

# Chapter 2

## Application Layer

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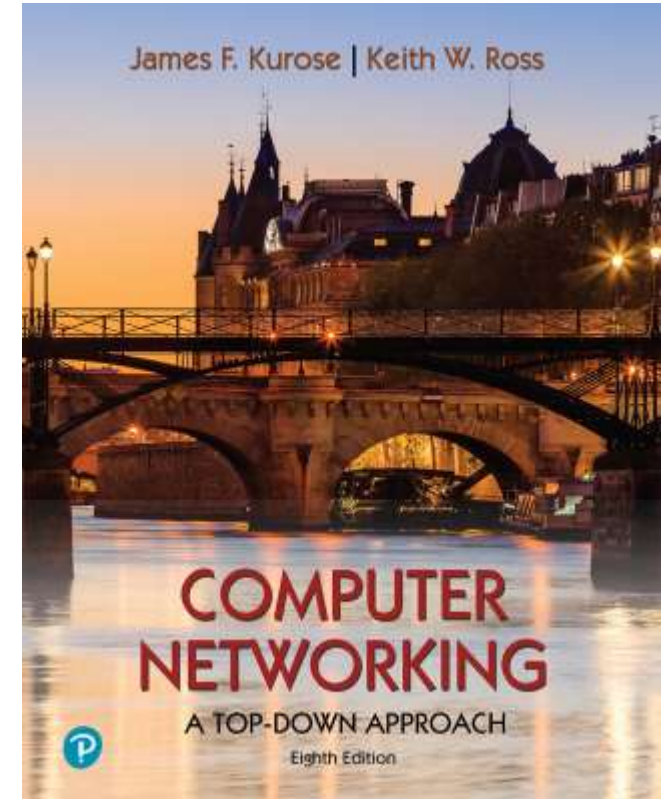
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### *Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach*

8<sup>th</sup> edition  
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross  
Pearson, 2020

# 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
- socket programming with UDP and TCP



# Application layer: overview

## Our goals:

- conceptual *and* implementation aspects of application-layer protocols
  - transport-layer service models
  - client-server paradigm
  - peer-to-peer paradigm
- learn about protocols by examining popular application-layer protocols and infrastructure
  - HTTP
  - SMTP, IMAP
  - DNS
  - video streaming systems, CDNs
- programming network applications
  - socket API

# Some network apps

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

# Creating a network app

Communication for a network application takes place between end systems at the application layer.

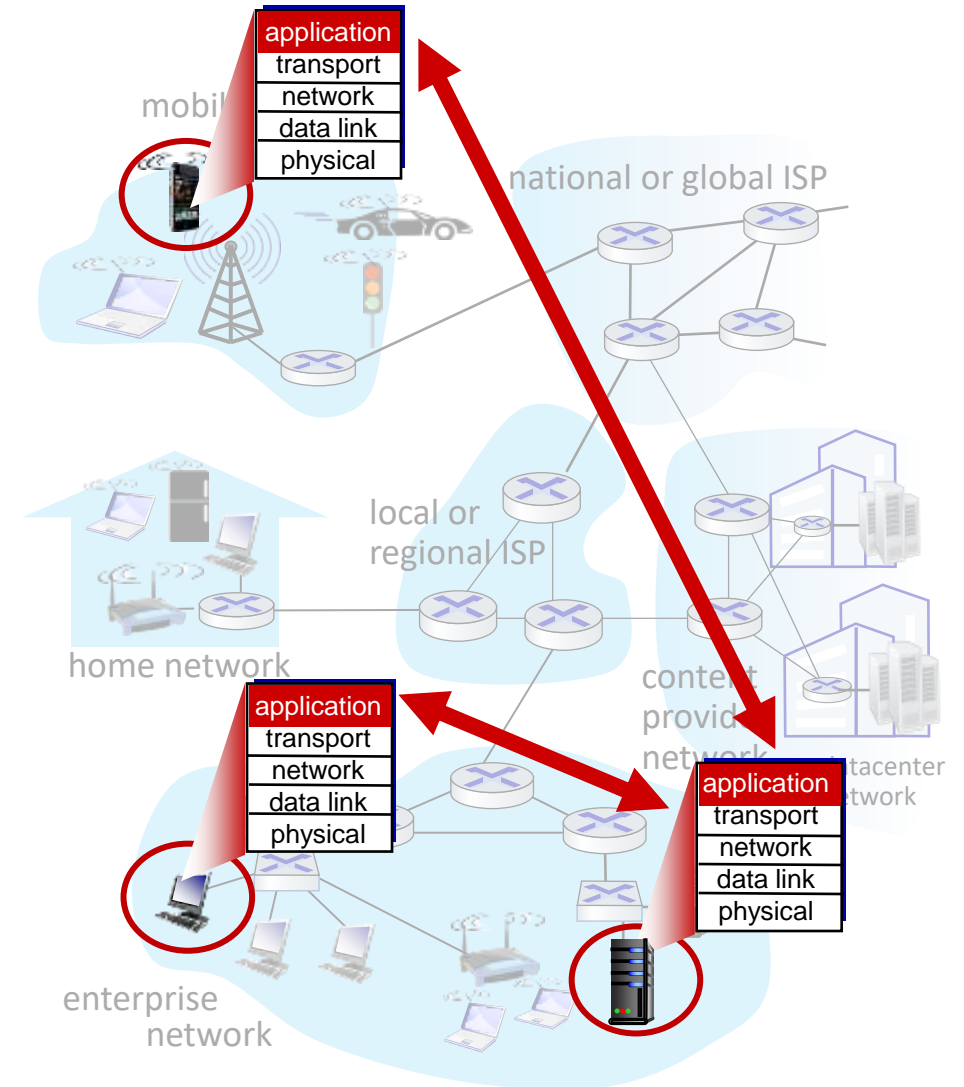
develop programs that:

- 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 (routers & switches)

■ Why?

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



# Application Architecture

from the developer's perspective:

Network Architecture:

- Five-layer static architecture

Application Architecture:

- Designed by the application developer
- Dictates how the application is structured over the various end systems
- Client-server or peer-to-peer (P2P ) architectures

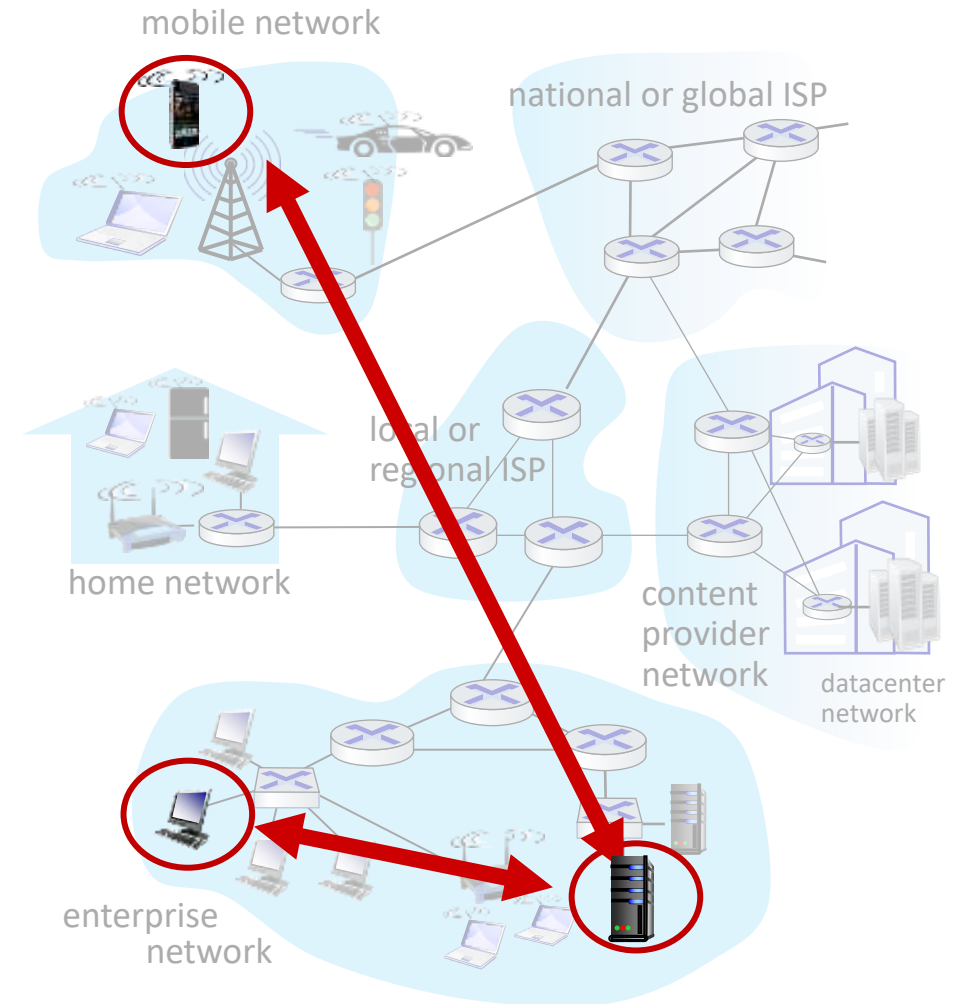
# Client-server paradigm

## server:

- always-on host (called server)
- Services the requests from other hosts (clients)
- Example: Web application with always-on Web server services requests from browsers running on client hosts
- Permanent/fixed IP address of the server
  - Example: Email server
- Often in data centers or in cloud, for scaling

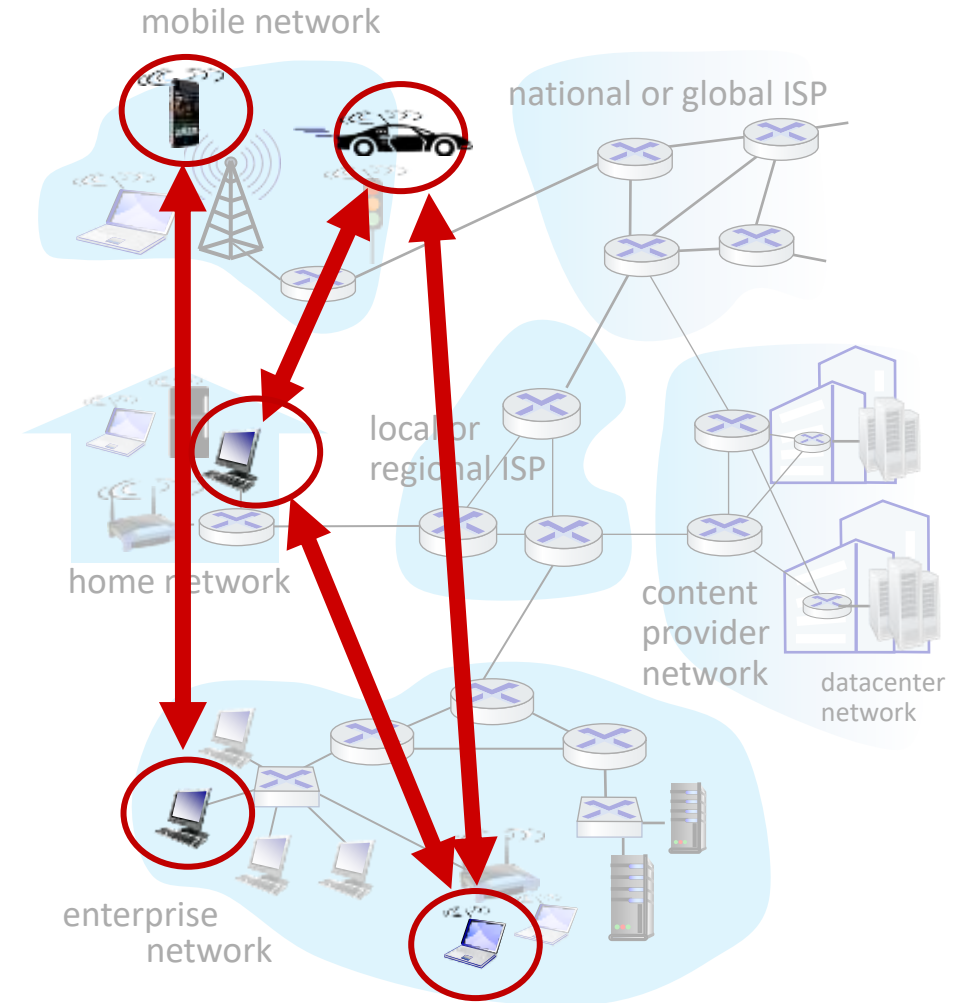
## clients:

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



# Peer-peer architecture

- Minimal or no reliance on dedicated hosts (servers) in datacenters
- *no* always-on server
- No service provider, controlled by users
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- Peers (connected hosts) request service from other peers, provide service in return to other peers
  - *Advantage: 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 [BitTorrent]
- *Disadvantages:* security, performance, reliability due to decentralized structure.





# Processes communicating

Programs running in multiple end systems communicate with each other:

*process*: program running within a host

- within same host, two processes communicate using **inter-process communication** (defined by OS)
- How two processes running on different hosts (with potentially) different OS communicate?
  - processes in different hosts communicate by exchanging **messages** across computer network
  - Sending process creates and send messages into the network
  - Receiving process receives these messages and responds by sending messages back

clients, servers

*client process*: process that initiates communication

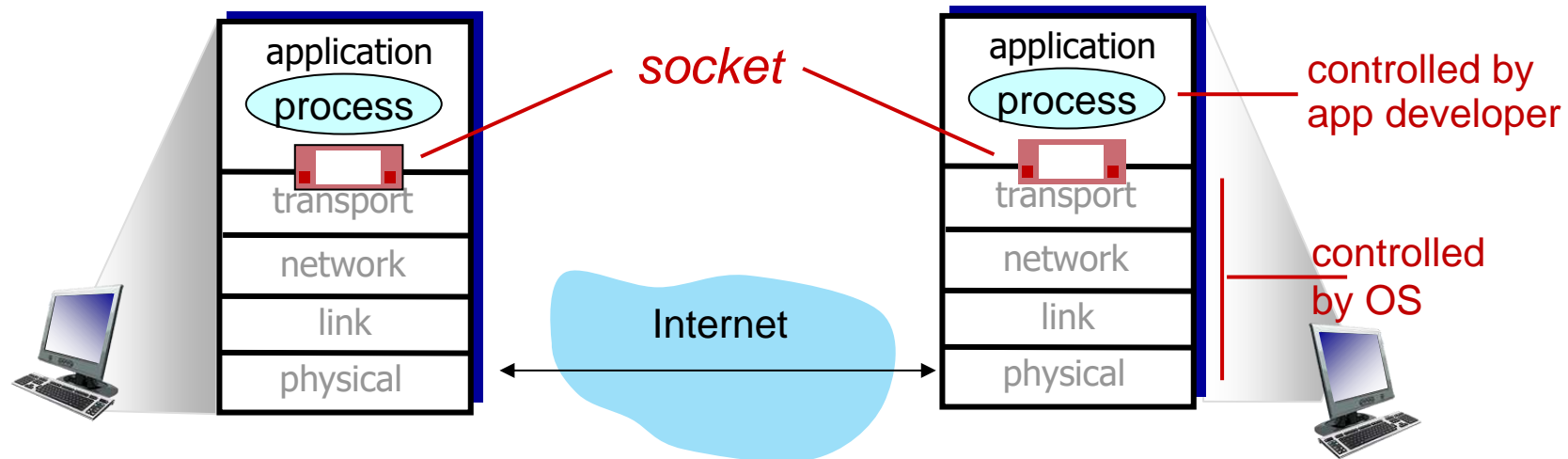
*server process*: process that waits to be contacted

Web:

- Browser is a client process
  - Web server is a server process
- 
- note: applications with P2P file-sharing system, a file is transferred from a process in one peer to a process in another peer. Process can be both, client and a server.

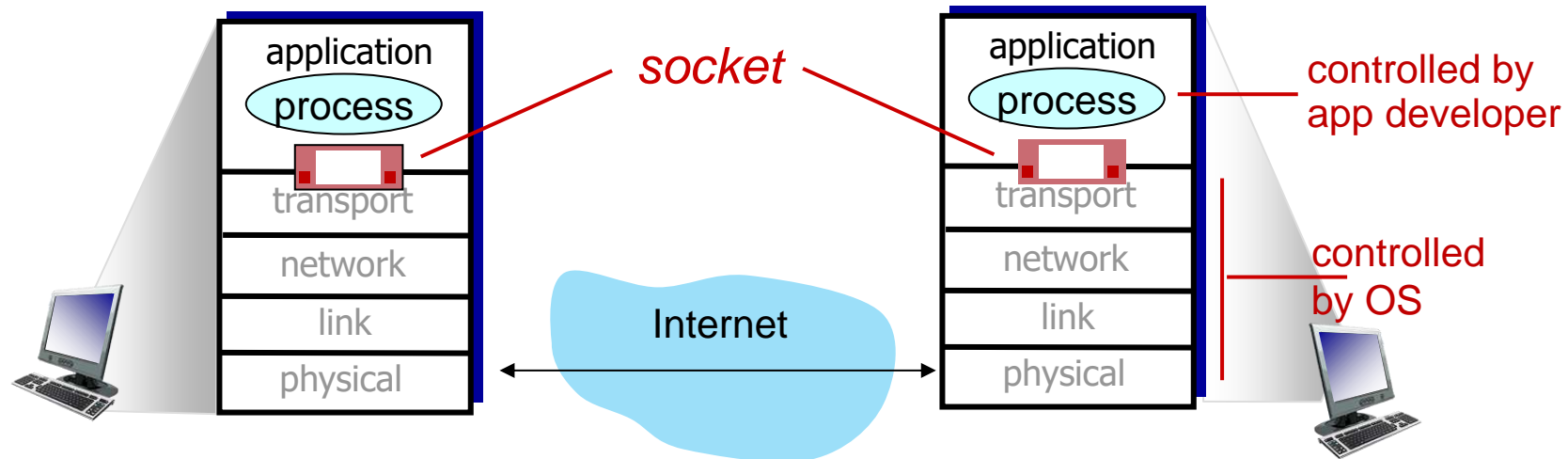
# Sockets

- Any message sent from one process to another must go through the underlying network
- process sends/receives messages to/from network interface is called **socket**
- Process is a house and a socket is its door.
  - One process sends a messages to another process using a message that passes thru the socket (door)
    - sending process shoves the message out its door (socket)
    - 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



# Sockets

- Socket is an interface between the application layer and the transport layer within a host
- Another name for it – **Application Programming Interface (API)**, between application and network
  - Developer would have control over application-layer side of the socket, but little control over the transport layer of the socket
    - Choosing the transport protocol
    - Some parameters, such as maximum buffer, maximum segment sizes



# 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:
  - Web server: HTTPS protocol, port 80
  - Mail server: SMTP, port 25
- to send HTTP message to gaia.cs.umass.edu web server:
  - **IP address:** 128.119.245.12
  - **port number:** 80
- more shortly...

# 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

## open protocols:

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

## proprietary protocols:

- e.g., Skype, Zoom

# What transport service does an app need?

## data reliability

- some apps (e.g., file transfer, web transactions) require 100% reliable data transfer, no packet loss (email)
- other apps (e.g., audio) can tolerate some loss – loss-tolerant applications

## 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” – bandwidth sensitive applications
- other apps (“elastic apps”) make use of whatever throughput they get (file transfer)

## security

- Encryption (between sending host and receiving host)
- Confidentiality
- End point authentication
- Data integrity

# Internet transport protocols services

- Type of services provided by the Internet
  - The internet (generally TCP/IP networks) makes two transport protocols available to applications:
    - TCP
    - UDP
  - As app developer, you create network application for the Internet, this becomes one of the earlier decisions to make
  - Both TCP and UDP offers a different set of services to the invoking applications

# Requirements of selected network applications

Application	Data Loss	Throughput	Time-Sensitive
File transfer/download	No loss	Elastic	No
E-mail	No loss	Elastic	No
Web documents	No loss	Elastic (few kbps)	No
Internet telephony/ Video conferencing	Loss-tolerant	Audio: few kbps—1 Mbps Video: 10 kbps—5 Mbps	Yes: 100s of msec
Streaming stored audio/video	Loss-tolerant	Same as above	Yes: few seconds
Interactive games	Loss-tolerant	Few kbps—10 kbps	Yes: 100s of msec
Smartphone messaging	No loss	Elastic	Yes and no



# Internet transport protocols services

## *TCP service:*

- *connection-oriented*: setup required between client and server processes; handshake process. Once application finishes sending messages, the connection ends.
- *reliable data transfer* 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 (no encryption).
  - **TLS** – Transport Layer Security, enhanced TCP. Provides encryption, data integrity, end-to-end authentication

# Internet transport protocols services

## *UDP service:*

- *Lightweight transport protocol, no handshake*
- *unreliable data transfer* between sending and receiving process
- *does not provide:* reliability, flow control, congestion control, timing, throughput guarantee, security, or connection setup.

