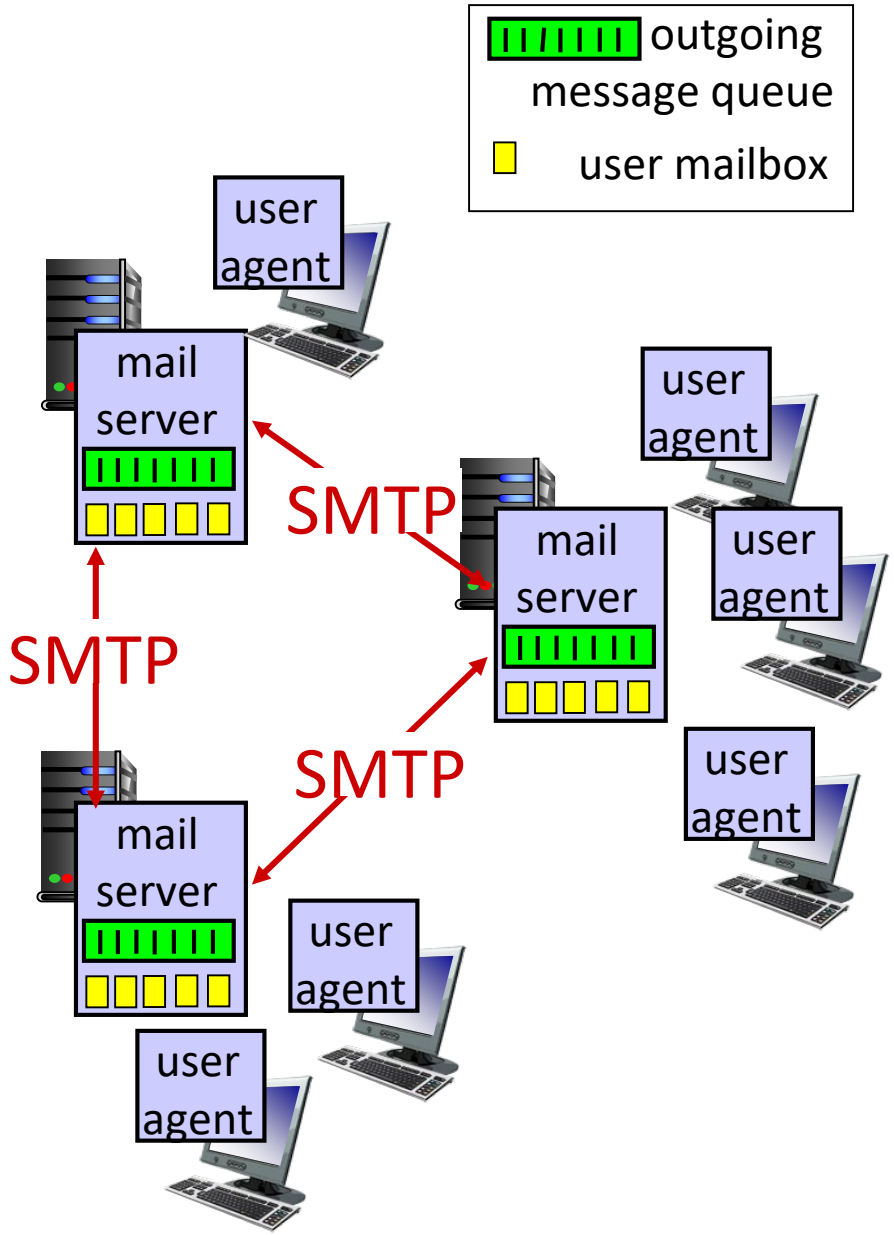
- a.k.a. “mail reader”
- composing, editing, reading mail messages
- e.g., Outlook, iPhone mail client
- outgoing, incoming messages stored on server



E-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



Scenario: Alice sends e-mail to Bob

1) Alice uses UA to compose e-mail message “to” bob@someschool.edu

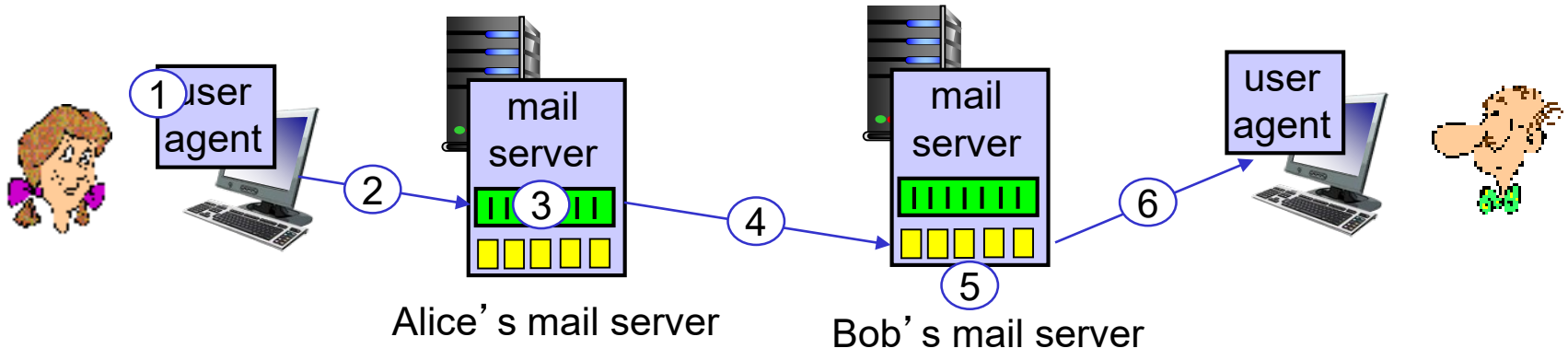
2) Alice’s UA sends message to her mail server; message placed in message queue

3) client side of SMTP opens TCP connection with Bob’s mail server

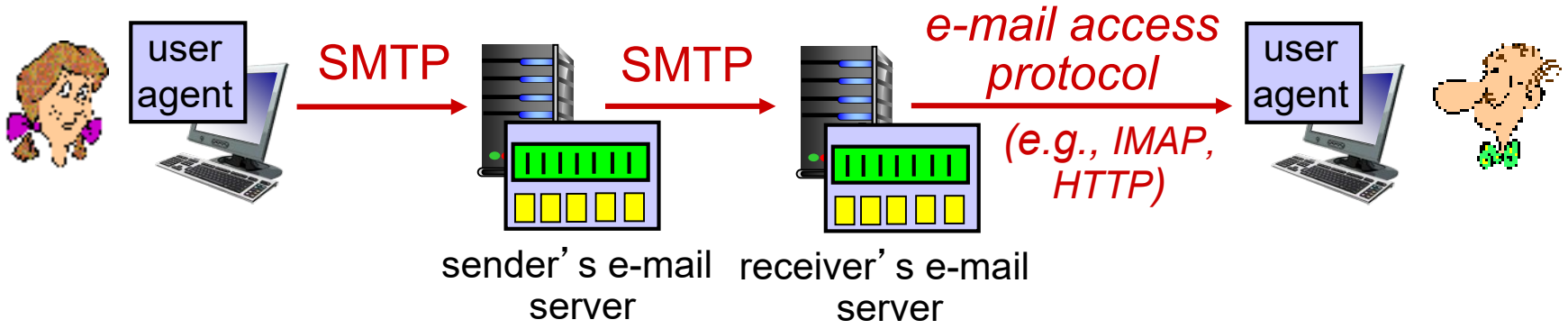
4) SMTP client sends Alice’s message over the TCP connection

5) Bob’s mail server places the message in Bob’s mailbox

6) Bob invokes his user agent to read message



Mail access protocols



- SMTP: delivery/storage of e-mail messages to receiver's server
- mail access protocol: retrieval from server
  - IMAP: Internet Mail Access Protocol [RFC 3501]: messages stored on server, IMAP provides retrieval, deletion, folders of stored messages on server
- HTTP: gmail, Hotmail, Yahoo!Mail, etc. provides web-based interface on top of SMTP (to send), IMAP (or POP) to retrieve e-mail messages

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DNS: Domain Name System

Internet hosts, routers:

- IP address (32 bit) - used for addressing datagrams
- "name", e.g., cityu.edu.hk used by humans

Q: how to map name to IP address?