# Internet applications, and transport protocols

Application	Application-Layer Protocol	Underlying Transport Protocol
Electronic mail	SMTP [RFC 5321]	TCP
Remote terminal access	Telnet [RFC 854]	TCP
Web	HTTP 1.1 [RFC 7230]	TCP
File transfer	FTP [RFC 959]	TCP
Streaming multimedia	HTTP (e.g., YouTube), DASH	TCP
Internet telephony	SIP [RFC 3261], RTP [RFC 3550], or proprietary (e.g., Skype)	UDP or TCP

# Securing TCP

## Vanilla TCP & UDP sockets:

- no encryption
- cleartext passwords sent into socket traverse Internet in cleartext (!)

## Transport Layer Security (TLS)

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

## TLS implemented in application layer

- apps use TLS libraries, that use TCP in turn
- cleartext sent into “socket” traverse Internet *encrypted*
- more: Chapter 8

# 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
- socket programming with UDP and TCP



# Application Layer Protocols

Application layer protocol defines how an applications' process, running on different end systems, pass messages to each other

- Types of messages exchanged, such as request messages and response messages
- Syntax of the various message types; fields in the message and how the fields are delineated
- Semantics of the fields
- Rules for determining when and how a process sends messages and responds to messages

Web application- layer protocol, HTTP, is available as an RFC; hence, if you are creating anew Web browser and follow the rules of HTTP RFC, the browser will retrieve Web pages from any Web Server.

- Some are proprietary and are not available in public domain (Skype)

# Application Layer Protocols

Network Applications vs Application-Layer Protocol:

- Application-layer protocol is one piece of a network application
- HTTP defines the format and sequence of messages exchanged between browser and Web server; hence it is one piece of Web application

# Web and HTTP

*First, 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, Java applet, 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

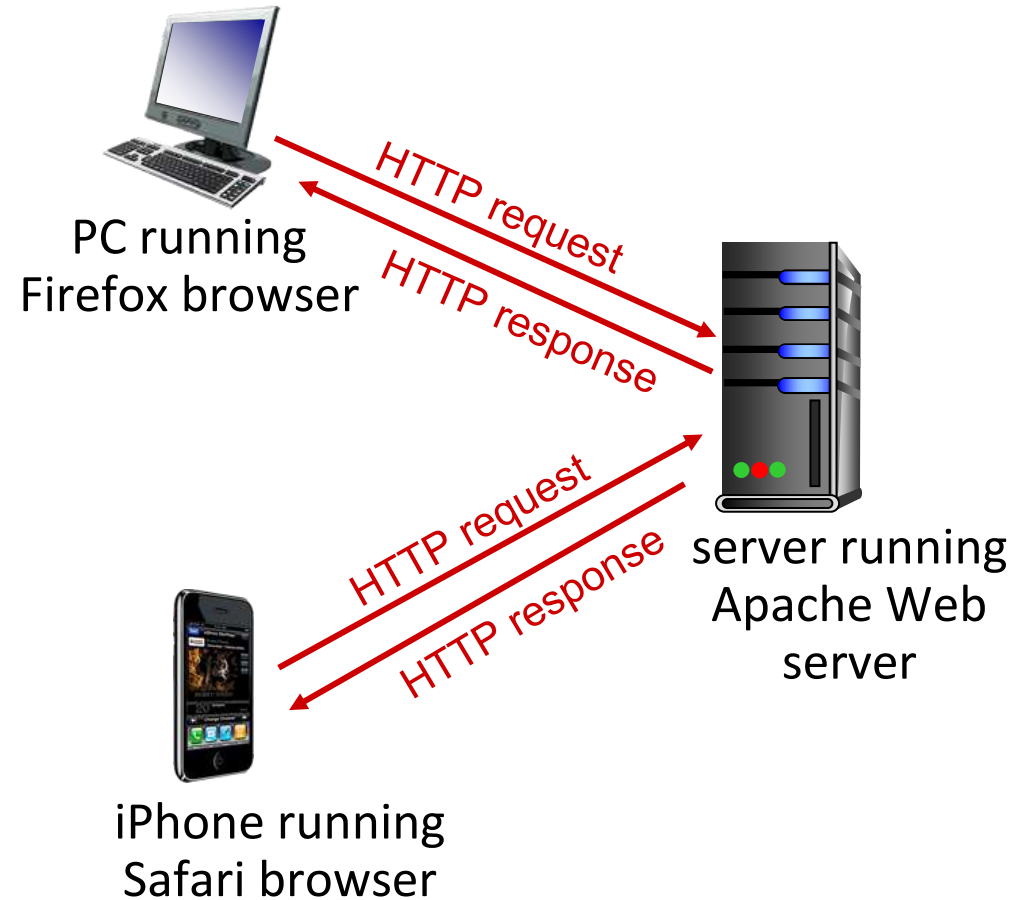
path name



# 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

# 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 to a server
- multiple objects can be sent over *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`

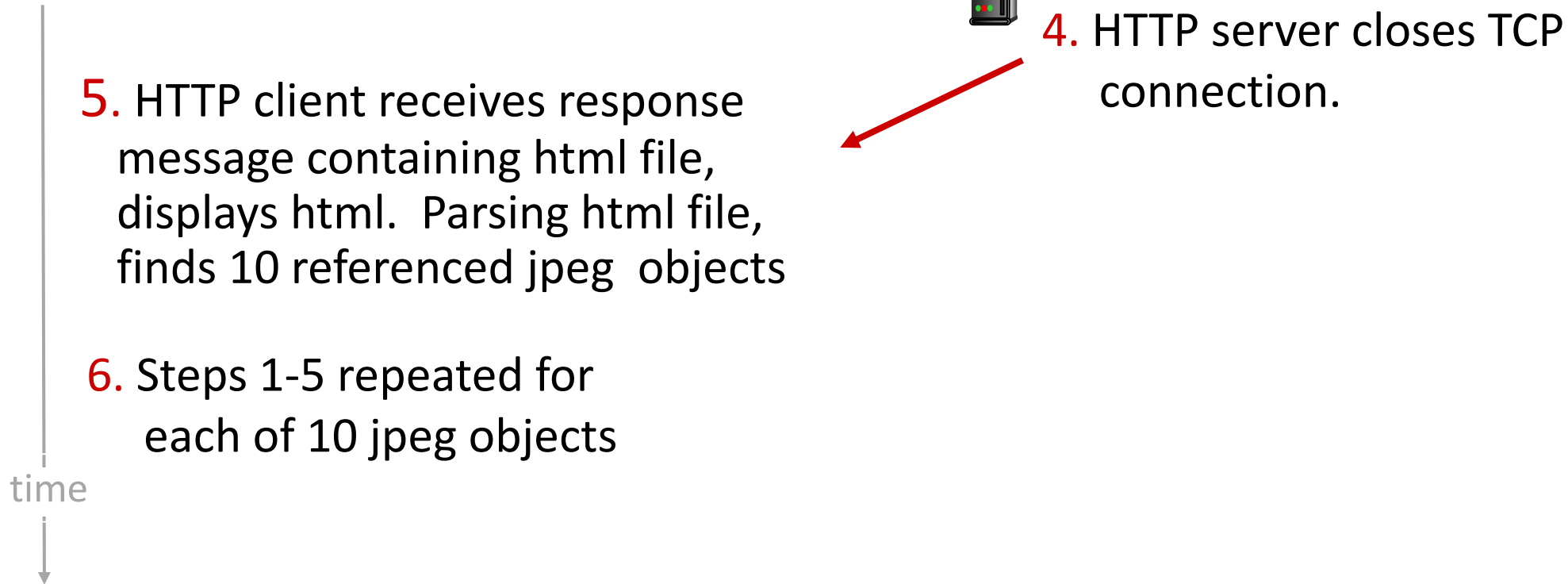
**3.** HTTP server receives request message, forms *response message* containing requested object, and sends message into its socket

time



# Non-persistent HTTP: example (cont.)

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

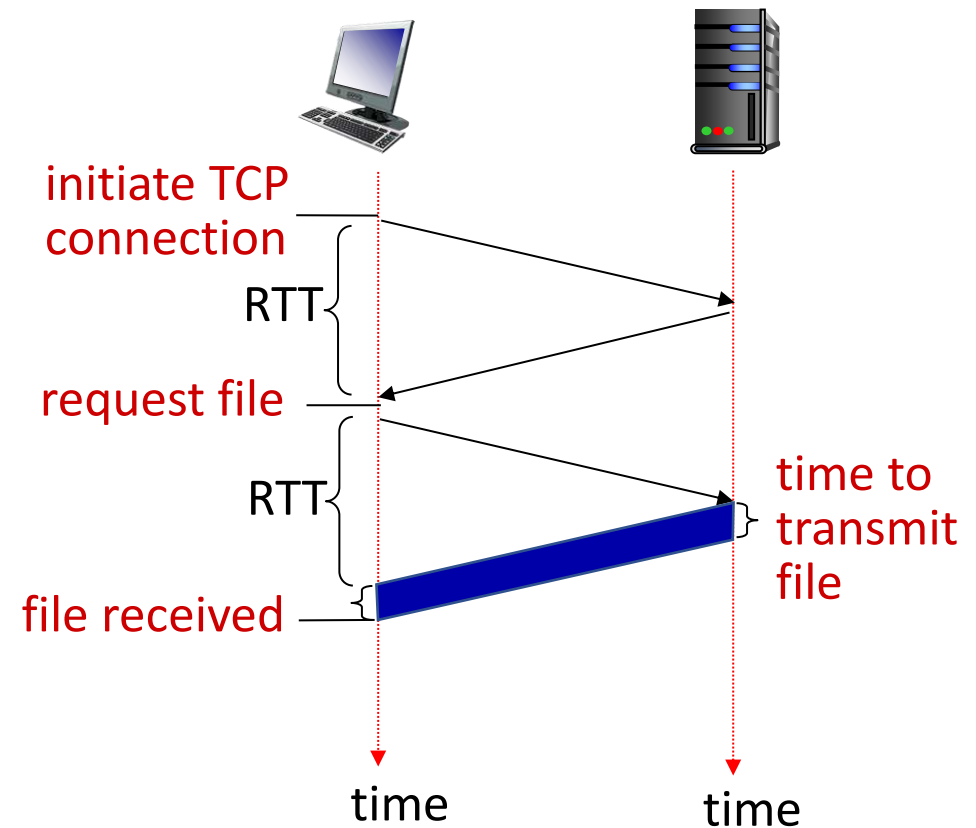


# Non-persistent HTTP: response time

**RTT (round trip time):** 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



*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 multiple parallel TCP connections to fetch referenced objects in parallel

## *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 (cutting response time in half)

# HTTP request message

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

request line (GET, POST,  
HEAD commands) →

carriage return character  
line-feed character

header  
lines

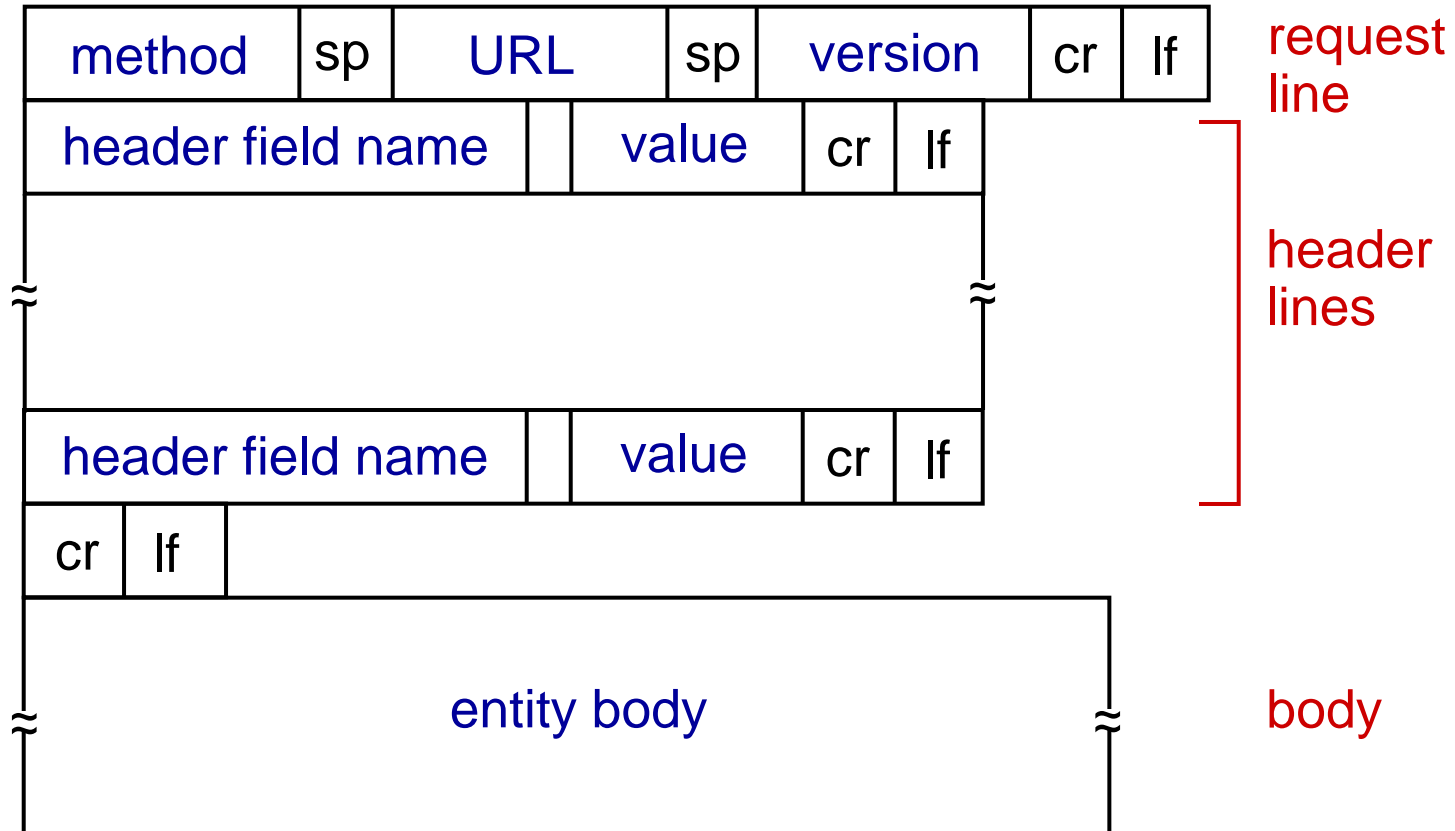
```
GET /index.html HTTP/1.1\r\n
Host: www-net.cs.umass.edu\r\n
User-Agent: Mozilla/5.0 (Macintosh; Intel Mac OS X
10.15; rv:80.0) Gecko/20100101 Firefox/80.0 \r\n
Accept: text/html,application/xhtml+xml\r\n
Accept-Language: en-us,en;q=0.5\r\n
Accept-Encoding: gzip,deflate\r\n
Connection: keep-alive\r\n
\r\n
```

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

\* Check out the online interactive exercises for more  
examples: [http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose\\_ross/interactive/](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

status line (protocol status code status phrase) → HTTP/1.1 200 OK

header lines {  
Connection: close  
Date: Tue, 18 Aug 2015 15:44:04 GMT  
Server: Apache/2.2.3 (CentOS)  
Last-Modified: Tue, 18 Aug 2015 15:11:03 GMT  
Content-Length: 6821  
Content-Type: text/html

Entity body(requested object itself) [ (data data data data data ...)

# 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

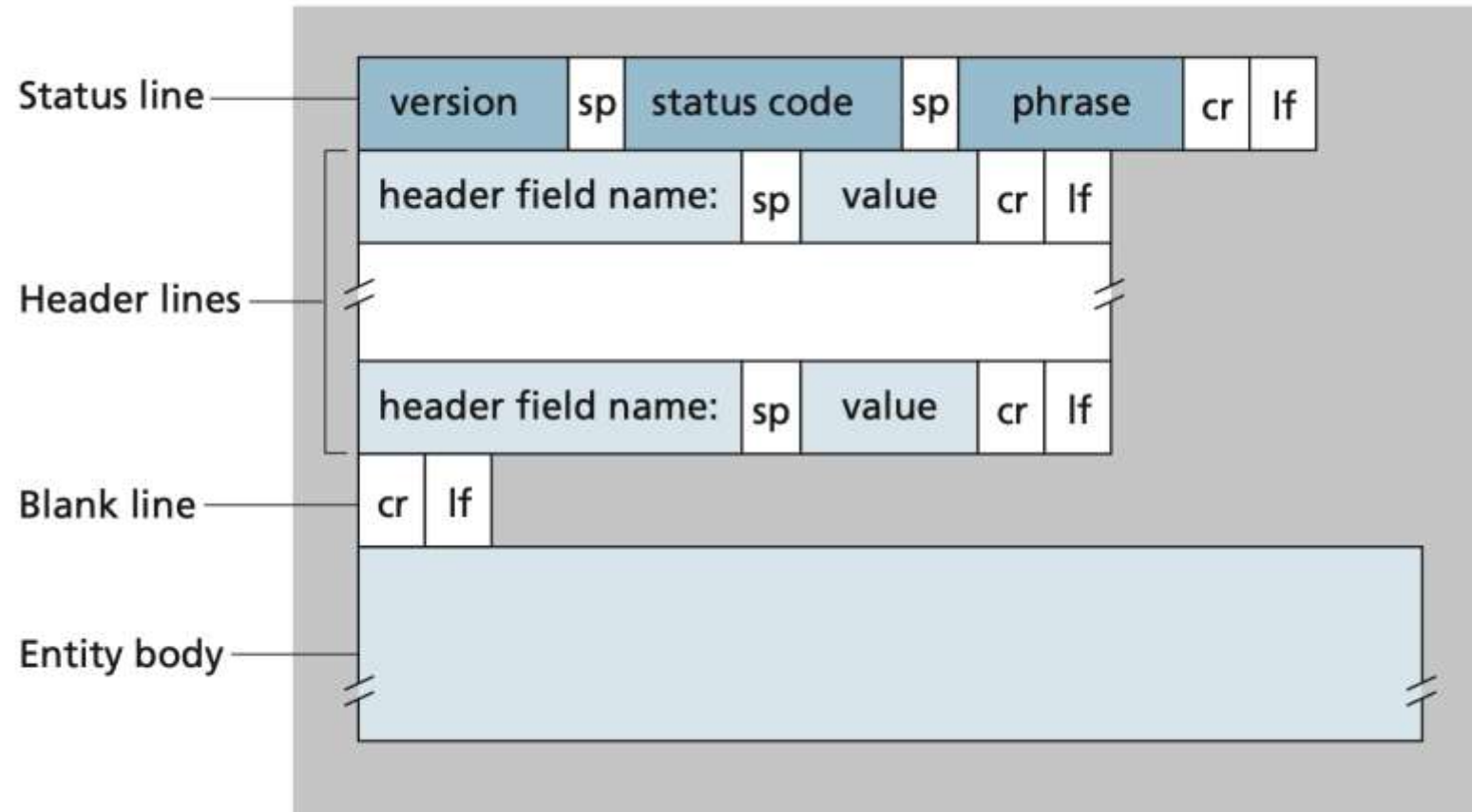
- request msg not understood by server

## 404 Not Found

- requested document not found on this server

## 505 HTTP Version Not Supported

# HTTP response message: general format



# Trying out HTTP (client side) for yourself

## 1. netcat to your favorite Web server:

```
% nc -c -v 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!

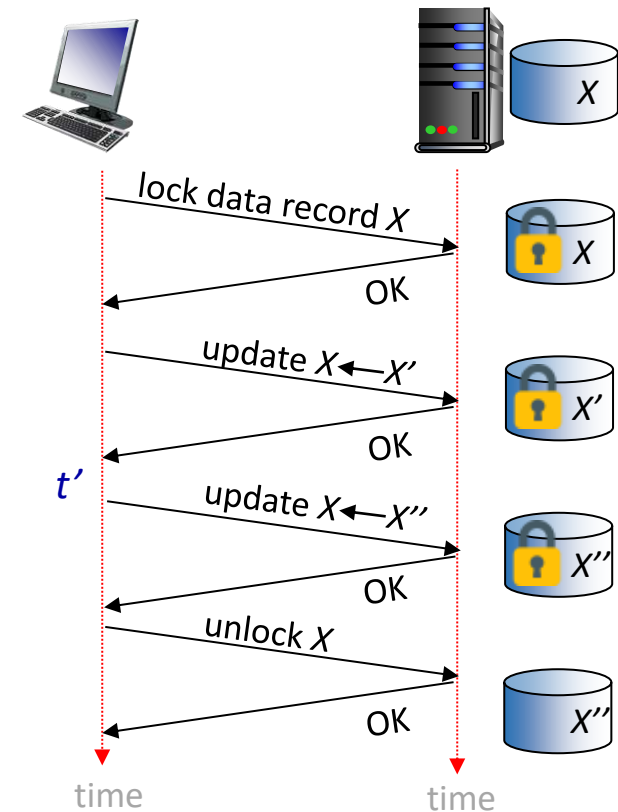
(or use Wireshark to look at captured HTTP request/response)

# 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

a *stateful protocol*: client makes two changes to X, or none at all



# Maintaining user/server state: cookies

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

## *four components:*

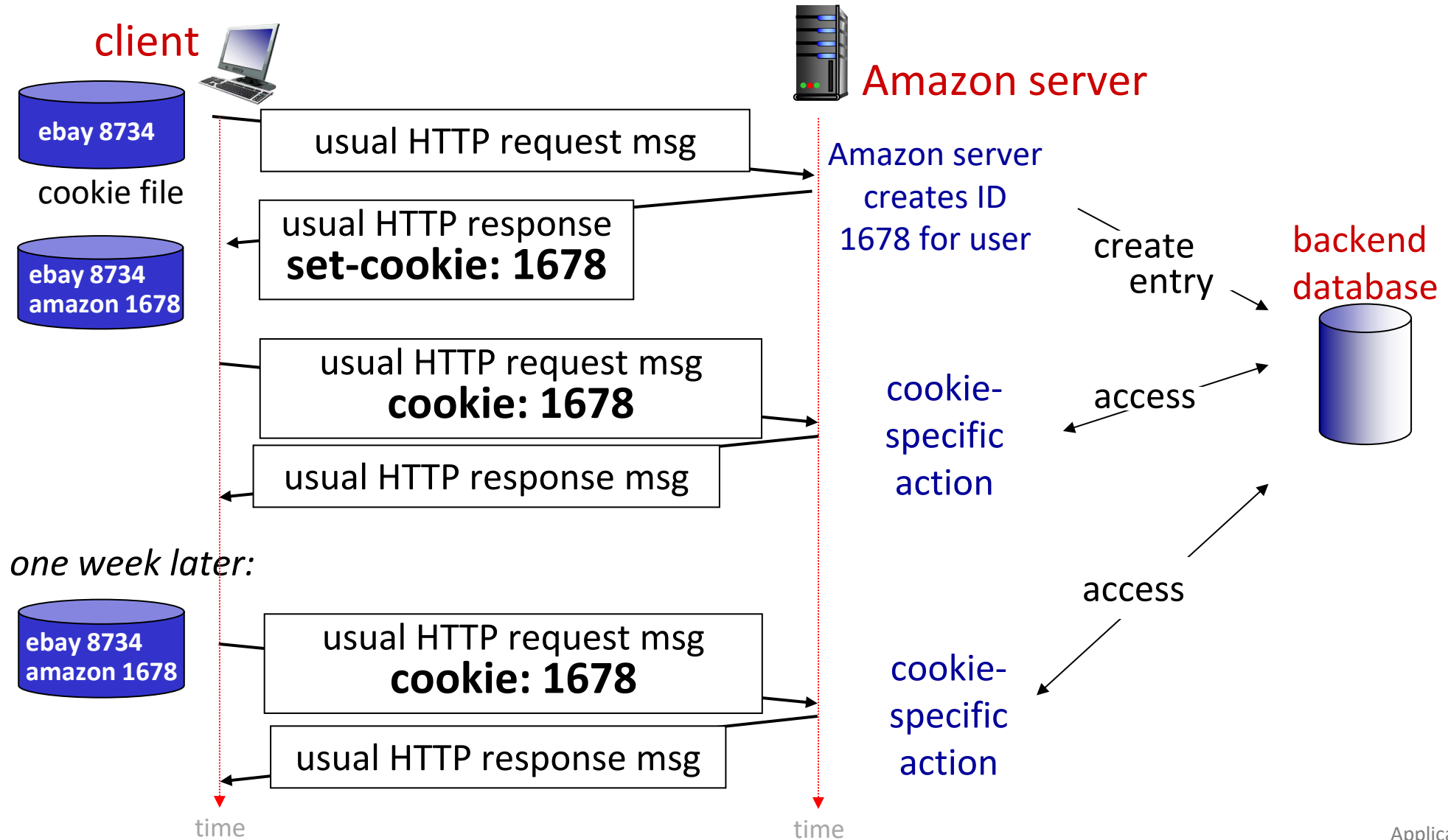
- 1) cookie header line of HTTP *response* message
- 2) cookie header line in next HTTP *request* message
- 3) cookie file kept on user's host, managed by user's browser
- 4) back-end database at Web site

## 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 (on top of stateless HTTP)

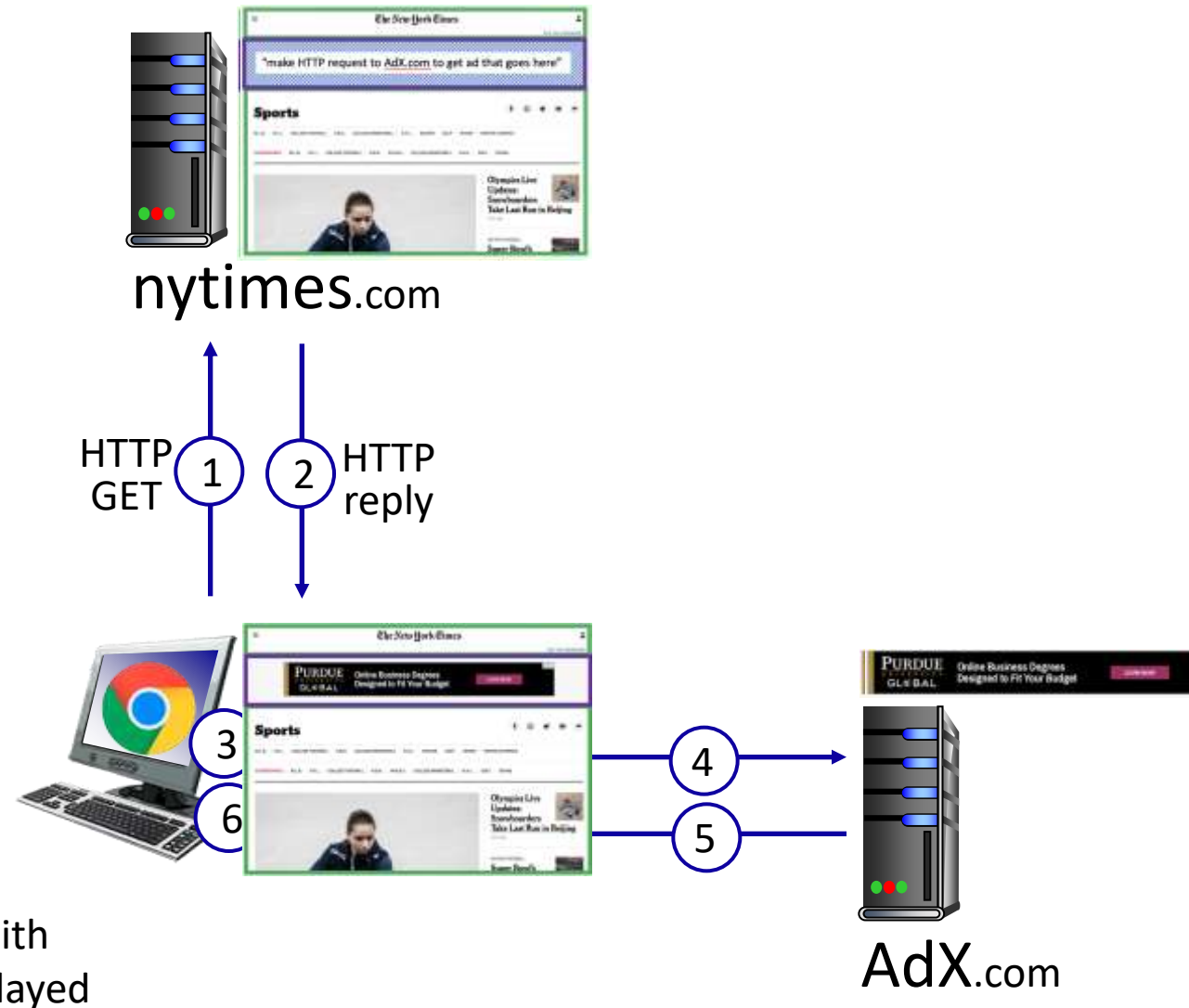
## *Challenge: How to keep state?*

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

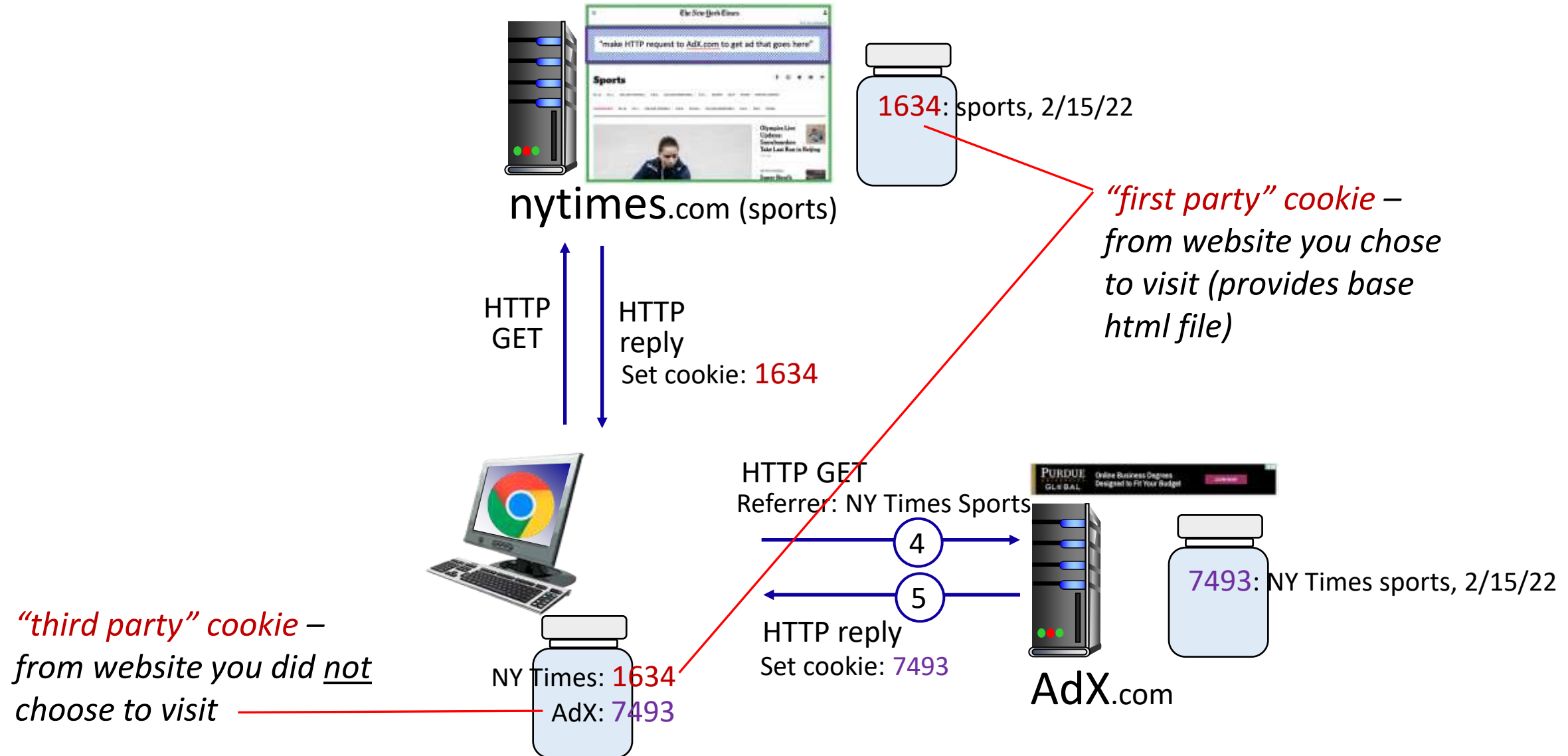
- aside
- cookies and privacy:*
- cookies permit sites to *learn* a lot about you on their site.
  - third party persistent cookies (tracking cookies) allow common identity (cookie value) to be tracked across multiple web sites

# Example: displaying a NY Times web page

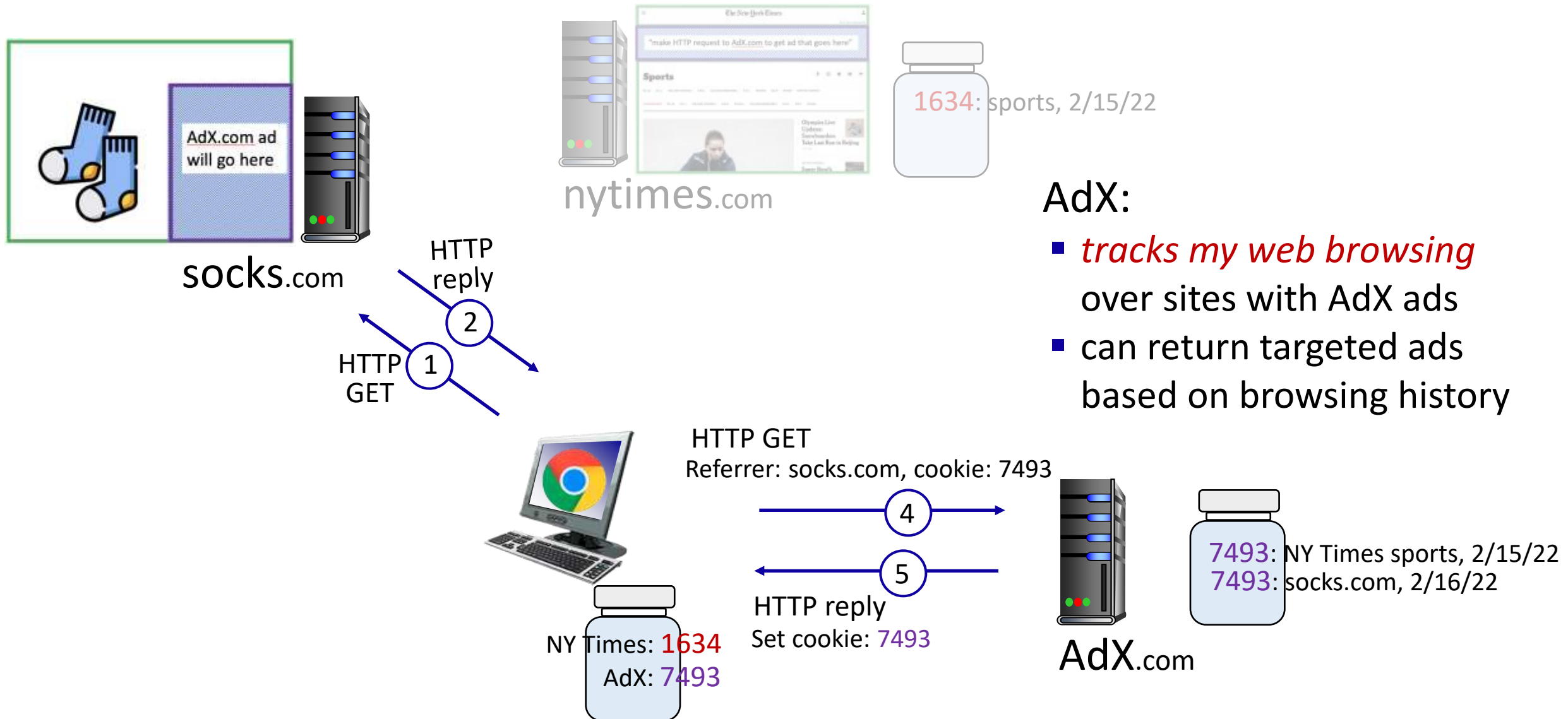
- 1 GET base html file
- 2 from nytimes.com
- 4 fetch ad from
- 5 AdX.com
- 7 display composed page



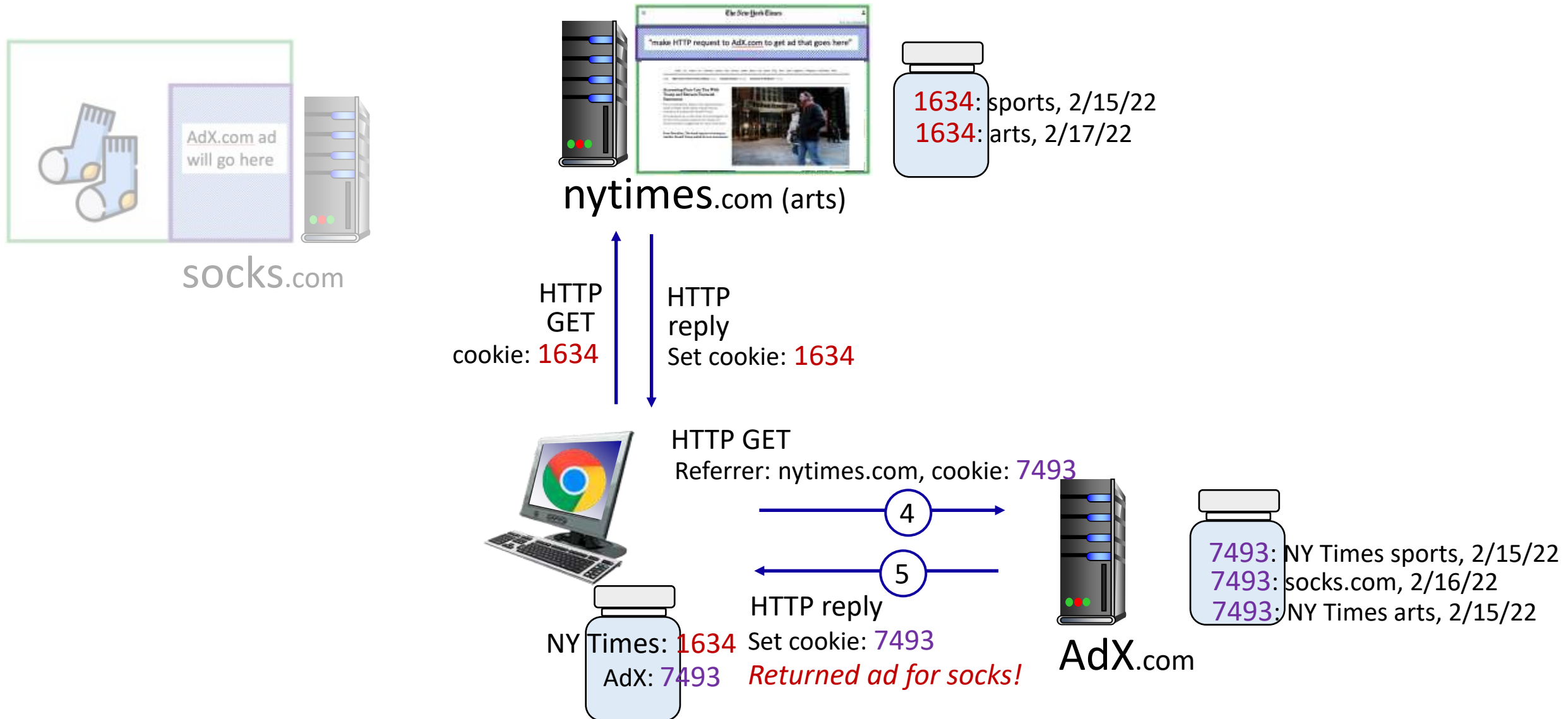
# Cookies: tracking a user's browsing behavior



# Cookies: tracking a user's browsing behavior



# Cookies: tracking a user's browsing behavior (one day later)



# Cookies: tracking a user's browsing behavior

Cookies can be used to:

- track user behavior on a given website (**first party cookies**)
- track user behavior across multiple websites (**third party cookies**) without user ever choosing to visit tracker site (!)
- tracking may be *invisible* to user:
  - rather than displayed ad triggering HTTP GET to tracker, could be an invisible link