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)
  - provides core Internet function, but *implemented as application-layer protocol*
  - complexity at network's "edge"

DNS: services, structure

DNS services

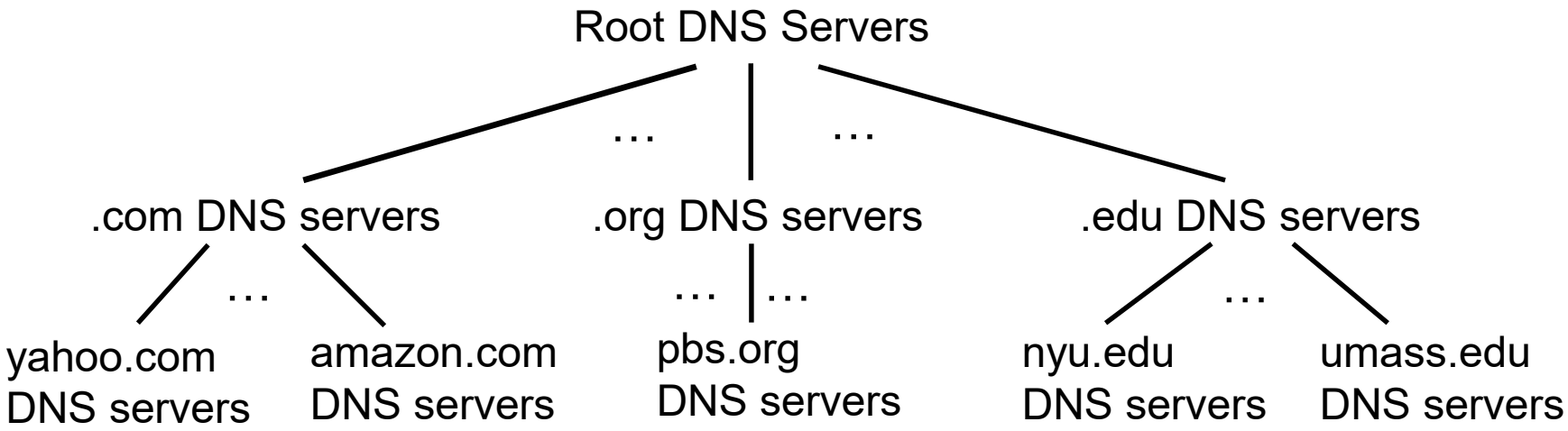
- hostname to IP address translation
- host aliasing
  - canonical, alias names
- mail server aliasing
- load distribution
  - replicated Web servers: many IP addresses correspond to one name

Q: Why not centralize DNS?

- single point of failure
- traffic volume
- distant centralized database
- maintenance

→ *doesn‘t scale!*

DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database

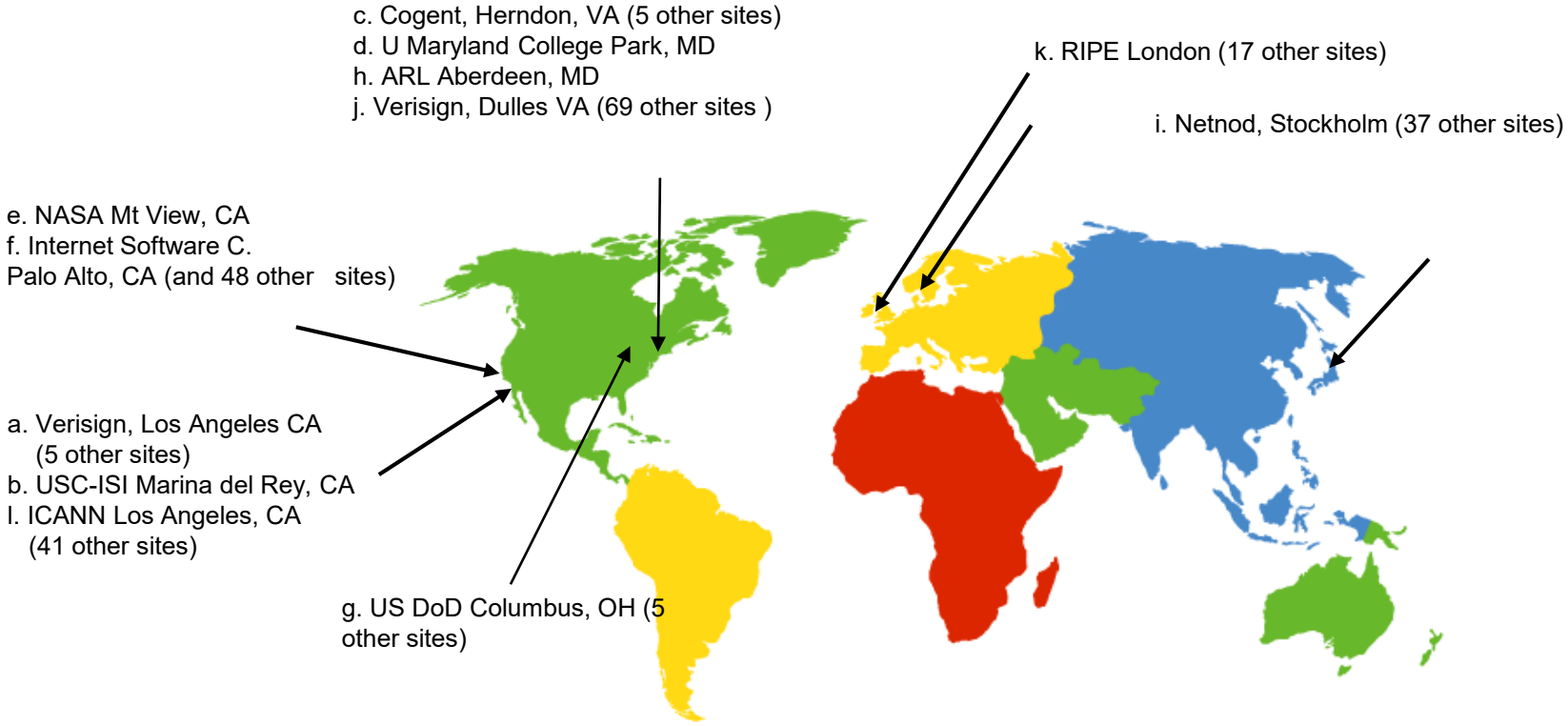


Client wants IP address for www.amazon.com; (1st approximation):

- 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

DNS: root name servers

- at the “root” of name server hierarchy
- contacted by local name server if it cannot resolve name
- 13 logical root name “servers” worldwide each “server” replicated many times



TLD and Authoritative Servers

Top-Level Domain (TLD) servers:

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

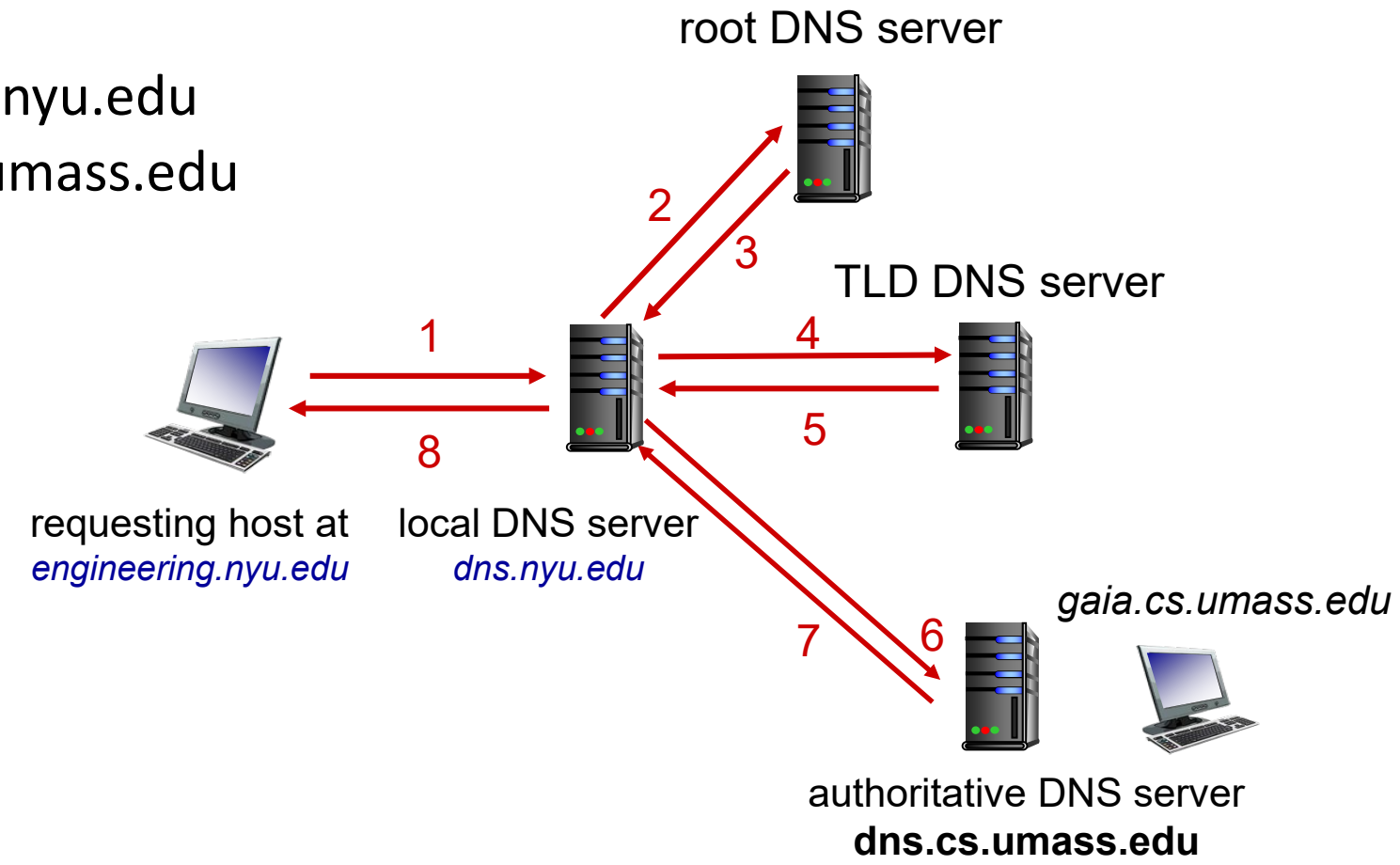
- does not strictly belong to hierarchy
- each ISP (residential ISP, company, university) has one
  - also called “default name server”
- when host makes DNS query, query is sent to its local DNS server:
  - has local **cache** of recent name-to-address translation pairs (but may be out of date!)
  -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