third party tracking via cookies:

- disabled by default in Firefox, Safari browsers
- to be disabled in Chrome browser in 2023

# GDPR (EU General Data Protection Regulation) and cookies

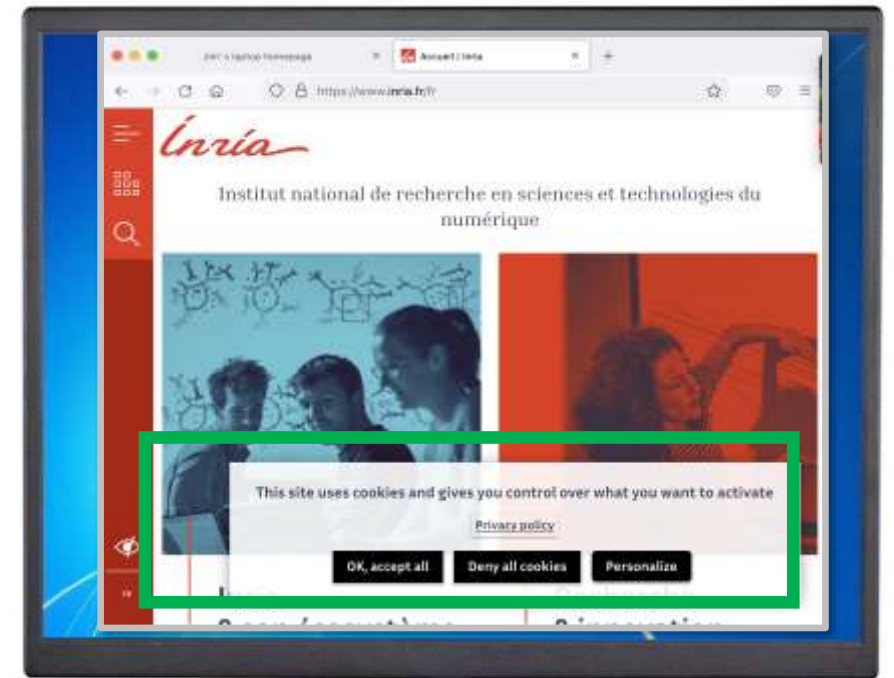
“Natural persons may be associated with online identifiers [...] such as internet protocol addresses, cookie identifiers or other identifiers [...].

This may leave traces which, in particular when combined with unique identifiers and other information received by the servers, may be used to create profiles of the natural persons and identify them.”

GDPR, recital 30 (May 2018)



when cookies can identify an individual, cookies are considered personal data, subject to GDPR personal data regulations



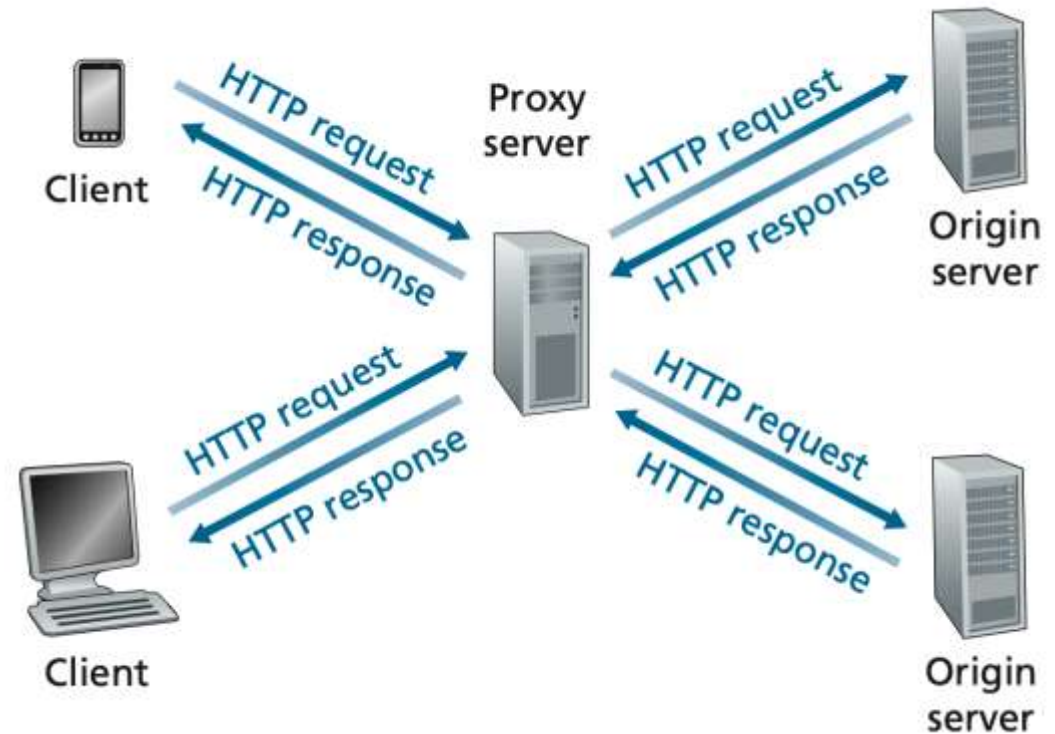
*User has explicit control over whether or not cookies are allowed*



# Web caches (Proxy Server)

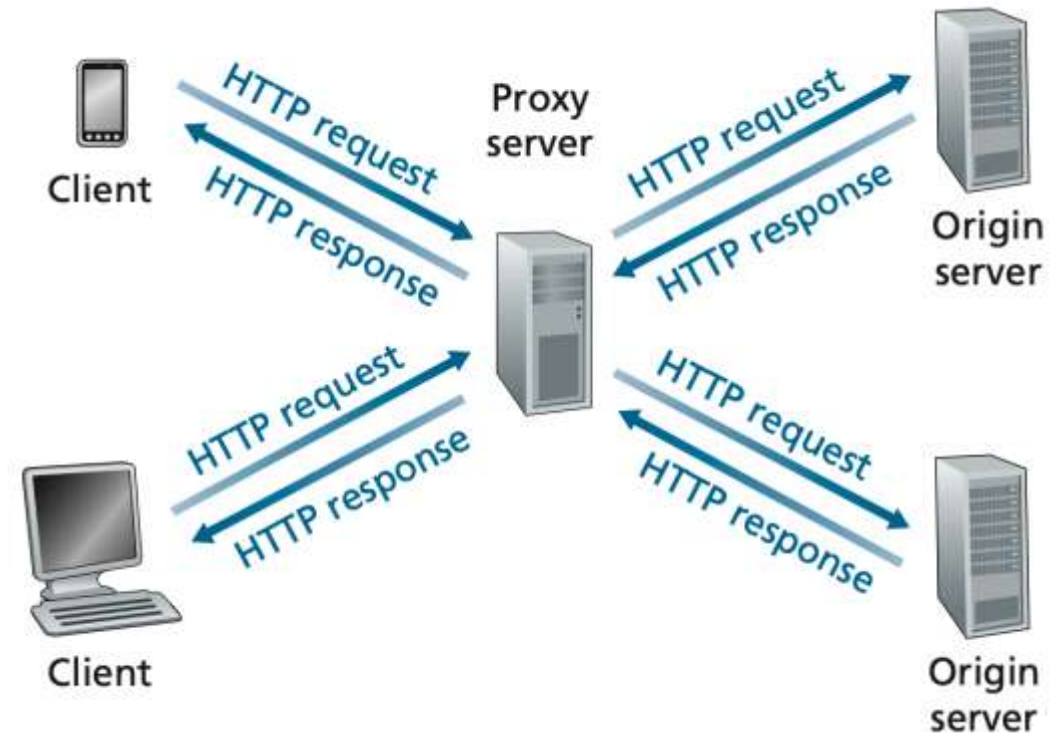
*Goal:* satisfy client requests without involving origin

- user configures browser to point to a (local) *Web cache*
- browser sends all HTTP requests to cache (proxy server)



# Web caches (Proxy Server)

1. The browser establishes a TCP connection to the Web cache and sends an HTTP request for the object to the Web cache.
2. The Web cache checks to see if it has a copy of the object stored locally. If it does, the Web cache returns the object within an HTTP response message to the client browser.
3. If the Web cache does not have the object, the Web cache opens a TCP connection to the origin server, that is, to `www.someschool.edu`. The Web cache then sends an HTTP request for the object into the cache-to-server TCP connection. After receiving this request, the origin server sends the object within an HTTP response to the Web cache.
4. When the Web cache receives the object, it stores a copy in its local storage and sends a copy, within an HTTP response message, to the client browser (over the existing TCP connection between the client browser and the Web cache).



# Web caches (aka proxy servers)

- Web cache acts as both client and server
  - server for original requesting client
  - client to origin server
- server tells cache about object's allowable caching in response header:

```
Cache-Control: max-age=<seconds>
```

```
Cache-Control: no-cache
```

## *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

# Caching example

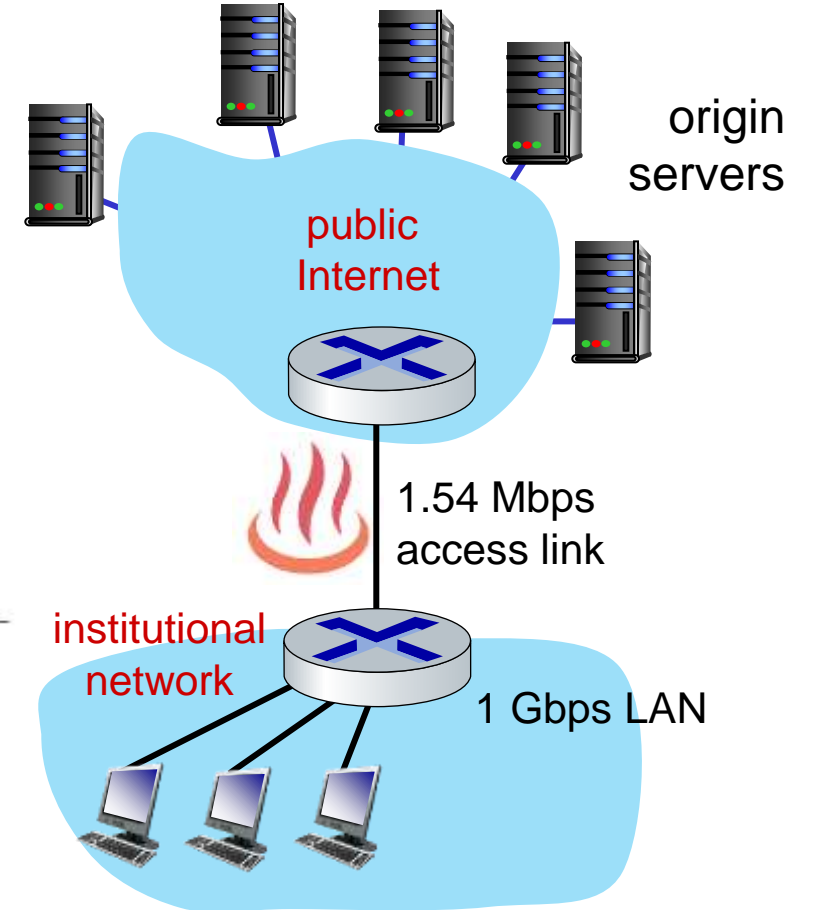
## Scenario:

- 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
  - avg data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps

## Performance:

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

problem: large  
queueing delays  
at high utilization!



# Option 1: buy a faster access link

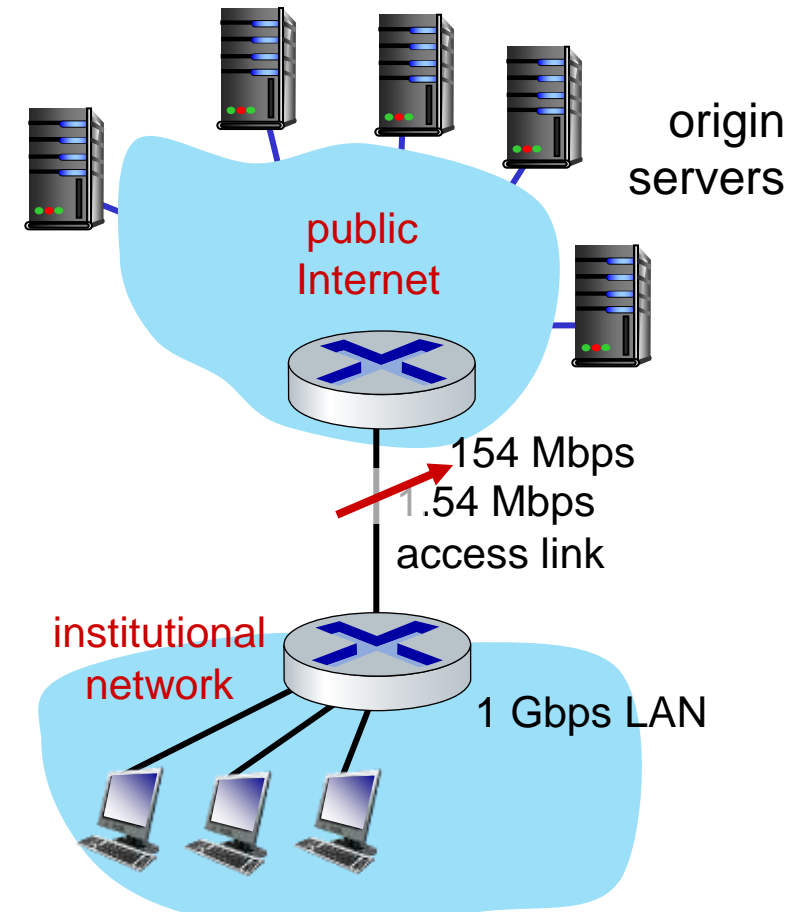
## Scenario:

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

## Performance:

- access link utilization = ~~.97~~ .0097
- LAN utilization: .0015
- end-end delay = Internet delay +  
access link delay + LAN delay  
= 2 sec + ~~minutes~~ + usecs

Cost: faster access link (expensive!) → msecs



# Option 2: install a web cache

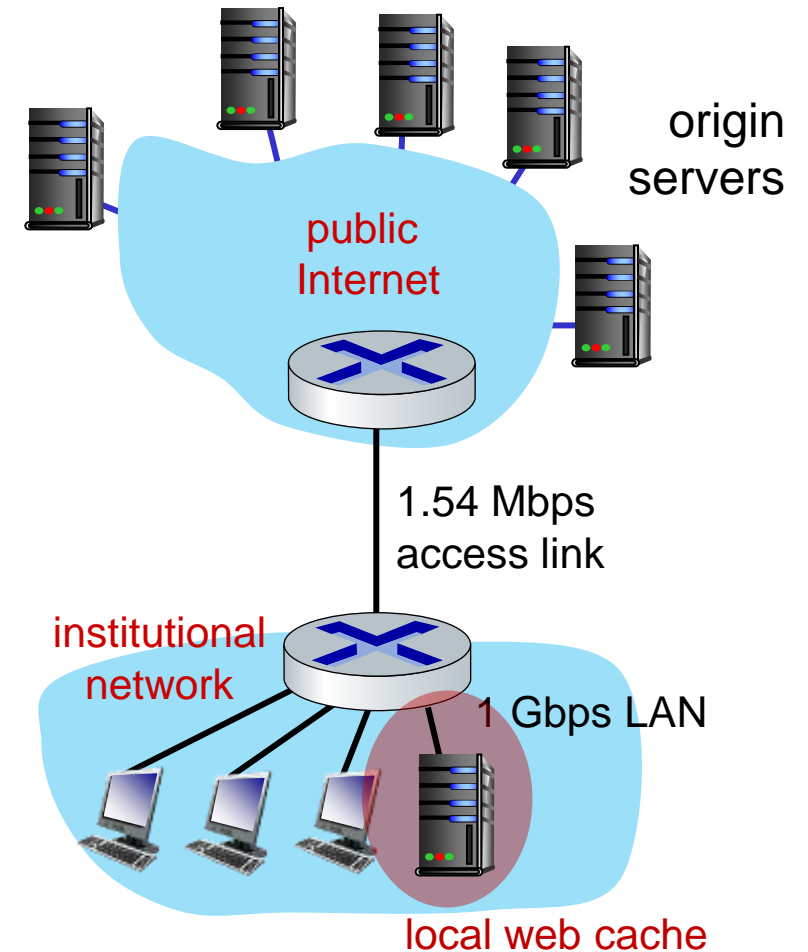
## *Scenario:*

- 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
  - avg data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps

*Cost:* web cache (cheap!)

## *Performance:*

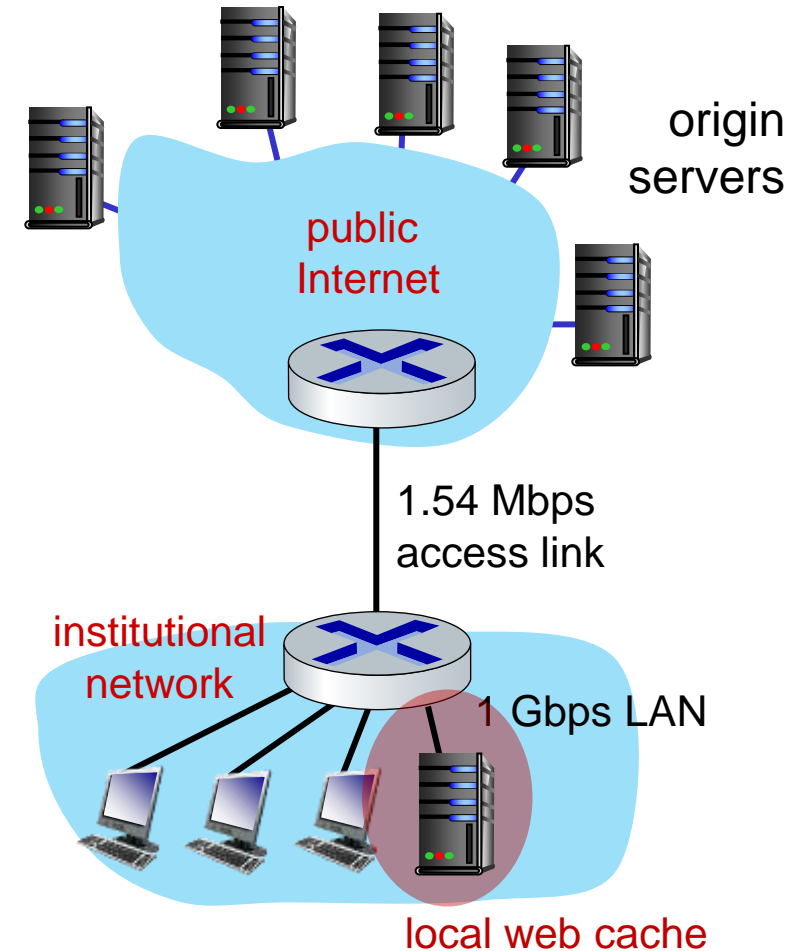
- LAN utilization: .?
  - access link utilization = ?
  - average end-end delay = ?
- How to compute link utilization, delay?*



# Calculating access link utilization, end-end delay with cache:

suppose cache hit rate is 0.4:

- 40% requests served by cache, with low (msec) delay
- 60% requests satisfied at origin
  - rate to browsers over access link  
 $= 0.6 * 1.50 \text{ Mbps} = .9 \text{ Mbps}$
  - access link utilization  $= 0.9 / 1.54 = .58$  means low (msec) queueing delay at access link
- average end-end delay:  
 $= 0.6 * (\text{delay from origin servers})$   
 $+ 0.4 * (\text{delay when satisfied at cache})$   
 $= 0.6 (2.01) + 0.4 (\sim \text{msecs}) = \sim 1.2 \text{ secs}$



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

# Browser caching: Conditional GET and f-Modified-Since

- Cache Problem: Objects fetched by cache might be out of date
- HTTP has a mechanism that allows a cache to verify that its objects are up to date, **Conditional Get**
- Conditional Get conditions:
  - 1) The request message uses **GET** method
  - 2) The request message includes **IF-Modified-Since** header line

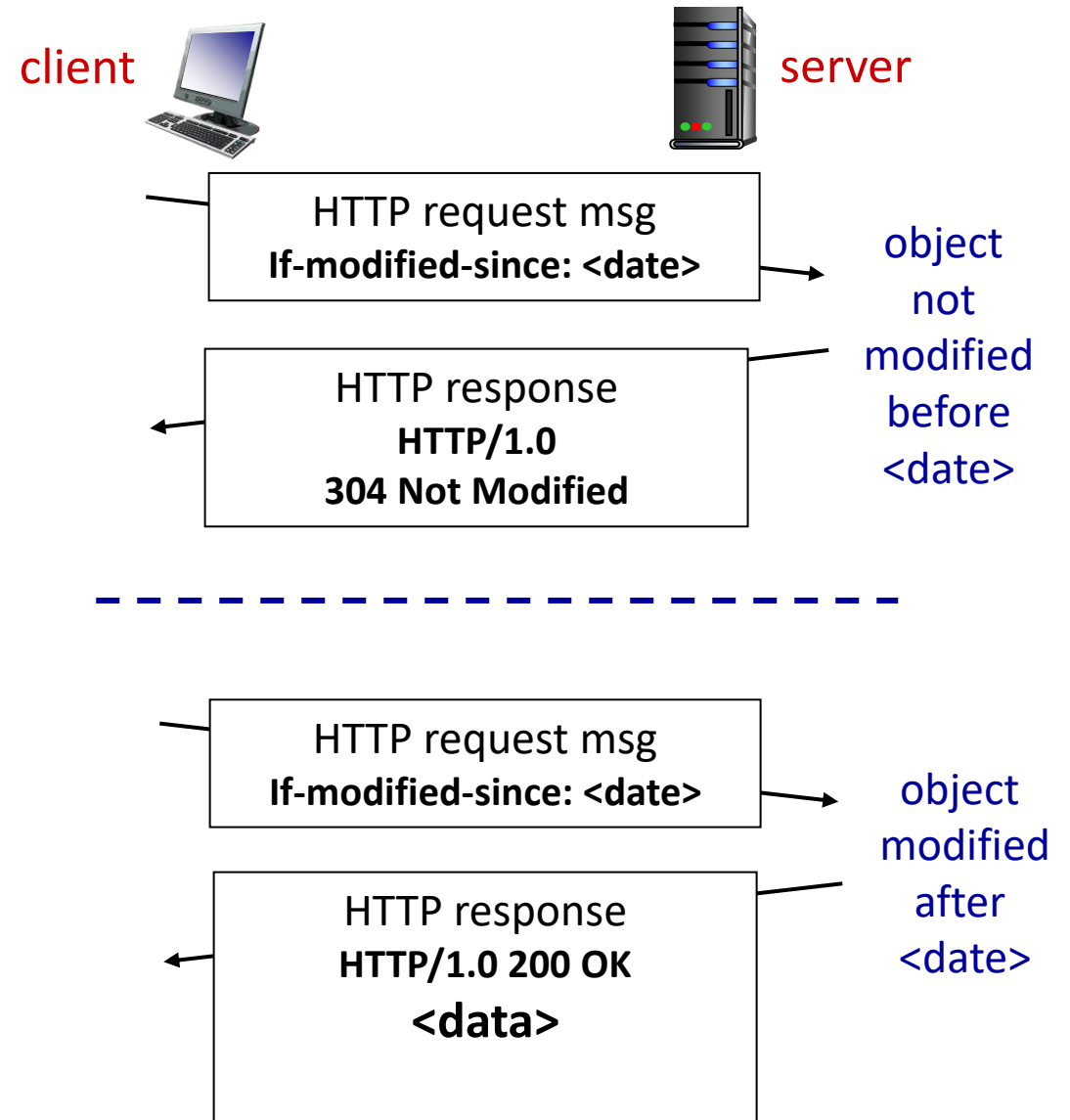
If “**If Modified Since**” header line is exactly equal to the value of the **Last-modified** header line  
→ **Conditional Get** will tell the server to send an object only if it was not modified, otherwise, fetch a new object and store it on Cache and return to the client



# Browser caching: Conditional GET

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

- no object transmission delay (or use of network resources)
- **client:** specify date of browser-cached copy in HTTP request  
**If-modified-since: <date>**
- **server:** response contains no object if browser-cached copy is up-to-date:  
**HTTP/1.0 304 Not Modified**



# HTTP/2

*Key goal:* decreased delay in multi-object HTTP requests

HTTP1.1: introduced multiple, pipelined GETs over single TCP connection

- server responds *in-order* (FCFS: first-come-first-served scheduling) to GET requests
- Problem with FCFS: small object may have to wait for transmission (**head-of-line (HOL) blocking**) behind large object(s)
  - Small object is stuck behind large video file
  - Solution: multiple TCP connections. **Up to 6 parallel TCP connections to circumvent HOL blocking**
- loss recovery (retransmitting lost TCP segments) stalls object transmission

# HTTP/2

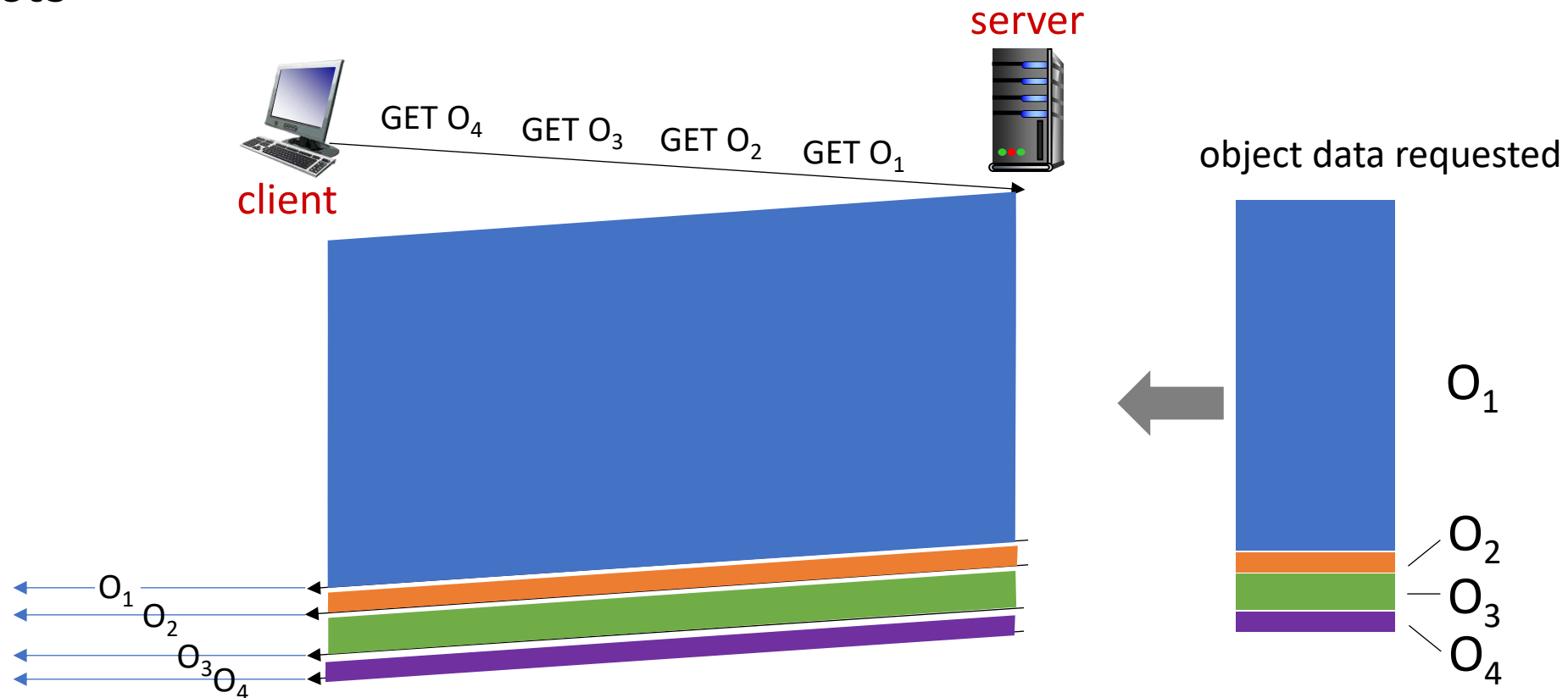
*Key goal:* decreased delay in multi-object HTTP requests

HTTP/2: [RFC 7540, 2015] increased flexibility at *server* in sending objects to client:

- HTTP/2 goal is to get rid of (or reduce) the number of parallel TCP connections for transporting a single Web page.
- Reduction in sockets that need to be open and maintained on the servers
- Congestion control to operate as intended over the bottlenecks
- **Framing:** divide objects into small frames, schedule frames to mitigate HOL blocking by **Inter-leaving them**
- transmission order of requested objects based on client-specified object priority (not necessarily FCFS)