DNS name resolution: iterated query

Example: host at engineering.nyu.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"

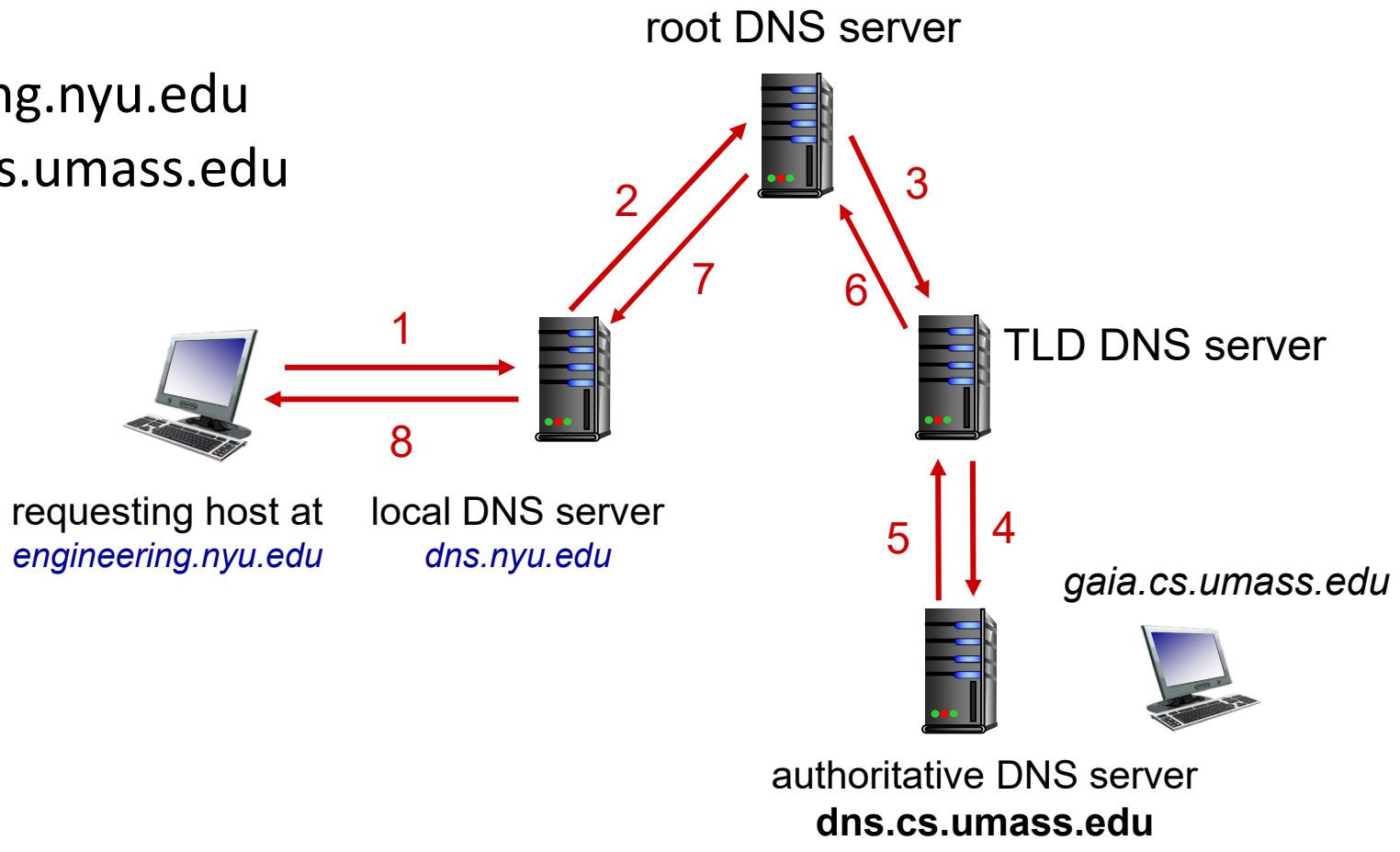


DNS name resolution: recursive query

Example: host at engineering.nyu.edu wants IP address for gaia.cs.umass.edu

Recursive query:

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



Caching, Updating DNS Records

- if name server learns mapping: adds to *cache*
  - cache entries discarded 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!

DNS records

DNS: distributed database storing resource records (RR)

RR format: (`name, value, type, ttl`)

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
- `value` is canonical name
- Ex: www.ibm.com is really servereast.backup2.ibm.com

type=MX

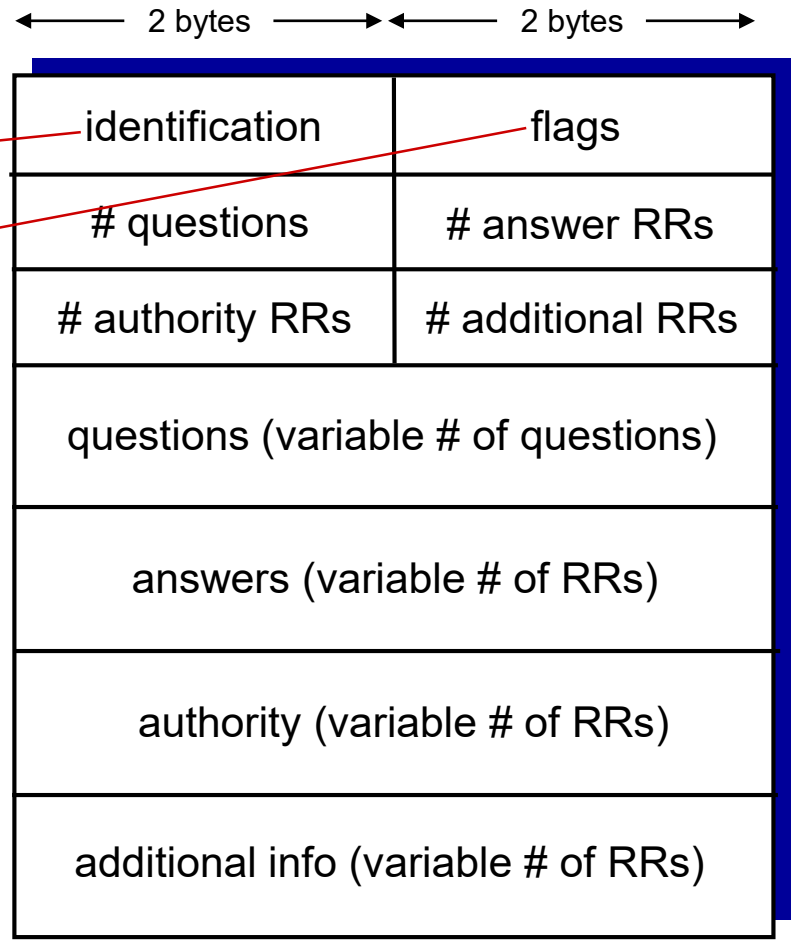
- `value` is canonical name of mailserver that has an alias hostname in field `name`