- The ability to break down an HTTP message into independent frames, inter-leave them, and then reassemble them on the other end is the single most important enhancement of HTTP/2

# HTTP/2: mitigating HOL blocking

HTTP 1.1: client requests 1 large object (e.g., video file) and 3 smaller objects

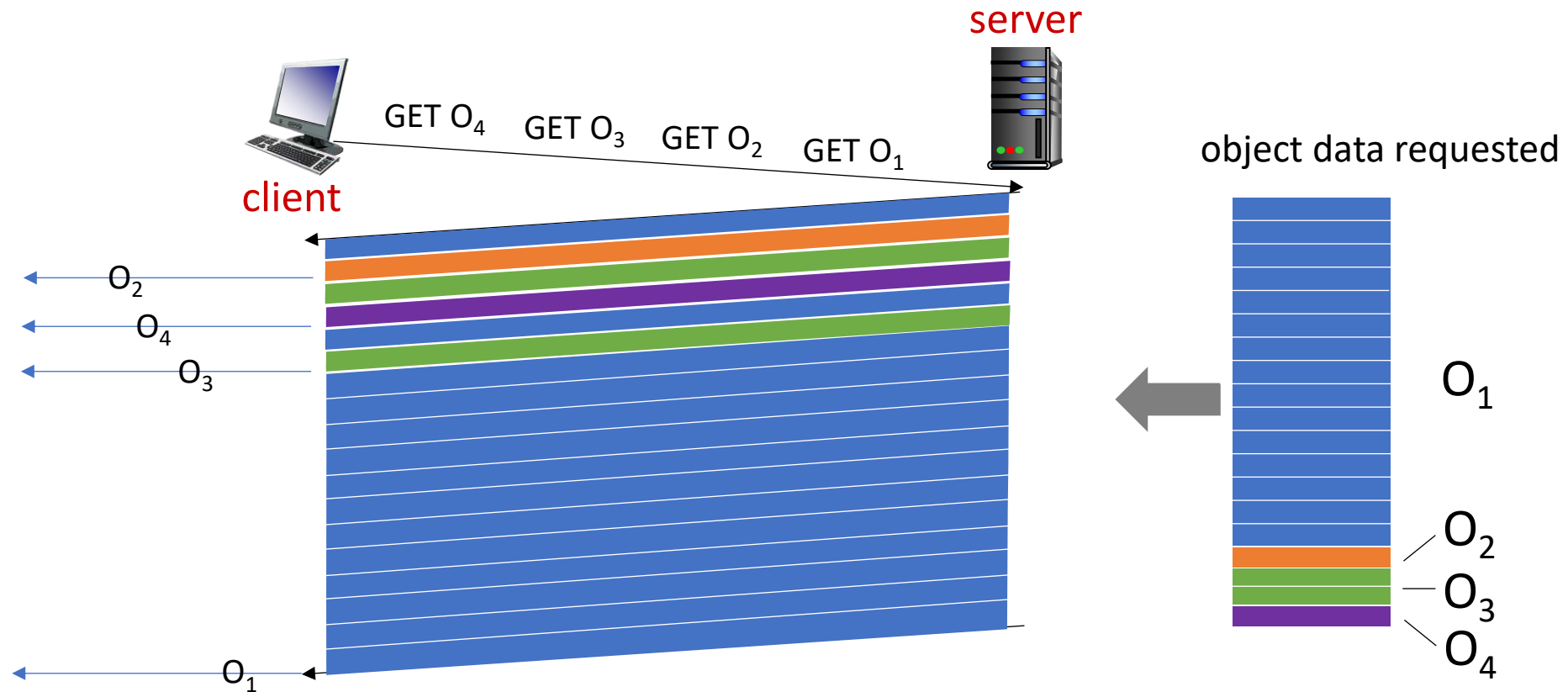


*objects delivered in order requested:  $O_2$ ,  $O_3$ ,  $O_4$  wait behind  $O_1$*

# HTTP/2: mitigating HOL blocking

HTTP/2: objects divided into frames, frame transmission interleaved.

Framing is done by the framing sub-layer of HTTP/2 protocol.



*O<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, O<sub>4</sub> delivered quickly, O<sub>1</sub> slightly delayed*

# HTTP/2 to HTTP/3

HTTP/2 over single TCP connection means:

- recovery from packet loss still stalls all object transmissions
  - as in HTTP 1.1, browsers have incentive to open multiple parallel TCP connections to reduce stalling, increase overall throughput
- no security over vanilla TCP connection
- **HTTP/3**: adds security, per object error- and congestion-control (more pipelining) over UDP
  - more on HTTP/3 in transport layer

# 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
- socket programming with UDP and TCP



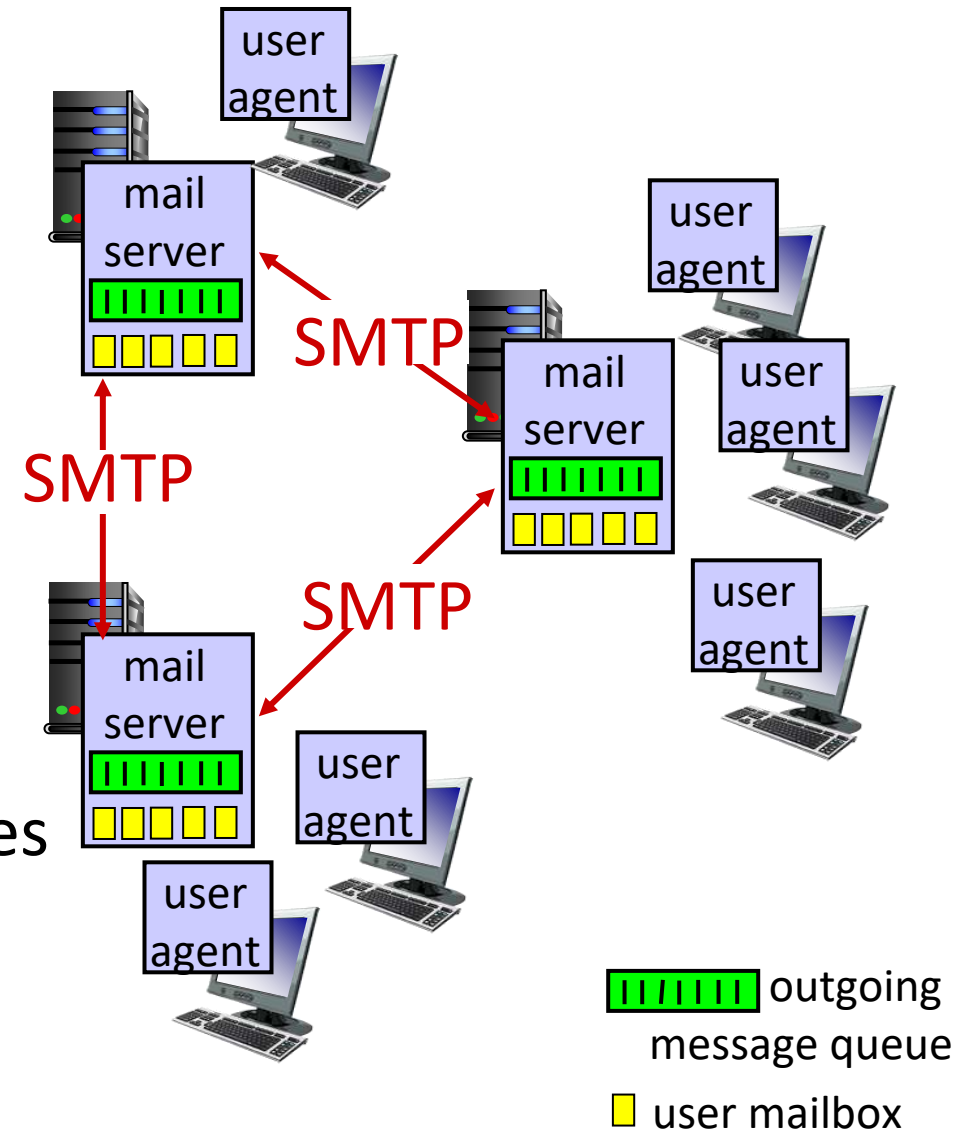
# E-mail

## Three major components:

- user agents (end clients)
- 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





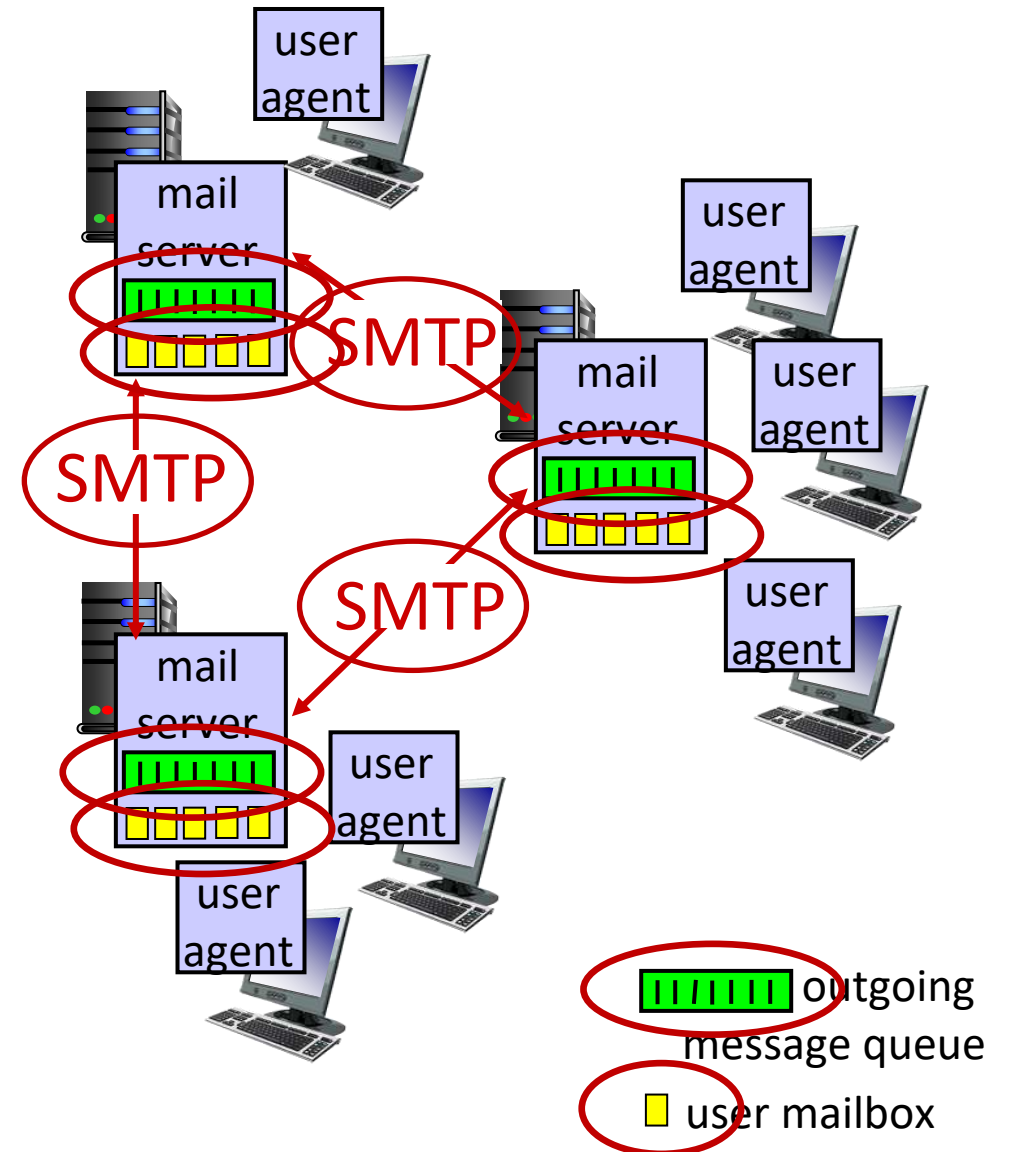
# E-mail: mail servers

## mail servers:

- *mailbox* contains incoming messages for user
- *message queue* of outgoing (to be sent) mail messages

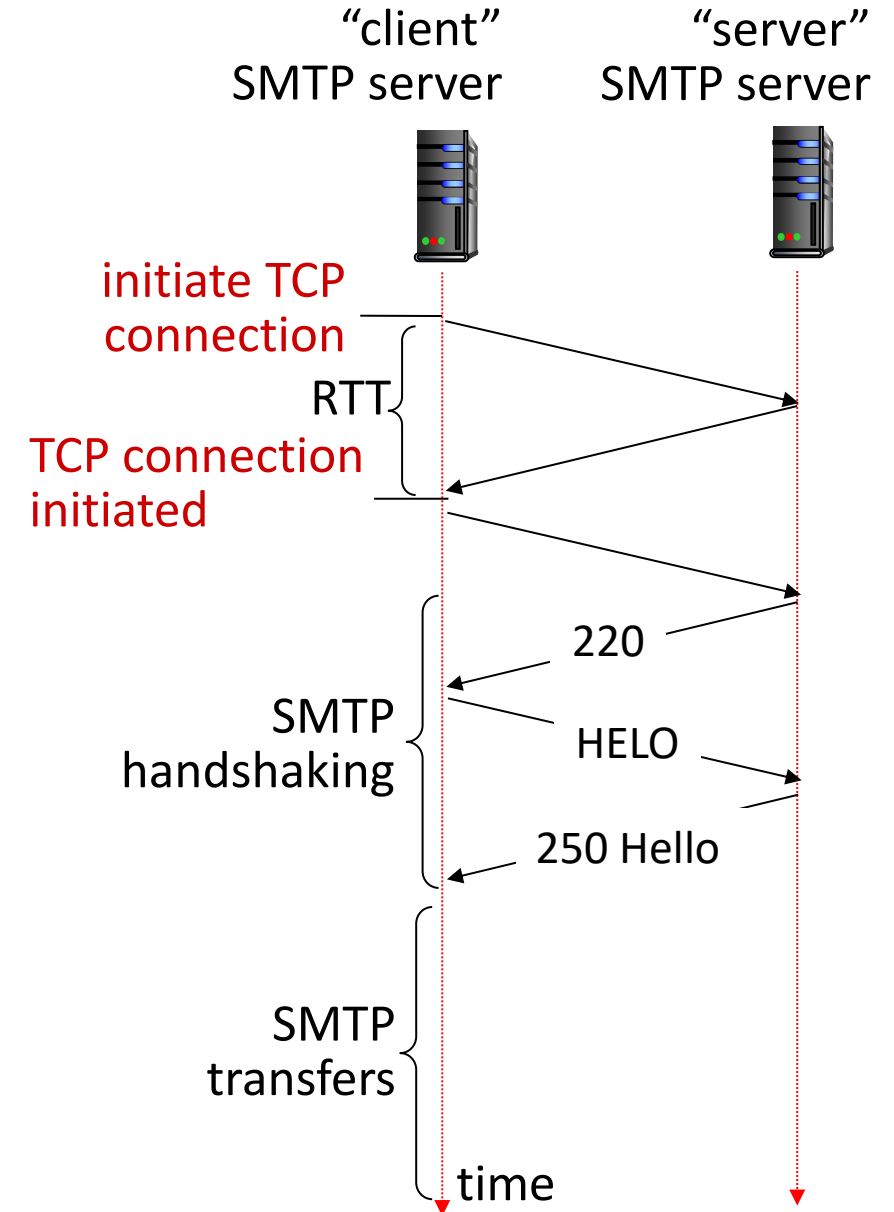
**SMTP protocol** between mail servers to send email messages

- **client**: sending mail server
- **“server”**: receiving mail server



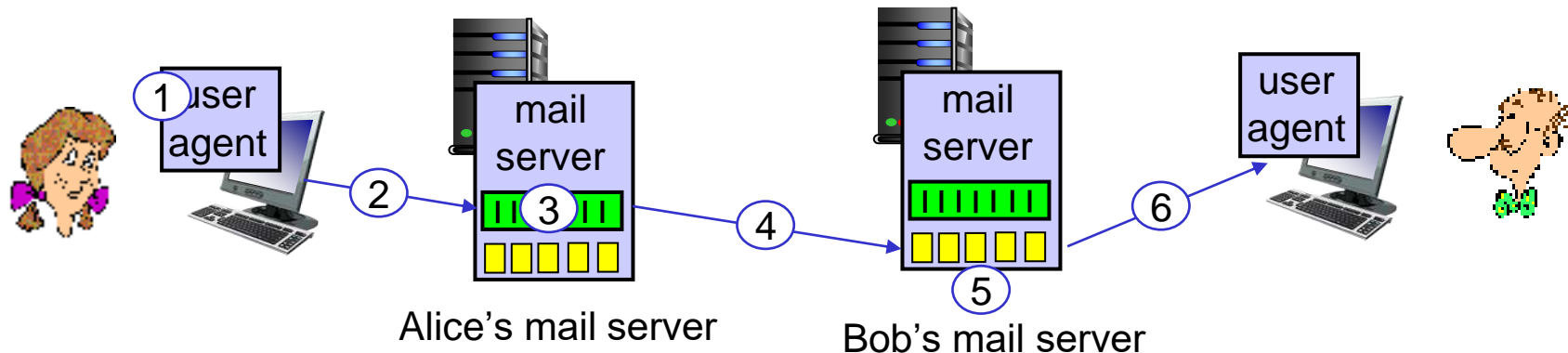
# SMTP RFC (5321)

- uses TCP to reliably transfer email message from client (mail server initiating connection) to server, port 25
  - direct transfer: sending server (acting like client) to receiving server
- three phases of transfer
  - SMTP handshaking (greeting)
  - SMTP transfer of messages
  - SMTP closure
- command/response interaction (like HTTP)
  - **commands**: ASCII text
  - **response**: status code and phrase



# Scenario: Alice sends e-mail to Bob

- 1) Alice composes e-mail message  
“to” [bob@some school.edu](mailto:bob@some school.edu) UA
- 2) Alice sends message to her mail server using SMTP using UA; message placed in message queue
- 3) client side of SMTP at mail server 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

# SMTP: observations

## *comparison with HTTP:*

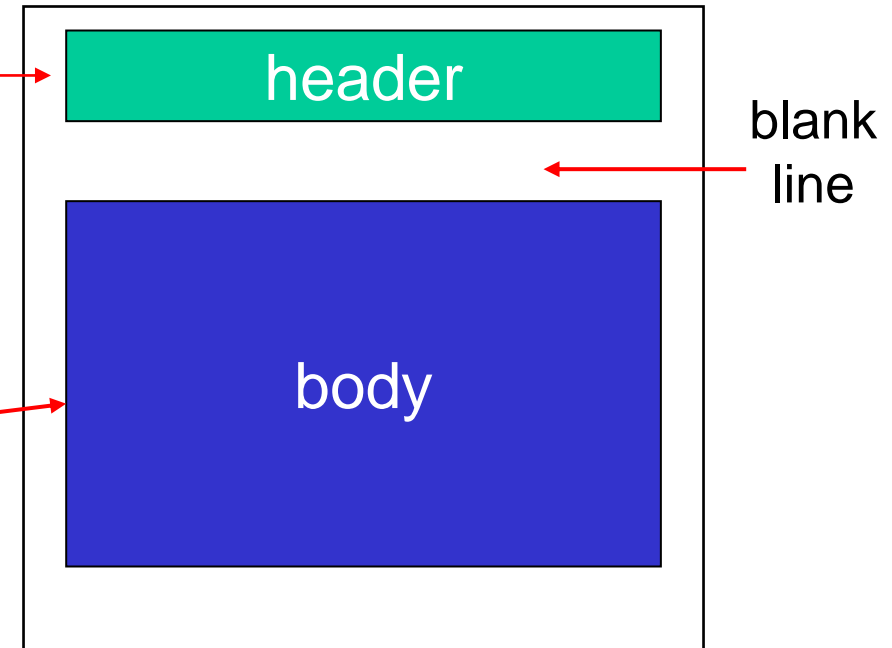
- HTTP: client pull
  - SMTP: client push
  - both have ASCII command/response interaction, status codes
  - HTTP: each object encapsulated in its own response message
  - SMTP: multiple objects sent in multipart message
- SMTP uses persistent connections
  - SMTP requires message (header & body) to be in 7-bit ASCII
  - SMTP server uses CRLF.CRLF to determine end of message

# Mail message format

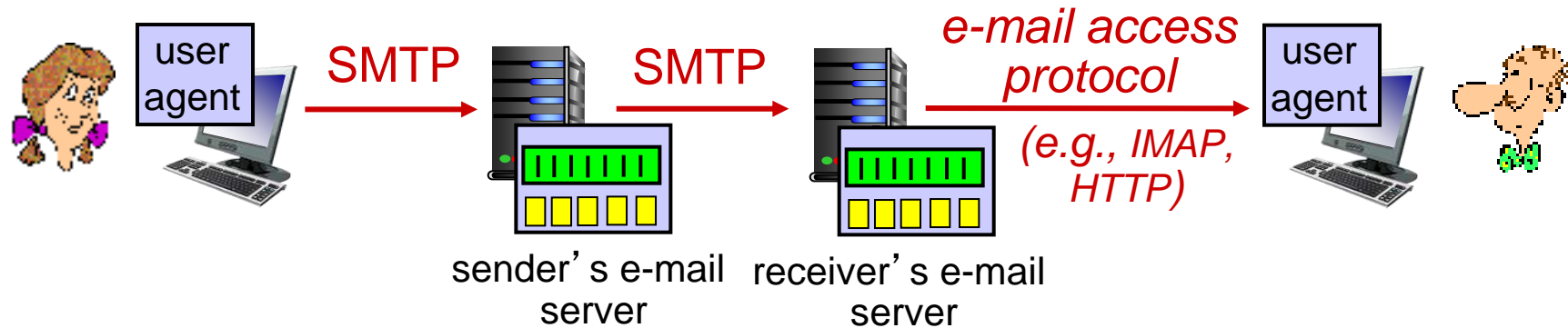
SMTP: protocol for exchanging e-mail messages, defined in RFC 5321 (like RFC 7231 defines HTTP)

RFC 2822 defines *syntax* for e-mail message itself (like HTML defines syntax for web documents)

- header lines, e.g.,
  - To:
  - From:
  - Subject:these lines, within the body of the email message area different from SMTP MAIL FROM:, RCPT TO: commands!
- Body: the “message” , ASCII characters only



# Retrieving email: 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
- Email retrieval: **HTTP**: gmail, Hotmail, Yahoo!Mail, etc. provides web-based interface on top of SMTP (to send),
- Or mail clients (MS Outlook), use IMAP (or POP) to retrieve e-mail messages
  - Obtaining messages is a **pull operation**; **SMTP push** protocol

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# DNS: Domain Name System

*people:* many identifiers:

- SSN, name, passport #

*Internet hosts, routers:*

- IP address (32 bit). Ex: 121.7.106.83
- Each period separates one of the bytes expressed in decimal notation, from 0 to 255