DNS protocol messages

DNS *query* and *reply* messages, both have same *format:*

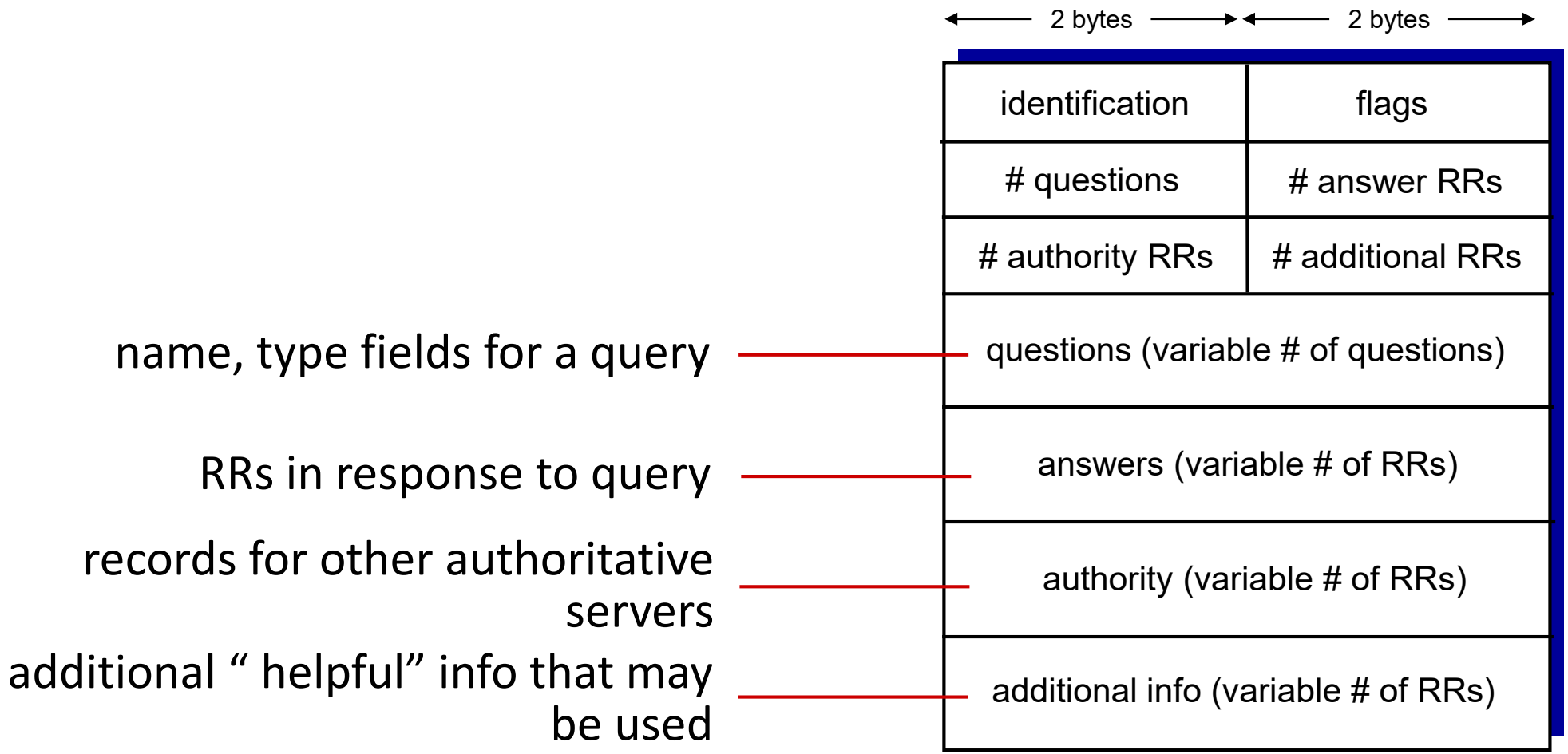
message header:

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



DNS protocol messages

DNS *query* and *reply* messages, both have same *format:*



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 **NS** and **A** RRs into .com TLD server:

    `(networkutopia.com, dns1.networkutopia.com, NS)`

    `(dns1.networkutopia.com, 212.212.212.1, A)`
- create authoritative server locally with IP address `212.212.212.1`
  - type A record for www.networkuptopia.com
  - type MX record for networkutopia.com

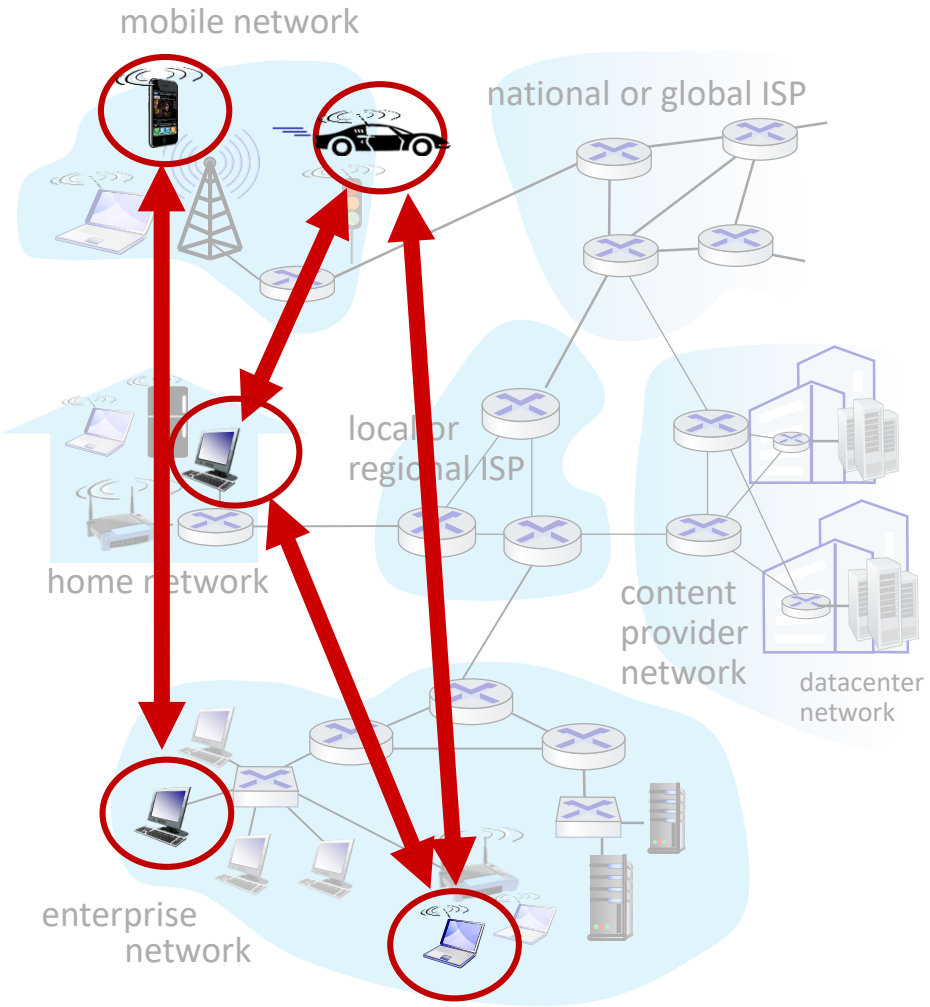
Application Layer: Overview

- Principles of network applications
- Web and HTTP
- E-mail, SMTP, IMAP
- The Domain Name System DNS

- P2P applications
- video streaming and content distribution networks

Peer-to-peer (P2P) architecture

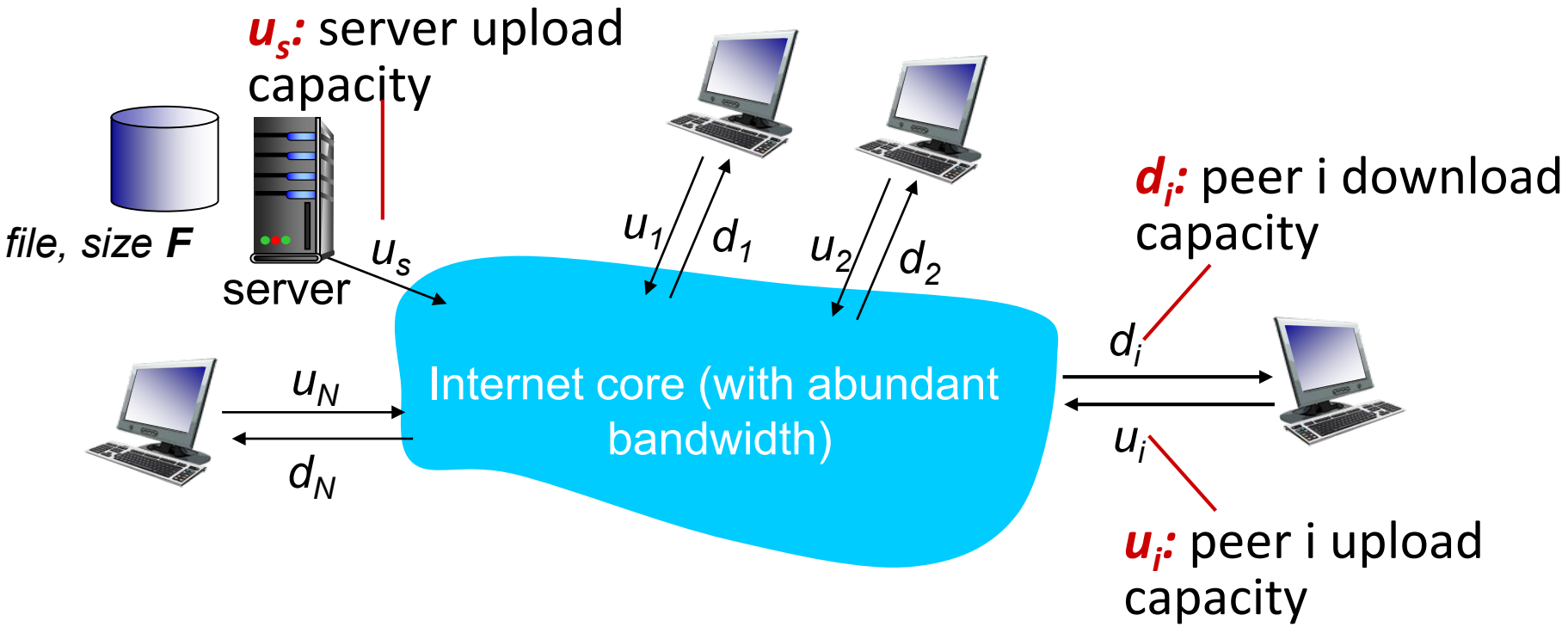
- *no* always-on server
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- peers request service from other peers, provide service in return to other peers
  - *self scalability* – new peers bring new service capacity, and new service demands
- peers are intermittently connected and change IP addresses
  - complex management
- examples: P2P file sharing (BitTorrent), streaming (KanKan), VoIP (Skype)



File distribution: client-server vs P2P

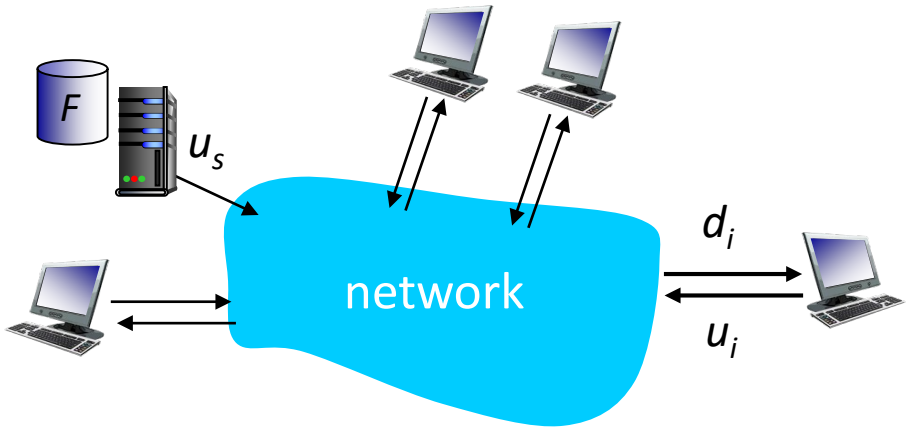
Q: How much time to distribute file (size ***F***) from 1 server to ***N*** *peers*?

- 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:
  - time to send ***N*** copies:



- *client:* each client must download file copy
  - d_{min} = minimum client download rate
  - min client download time:

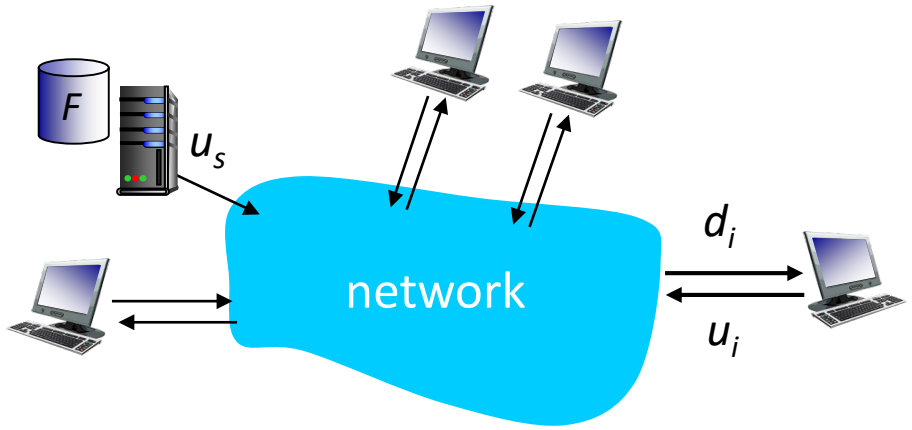
time to distribute file to N clients using client-server approach

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

increases linearly in N

File distribution time: P2P

- *server transmission:* must upload at least *one* copy:
  - time to send one copy:
- *client:* each client must download file copy
  - min client download time:
- *clients:* as aggregate must download *NF* bits
  - max upload rate (limiting max download rate) is:



time to distribute file to N clients using P2P approach

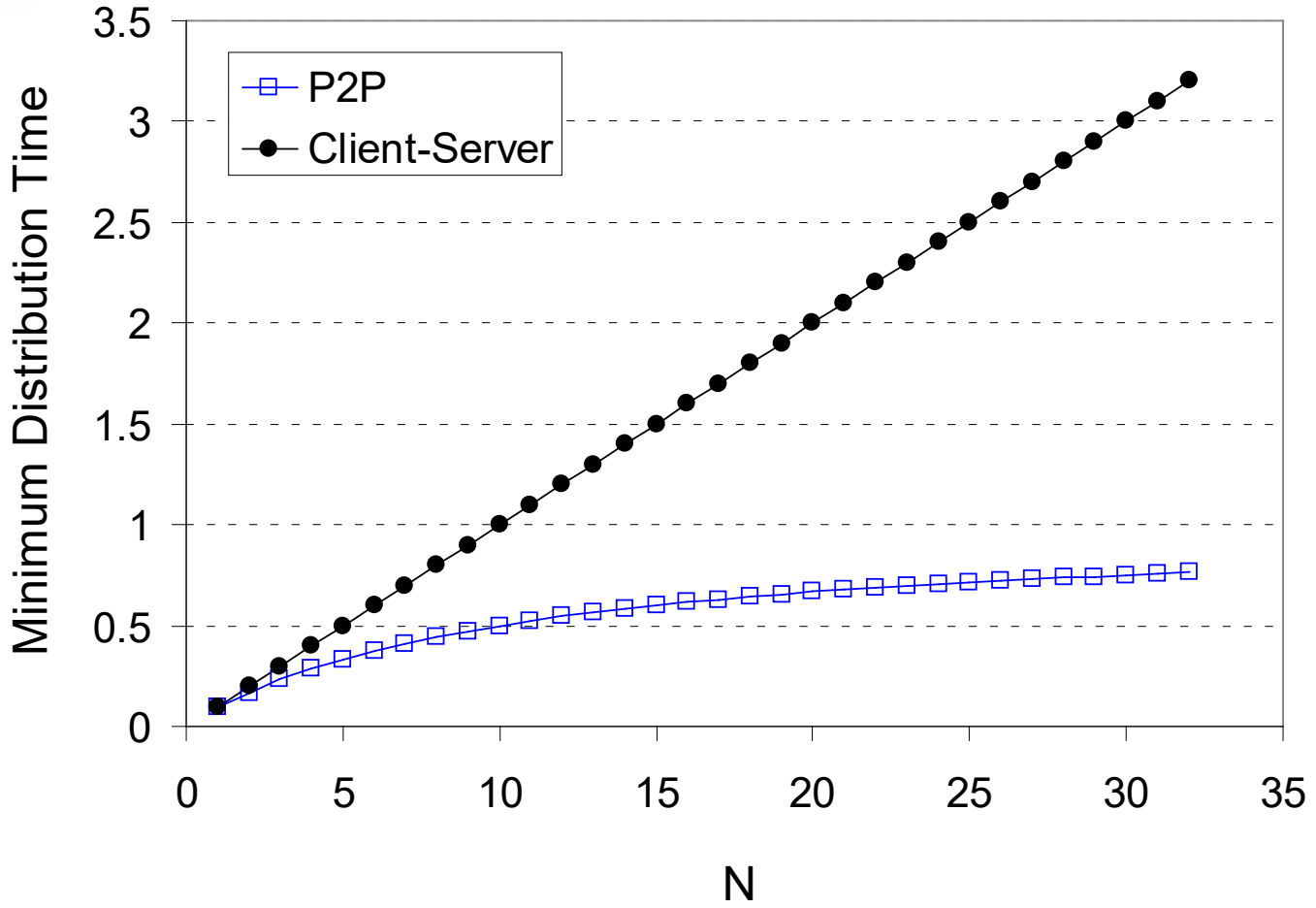
$$D_{P2P} \geq \max\{F/u_s, F/d_{min}, NF/(u_s + \Sigma u_i)\}$$