- “name”, e.g., cs.umass.edu - used by humans

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

## Domain Name System (DNS):

- *distributed database* implemented in hierarchy of many *DNS servers* and
- *application-layer protocol* allowing hosts, to query the distributed database.
  - The DNS servers are often UNIX machines running the Berkeley Internet Name Domain (BIND) software [BIND 2020]. The DNS protocol runs over **UDP** and uses port 53
  - *note:* core Internet function, **implemented as application-layer protocol**

# DNS: services, structure

## DNS services:

- hostname-to-IP-address translation
- host aliasing
- 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

## *A: doesn't scale!*

- Comcast DNS servers alone: 600B DNS queries/day
- Akamai DNS servers alone: 2.2T DNS queries/day

# Thinking about the DNS

humongous distributed database:

- ~ billion records

handles many *trillions* of queries/day:

- *many* more reads than writes
- *performance matters*: almost every Internet transaction interacts with DNS - msec count!

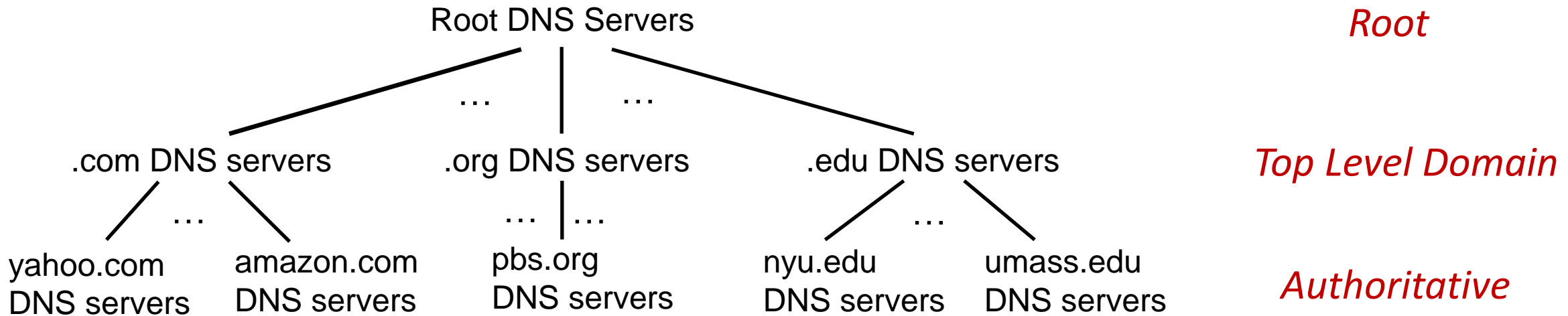
organizationally, physically decentralized:

- millions of different organizations responsible for their records

not bulletproof: reliability, security



# DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database

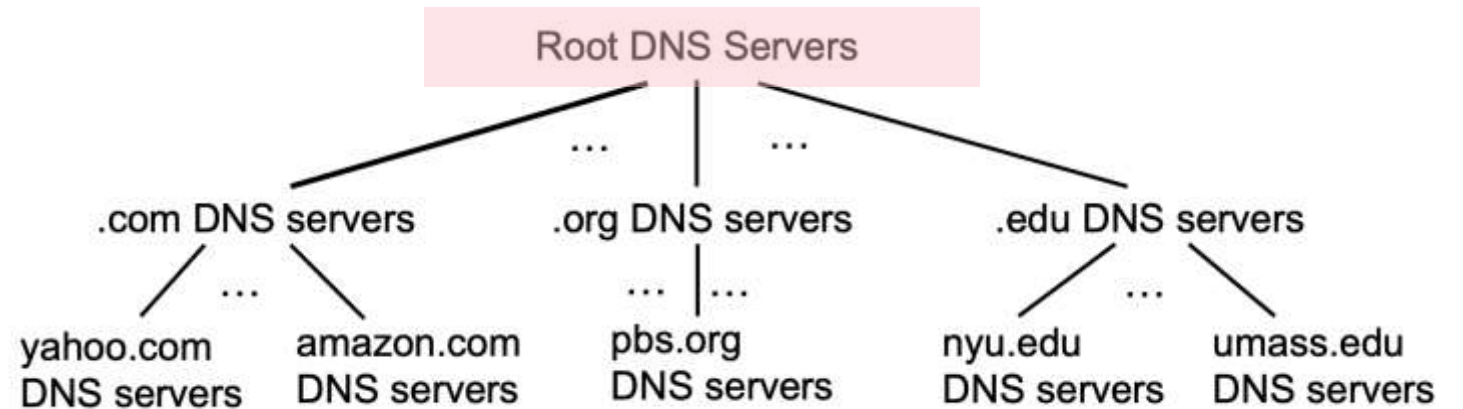


Client wants IP address for `www.amazon.com`; 1<sup>st</sup> approximation:

- 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

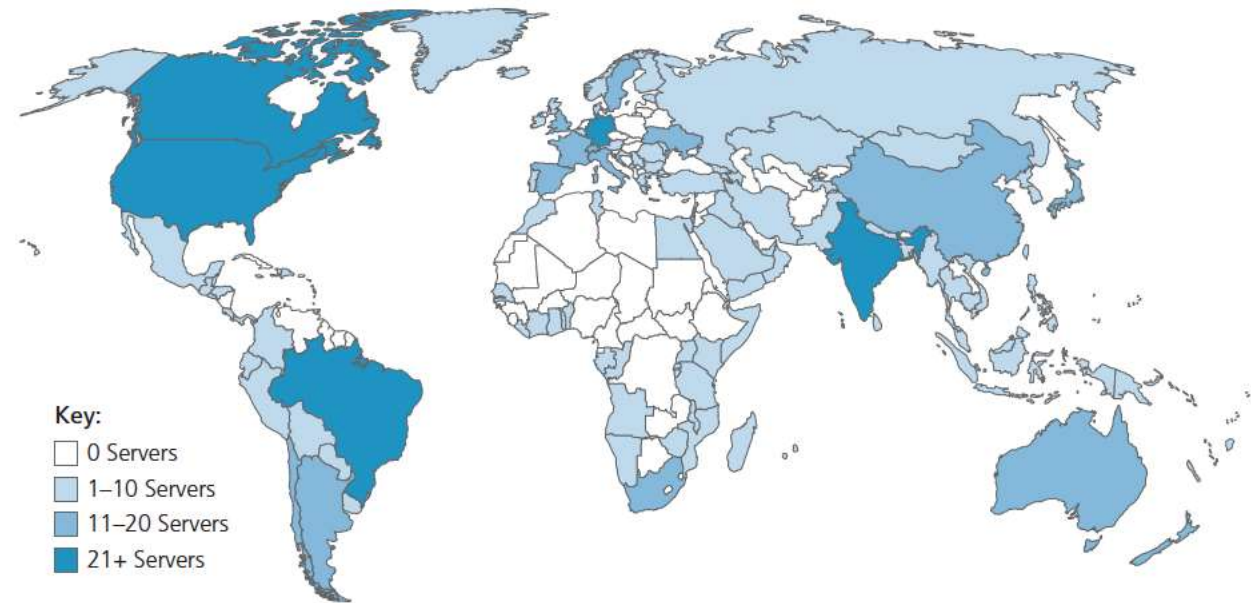
- More than 1000 root servers instances across the globe
- They represent copies of 13 different root servers, managed by 12 different organizations and coordinated through Internet Assigned Numbers Authority (IANA 2020)



# DNS: root name servers

- official, contact-of-last-resort by name servers that can not resolve name
- *incredibly important* Internet function
  - Internet couldn't function without it!
  - DNSSEC – provides security (authentication, message integrity)
- ICANN (Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers) manages root DNS domain

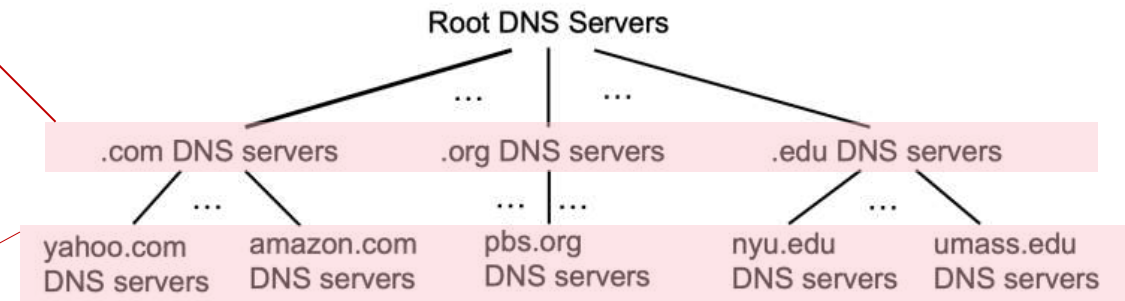
13 logical root name “servers”  
worldwide each “server” replicated  
many times (~200 servers in US)



# Top-Level Domain, 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

- when host makes DNS query, it is sent to its *local DNS server*
  - Local DNS server returns reply, answering:
    - Typically, it does not strictly belong to hierarchy of servers but it is central to DNS architecture.
    - from its local cache of recent name-to-address translation pairs (possibly out of date!)
    - forwarding request into DNS hierarchy for resolution
  - each ISP has local DNS name server; to find yours:
    - MacOS: `% scutil --dns`
    - Windows: `>ipconfig /all`

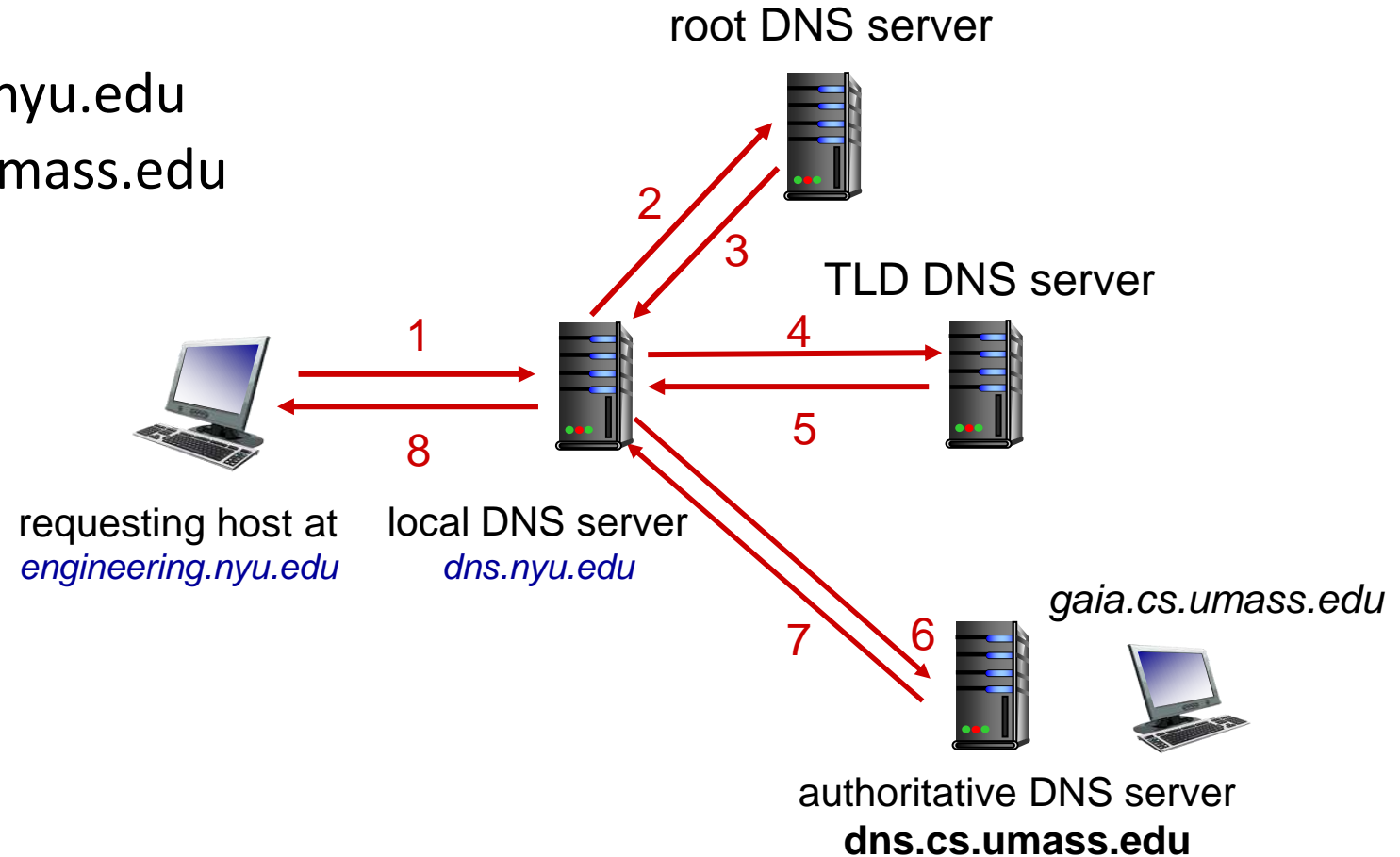


# DNS name resolution: iterated query

**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”

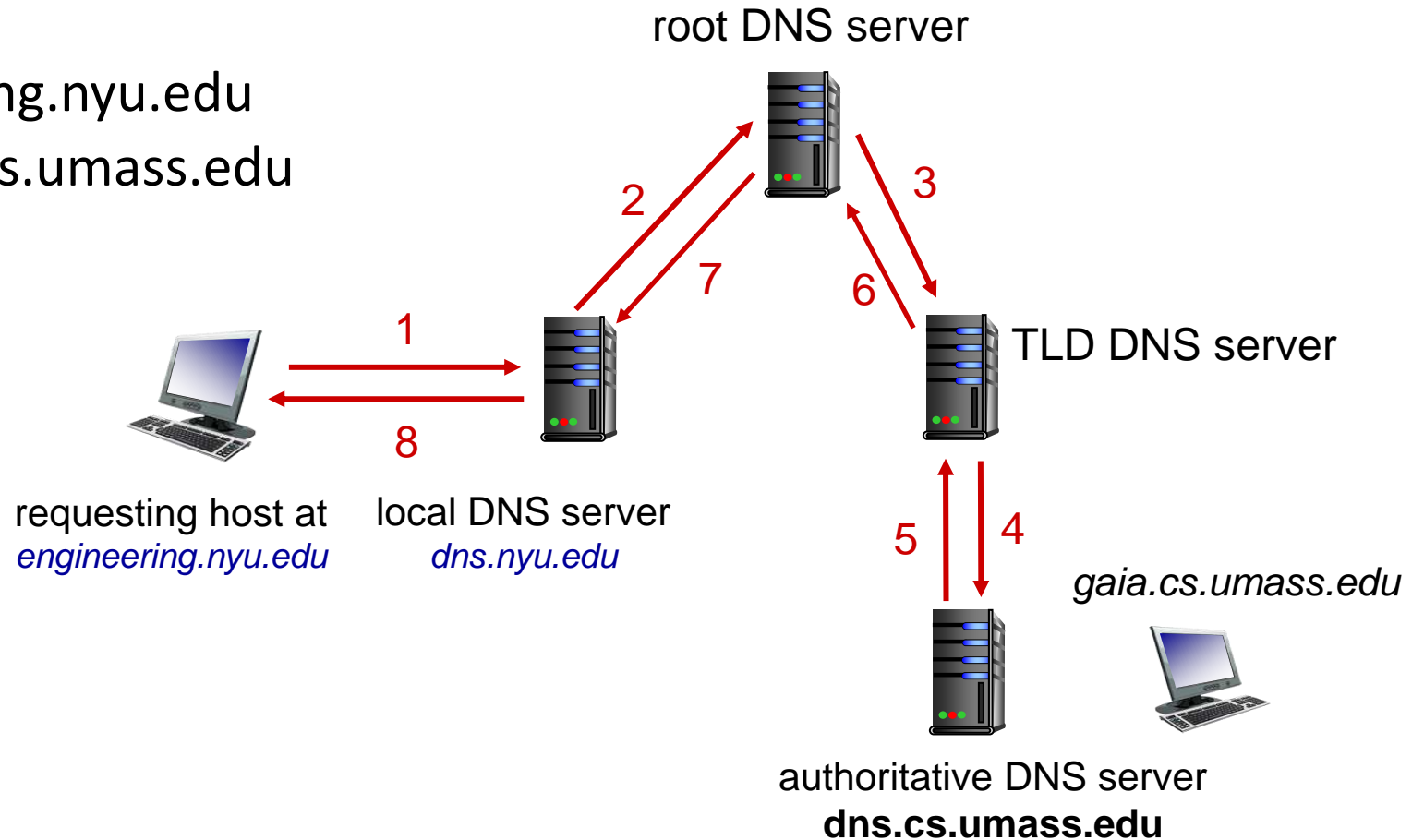


# DNS name resolution: recursive query

**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 DNS Information

- once (any) name server learns mapping, it *cached* mapping, and *immediately* returns a cached mapping in response to a query
  - caching improves response time
  - cache entries timeout (disappear) after some time (TTL)
  - TLD servers typically cached in local name servers
- cached entries may be *out-of-date*
  - if named host changes IP address, may not be known Internet-wide until all TTLs expire!
  - *best-effort name-to-address translation!*

# 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
- www.ibm.com is really servereast.backup2.ibm.com
- value is canonical name

## type=MX

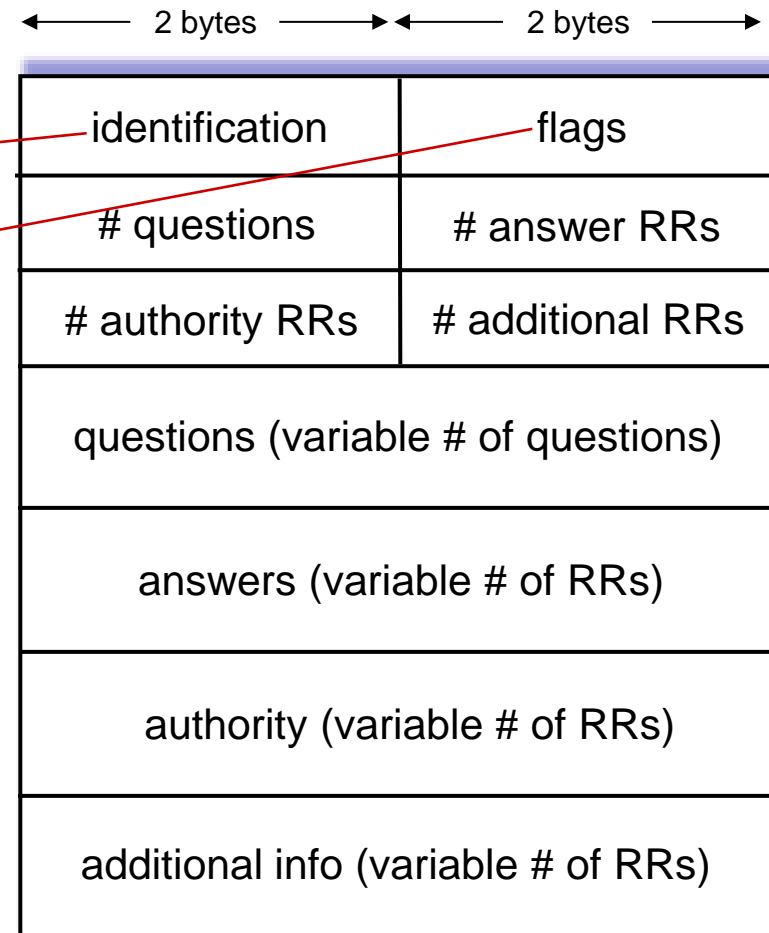
- value is name of SMTP mail server associated with name

# 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*:

← 2 bytes → ← 2 bytes →

identification	flags
# questions	# answer RRs
# authority RRs	# additional RRs
questions (variable # of questions)	
answers (variable # of RRs)	
authority (variable # of RRs)	
additional info (variable # of RRs)	

name, type fields for a query