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, $u_s = 10u$, $d_{min} \geq u_s$

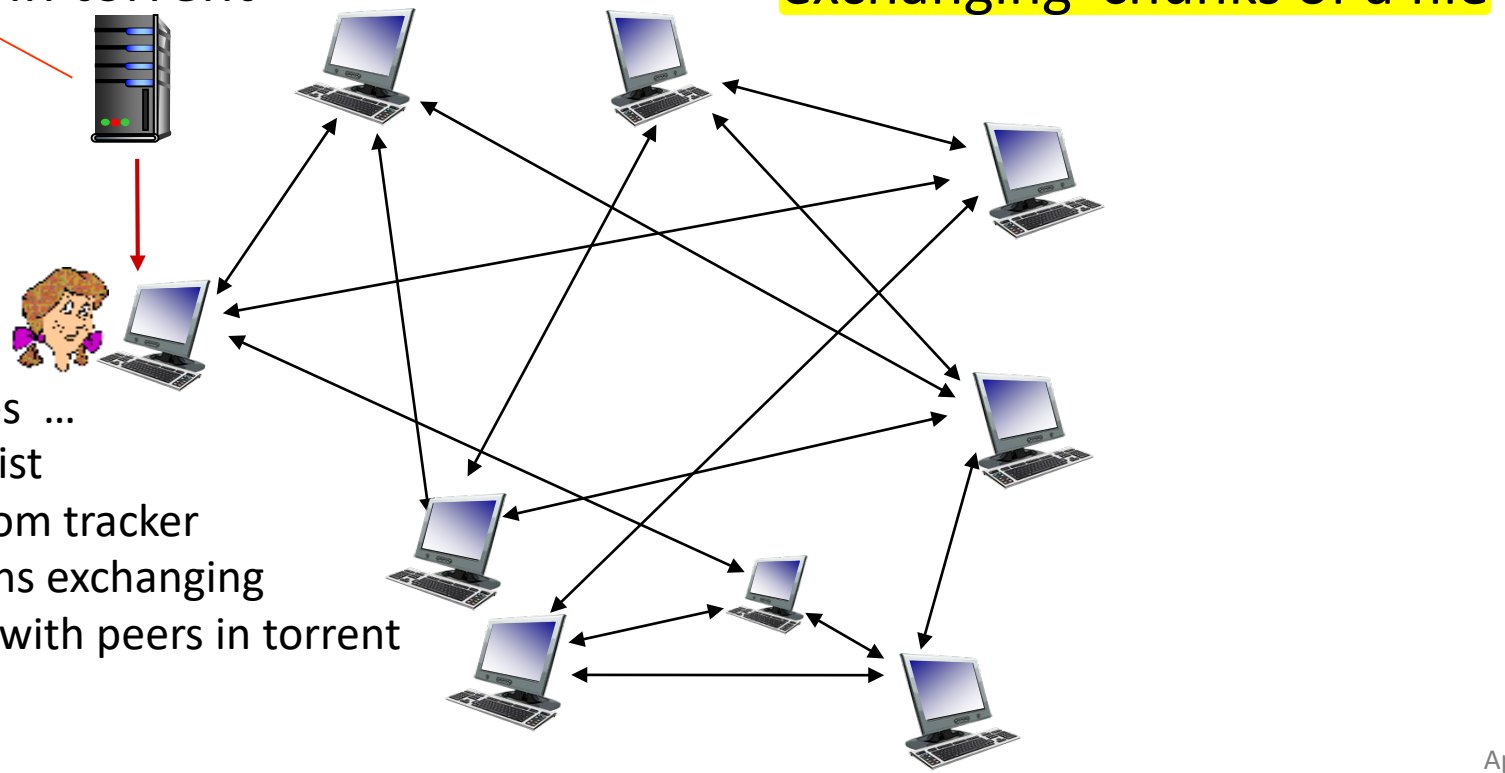


P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

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

tracker: tracks peers participating in torrent

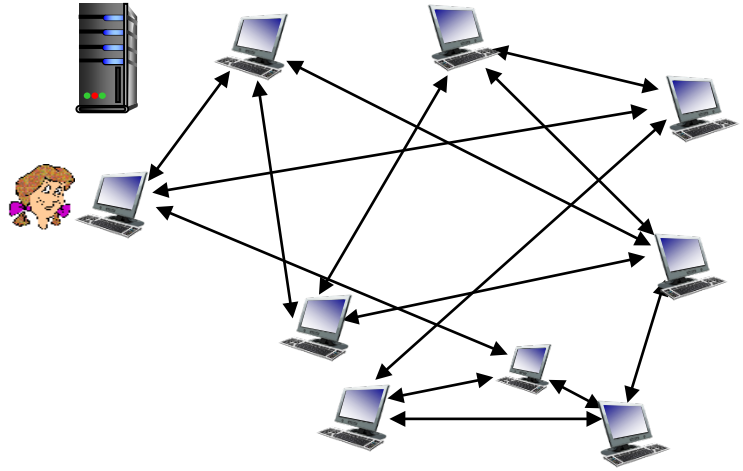
torrent: group of peers exchanging chunks of a file



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 group of 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" rule**

Sending chunks: tit-for-tat

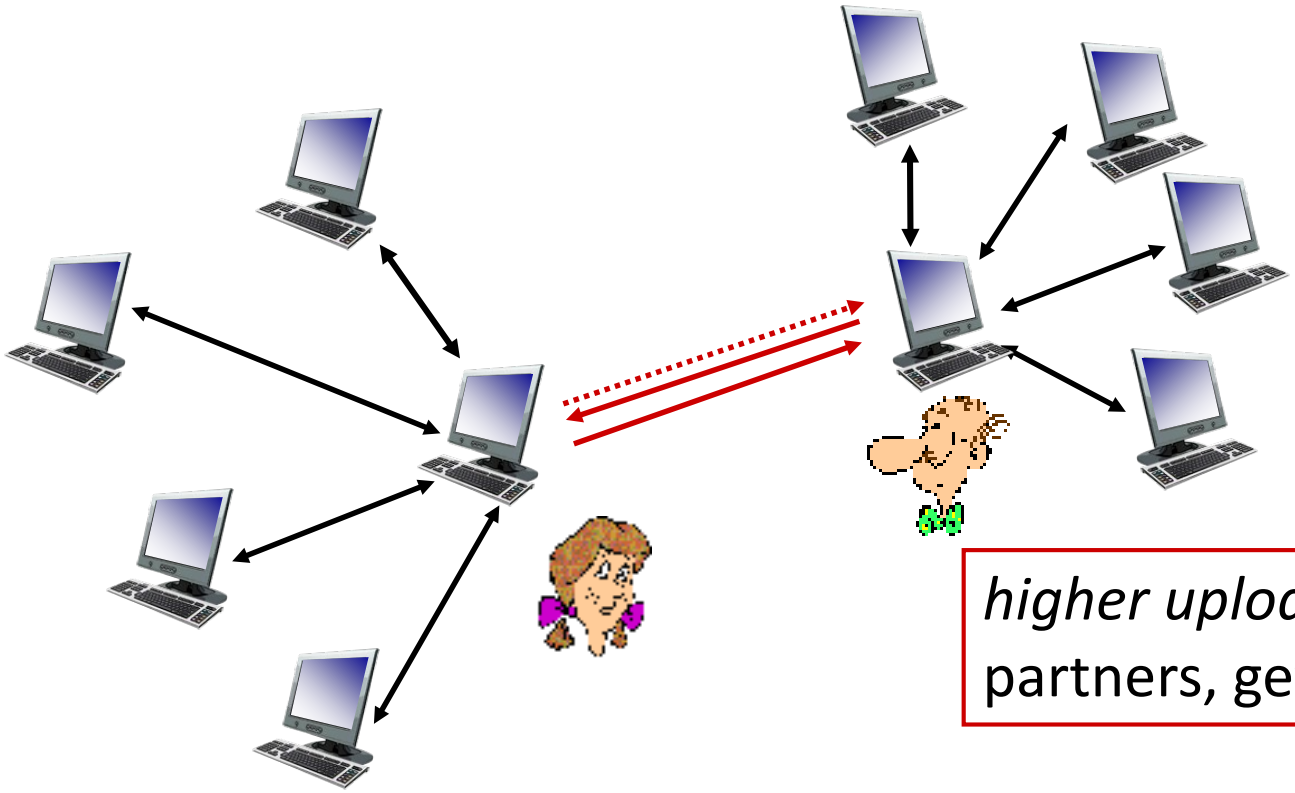
- Alice sends chunks to those four peers currently sending her chunks *at highest rate*
  - other peers are "choked" by Alice (do not receive chunks from her)
  - re-evaluate top 4 every 10 secs
- every 30 secs: randomly select another peer, starts sending chunks
  - "optimistically unchoke" this peer
  - 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 !

Application layer: overview

- Principles of network applications
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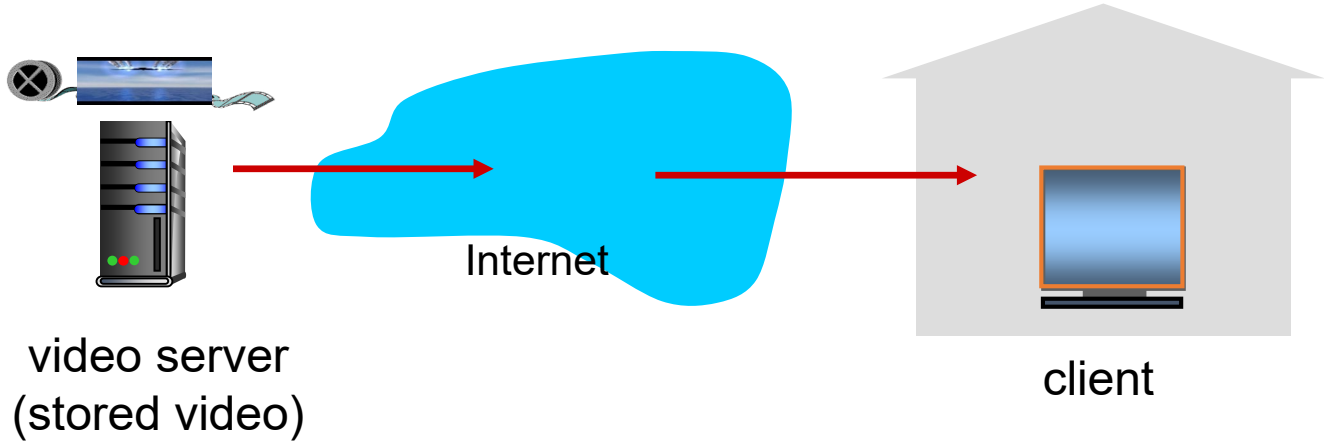
- video streaming and content distribution networks

Video Streaming and CDNs

- stream video traffic: major consumer of Internet bandwidth
  - Netflix, YouTube, Amazon Prime: 80% of residential ISP traffic (2020)
- 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*

Streaming stored video

simple scenario:

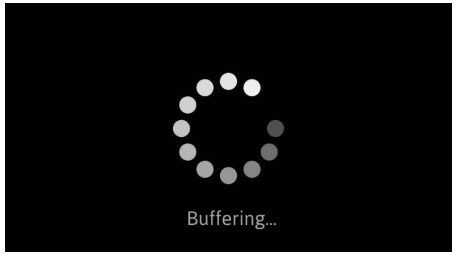


Main challenges:

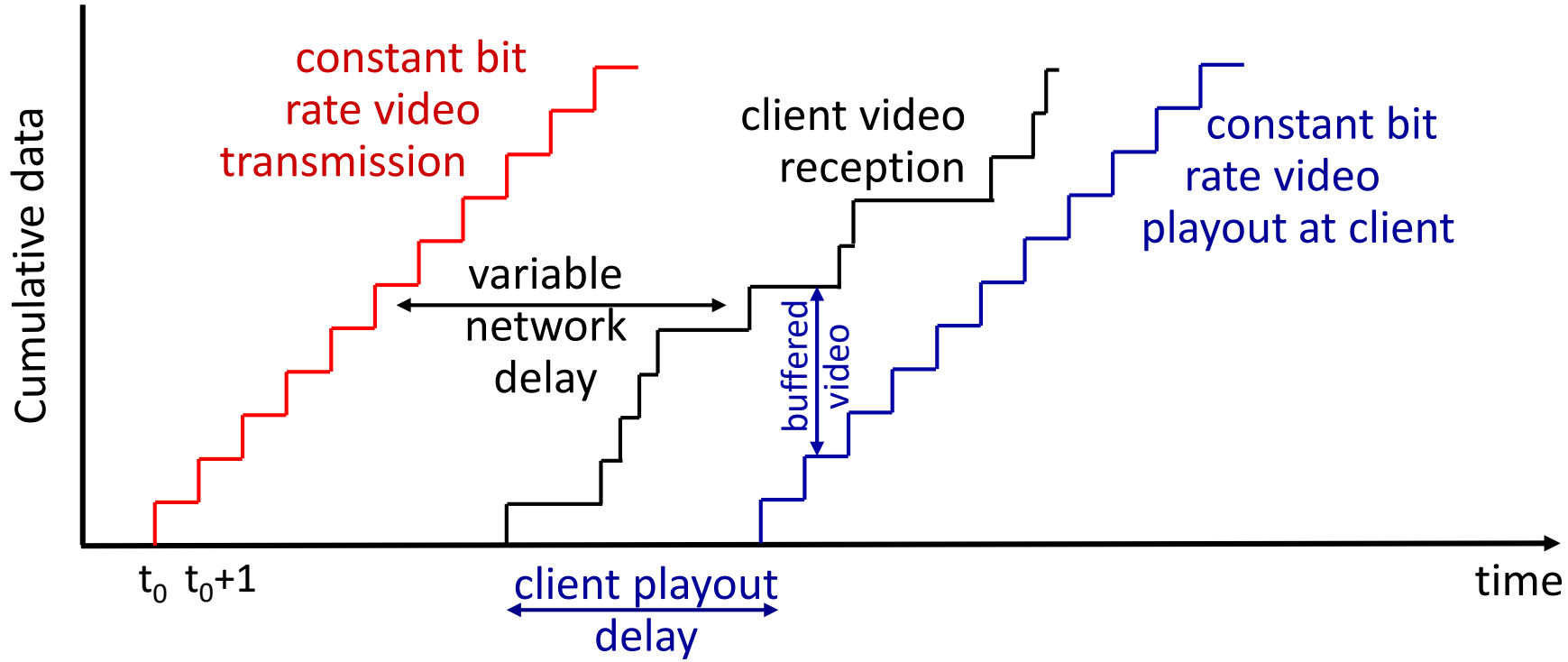
- server-to-client bandwidth will *vary* over time, with changing network congestion levels (in house, in access network, in network core, at video server)
- packet loss and delay due to congestion will delay playout, or result in poor video quality

Streaming stored video: challenges

- continuous playout constraint: once client playout begins, playback must match original timing
  - … but network delays are variable (jitter), so will need client-side buffer to match playout requirements
- other challenges:
  - client interactivity: pause, fast-forward, rewind, jump through video
  - video packets may be lost, retransmitted



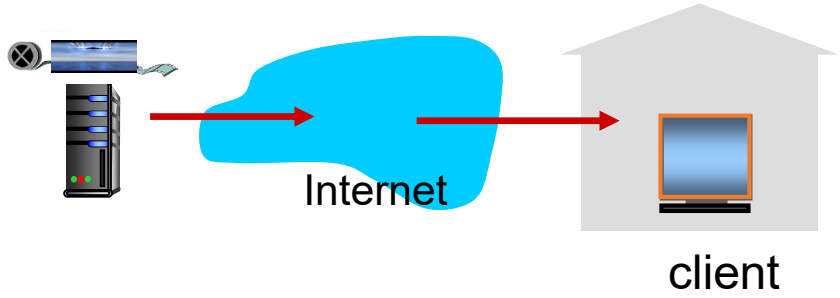
Streaming stored video: playout buffering



- *client-side buffering and playout delay:* compensate for network-added delay, delay jitter

Streaming multimedia: DASH

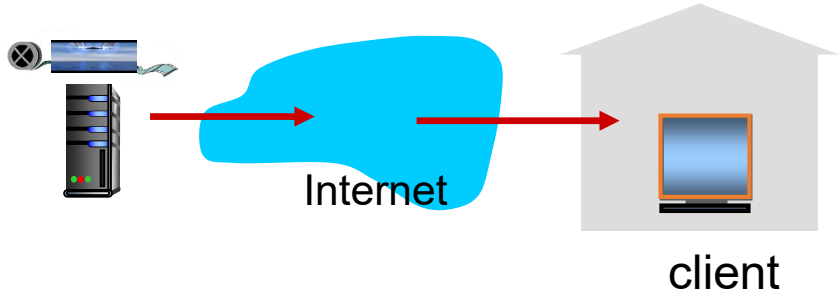
- *DASH: D*ynamic, *A*daptive *S*treaming over *H*TTP
- *server:*
  - divides video file into multiple chunks
  - each chunk stored, encoded at different rates
  - *manifest file:* provides URLs for different chunks



- *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

- *"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)



Streaming video = encoding + DASH + playout buffering

Content distribution networks (CDNs)

- *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

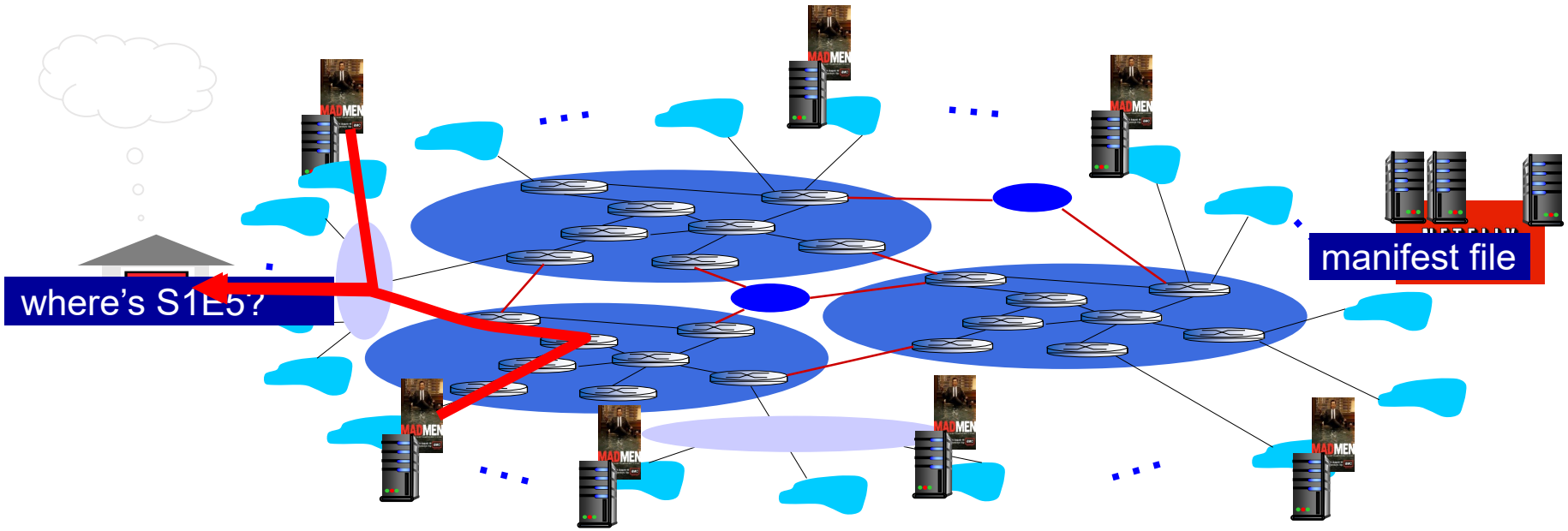
….quite simply: this solution *doesn't scale*

Content distribution networks (CDNs)

- *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
    - Akamai: 240,000 servers deployed in more than 120 countries (2015)
  - *bring home:* smaller number (10's) of larger clusters in IXPs (internet exchange points) near (but not within) access networks
    - used by Limelight

Content distribution networks (CDNs)

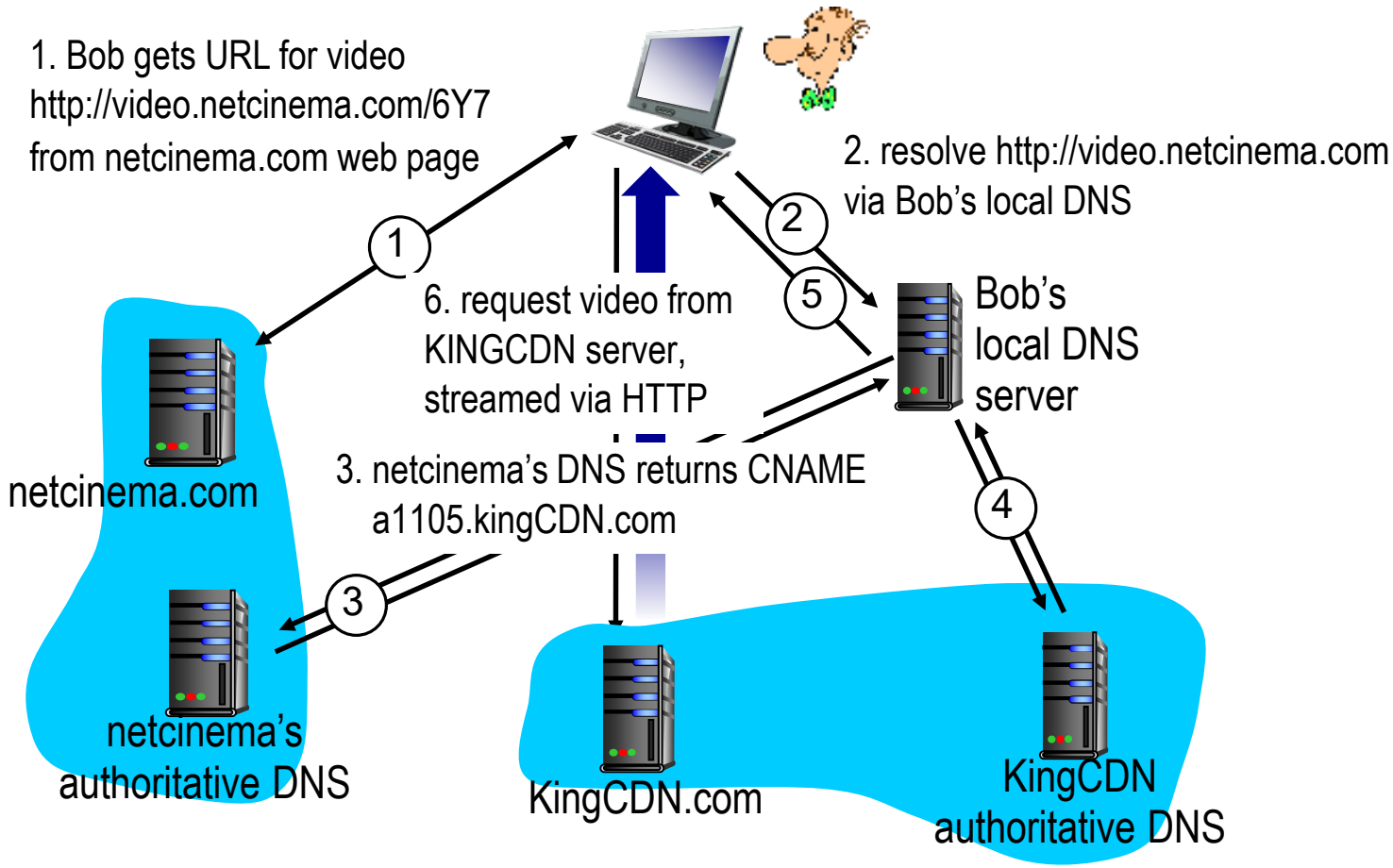
- CDN: stores copies of content at CDN nodes
  - e.g. Netflix stores copies of <your favorite show>
- subscriber requests content from CDN
  - directed to nearby copy, retrieves content
  - may choose different copy if network path congested



CDN content access: a closer look

Bob (client) requests video http://video.netcinema.com/6Y7

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



Case study: Netflix