RRs in response to query

records for authoritative servers

additional “helpful” info that may  
be used

# Getting your info into the DNS

example: new startup “Network Utopia”

- register name networkutopia.com at *DNS registrar* (e.g., Network Solutions)
  - provide names, IP addresses of authoritative name server (primary and secondary)
  - registrar inserts NS, A RRs into .com TLD server:  
(networkutopia.com, dns1.networkutopia.com, NS)  
(dns1.networkutopia.com, 212.212.212.1, A)

# DNS security

## 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

## Spoofing attacks

- intercept DNS queries, returning bogus replies
  - DNS cache poisoning
  - RFC 4033: DNSSEC authentication services



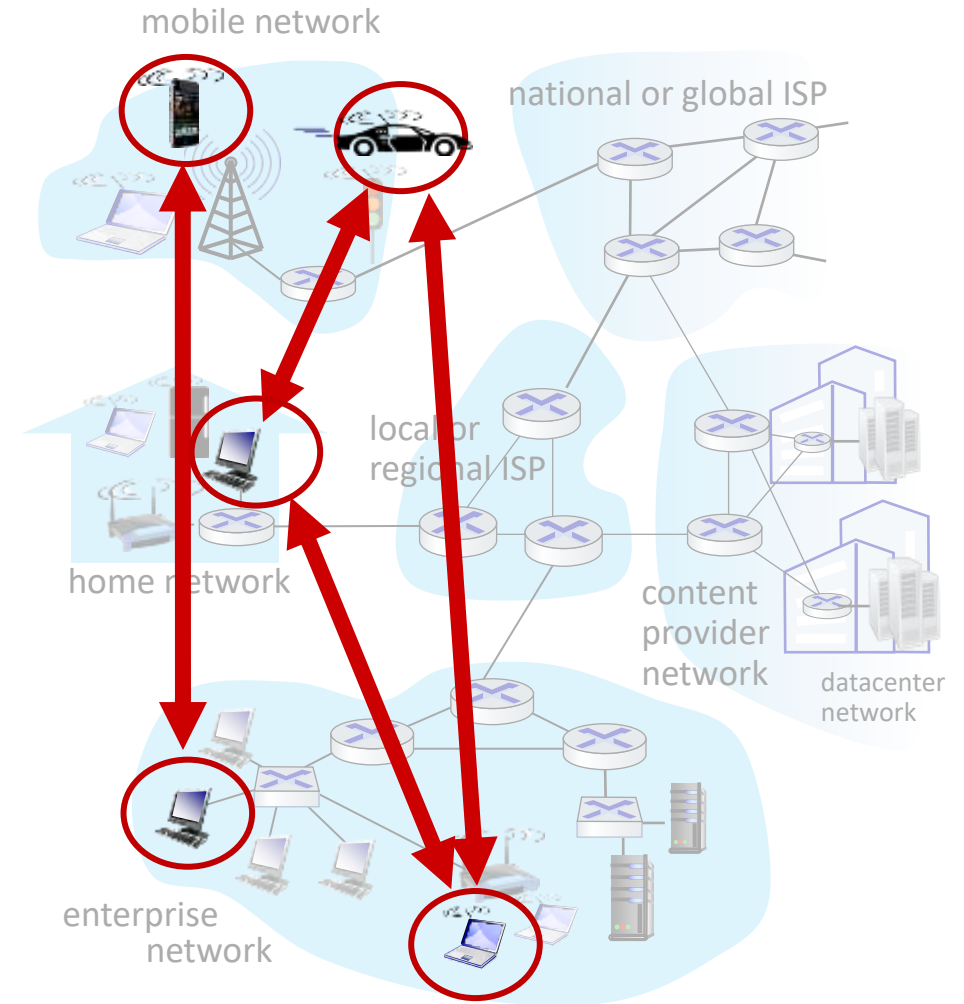
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# Peer-to-peer (P2P) architecture

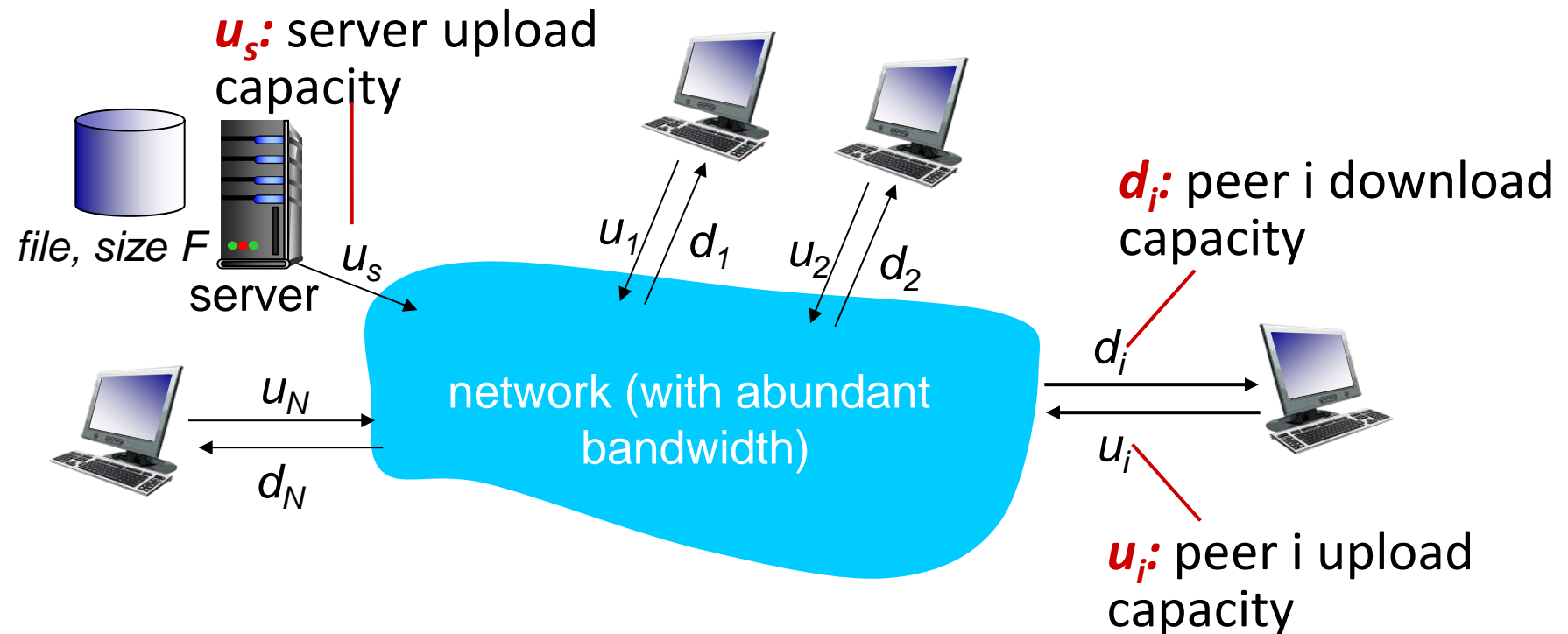
- *no* always-on server
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- peers request service from other peers, provide service in return to other peers
  - *self scalability* – new peers bring new service capacity, and new service demands
- peers are intermittently connected and change IP addresses
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



# File distribution: client-server vs P2P- Scalability

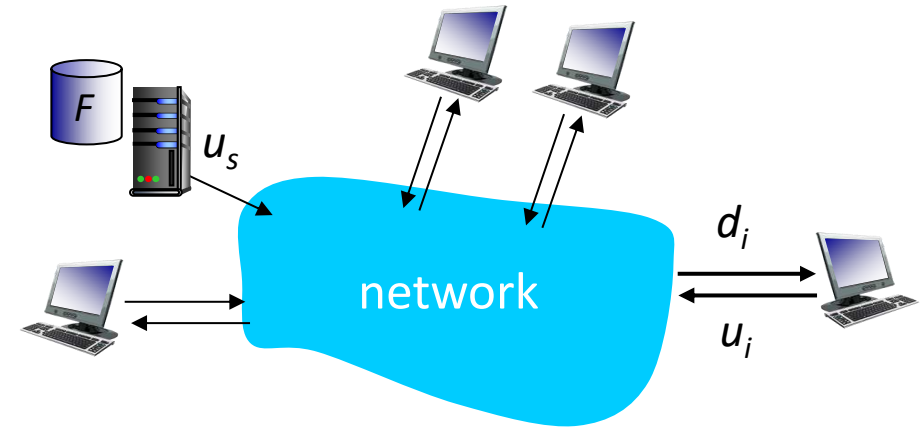
Q: how much time to distribute file (size  $F$ ) from one server to  $N$  peers?

- 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:  $F/d_{min}$



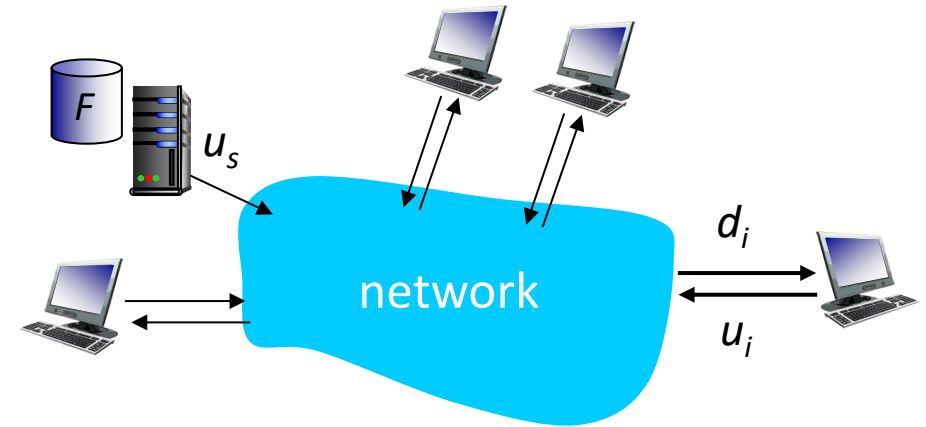
*time to distribute  $F$   
to  $N$  clients using  
client-server approach*

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

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  $u_s + \sum u_i$



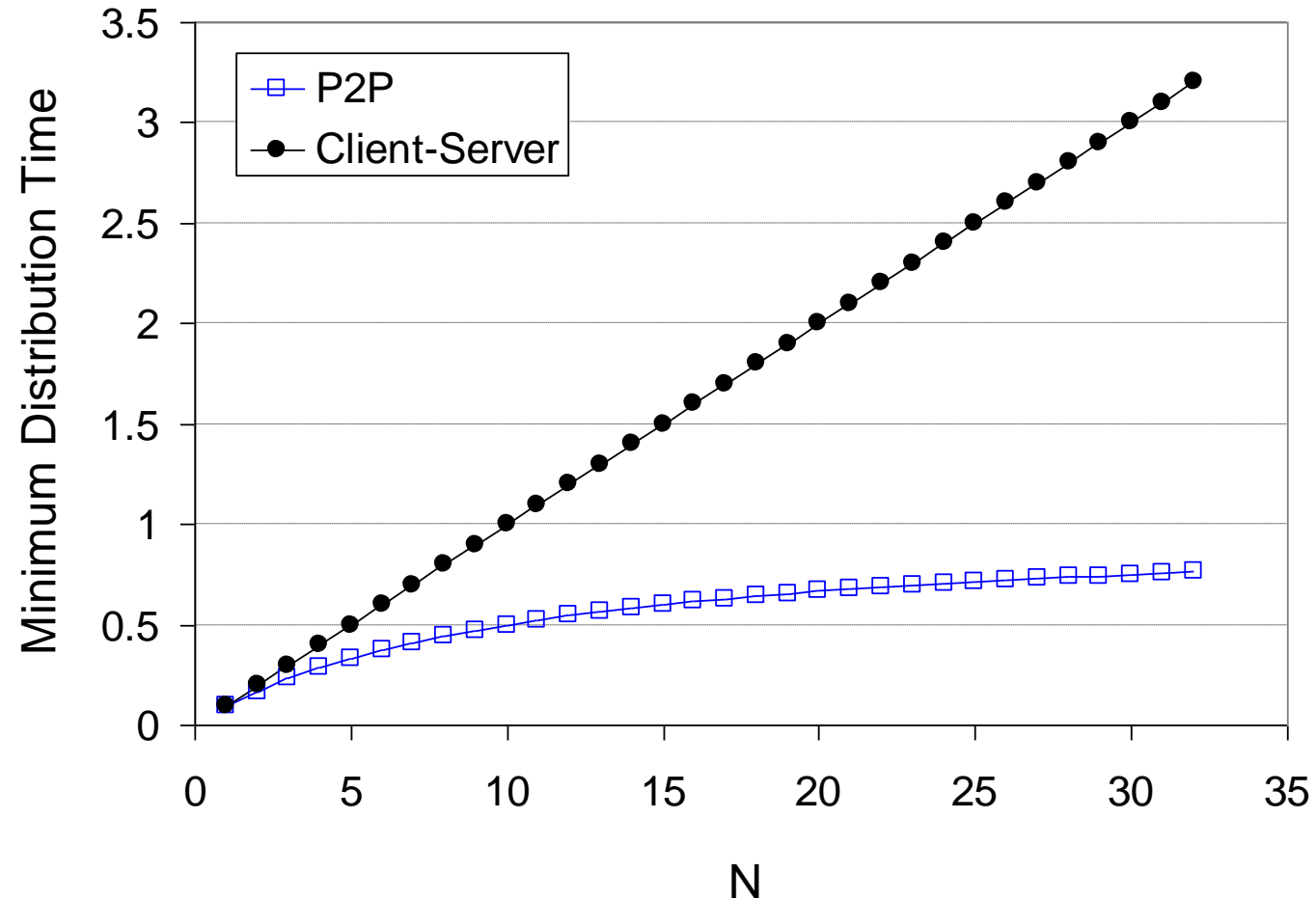
time to distribute  $F$   
to  $N$  clients using  
P2P approach

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

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

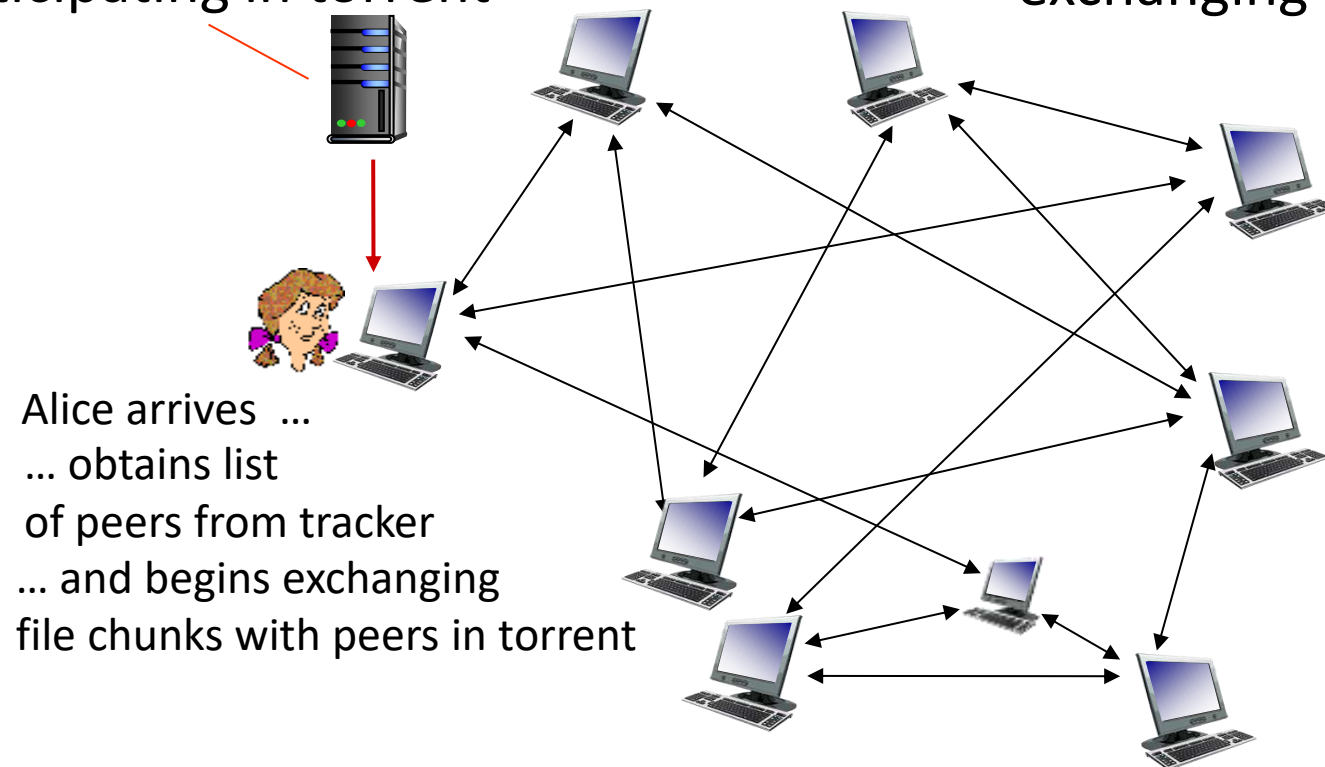


# P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

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

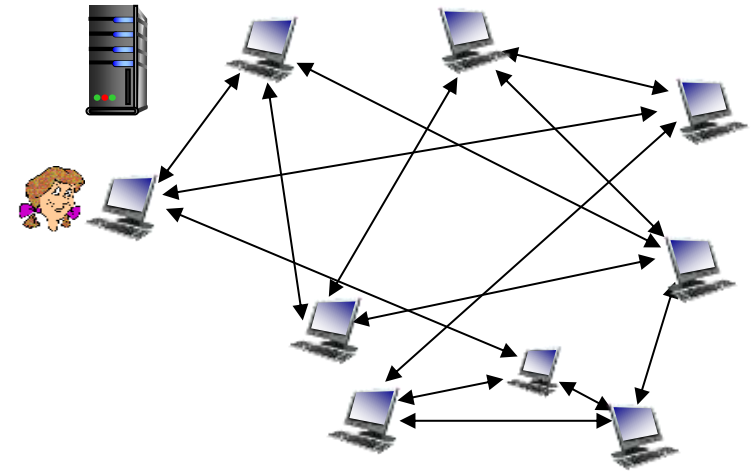
*tracker*: tracks peers  
participating in torrent

*torrent*: group of peers  
exchanging chunks of a file



# 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:

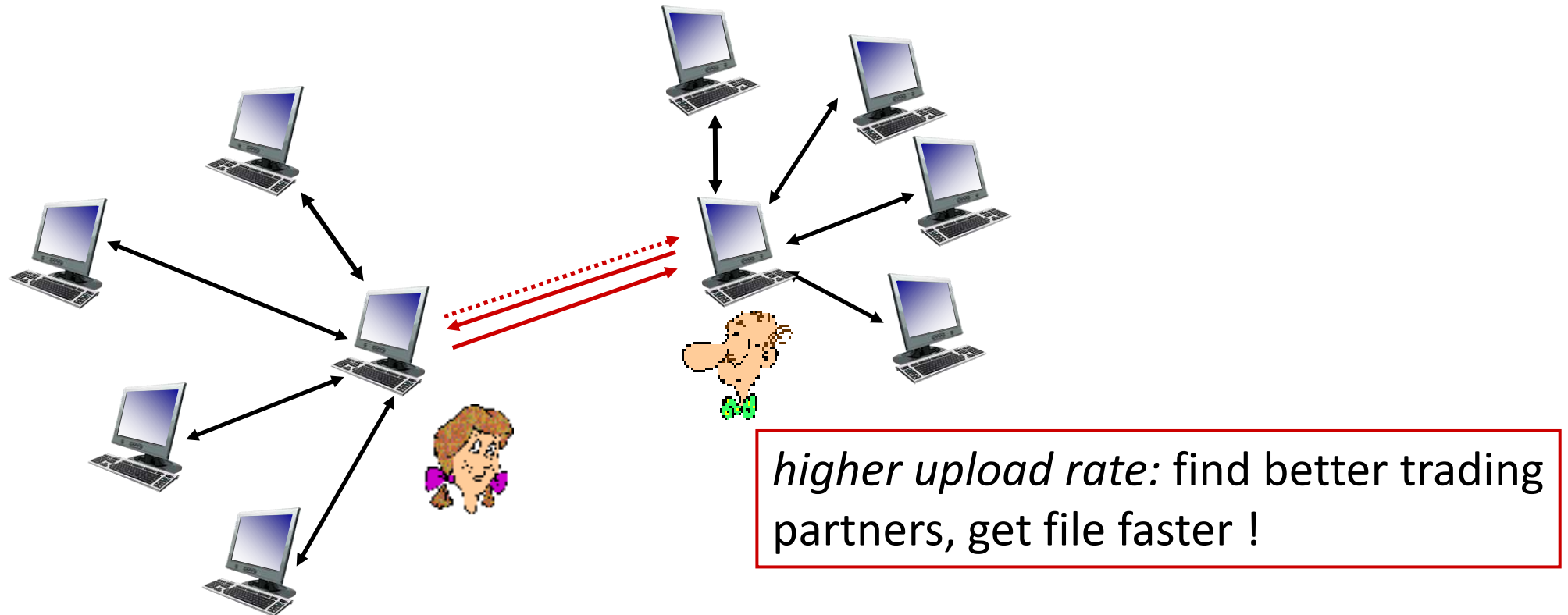
- at any given time, different peers have different subsets of file chunks
- periodically, Alice asks each peer for list of chunks that they have
- Alice requests missing chunks from peers, rarest first

## 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 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



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# Video Streaming and CDNs: context

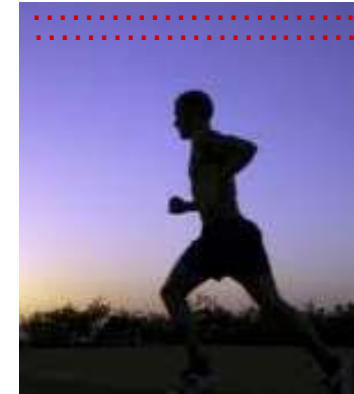
- stream video traffic: major consumer of Internet bandwidth
  - Netflix, YouTube, Amazon Prime: 80% of residential ISP traffic (2020)
- *challenge*: scale - how to reach ~1B users?
- Prerecorded videos, sport events, TV show, etc., are stored on servers (hosts)
- Users send requests to view *on demand*
- *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 to represent luminance and color
- Video can be compressed
  - Trade off -quality with bit rate
  - Higher the bit rate, the better image quality
- 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  $i$

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

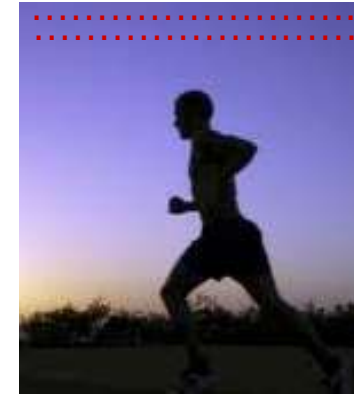


frame  $i+1$

# 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, 64Kbps – 12 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  $i$

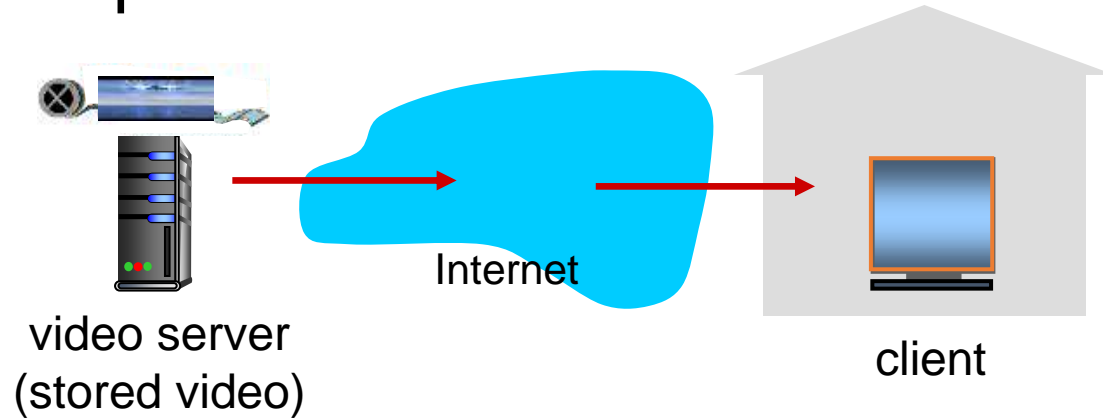
*temporal coding example:* instead of sending complete frame at  $i+1$ , send only differences from frame  $i$



frame  $i+1$

# Streaming stored video

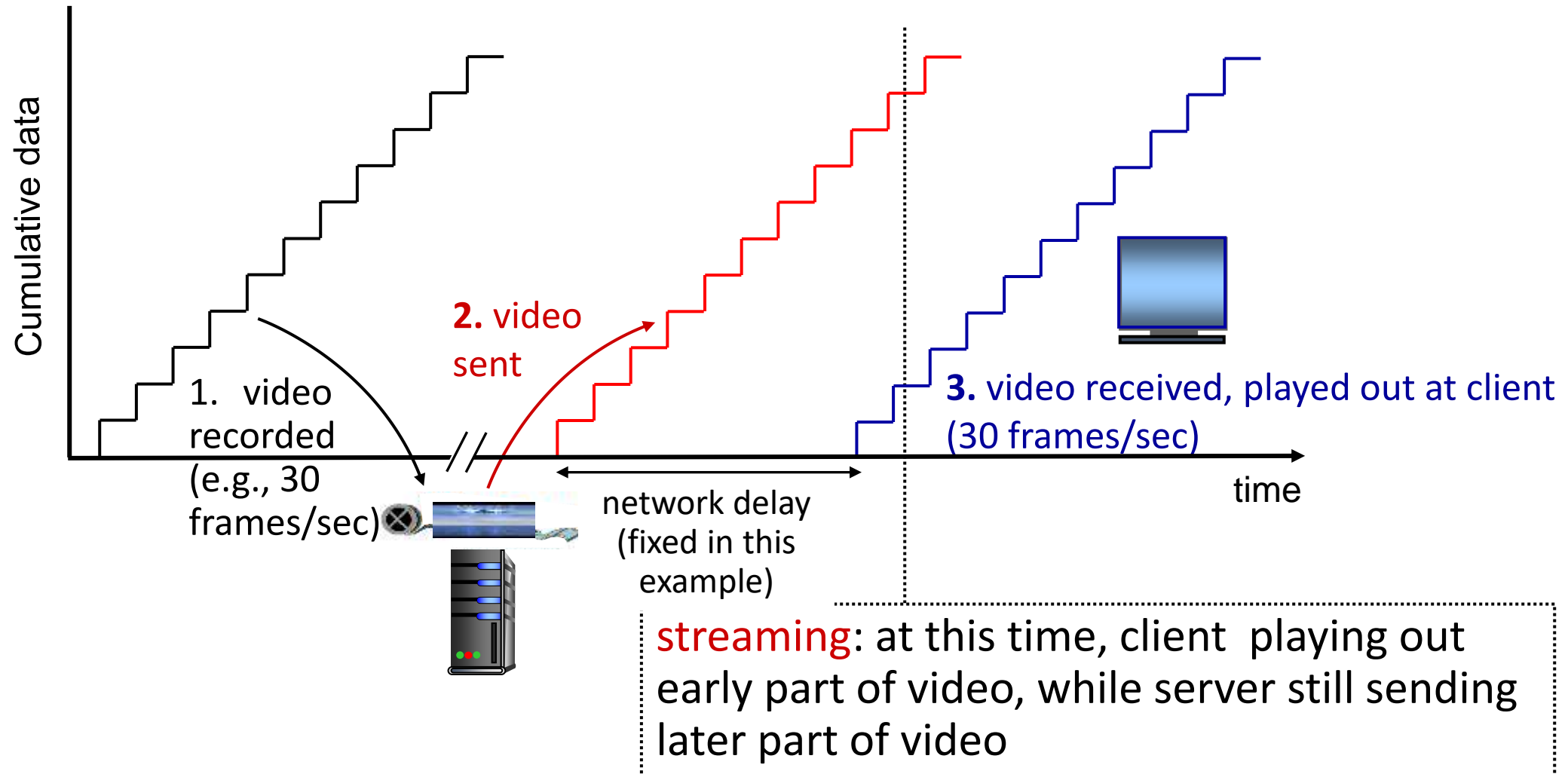
simple scenario:



Main challenges:

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

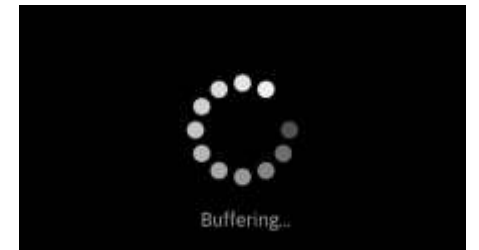
# Streaming stored video



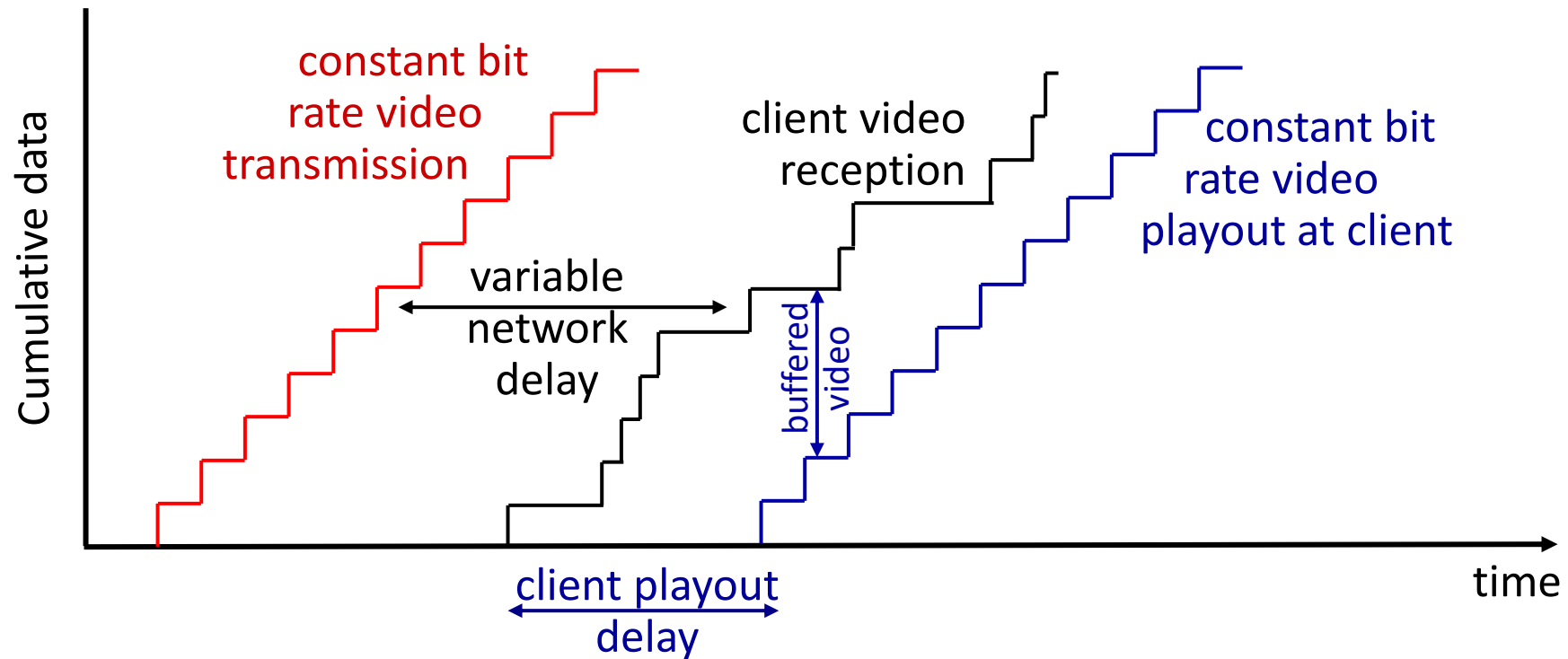


# Streaming stored video: challenges

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



# Streaming stored video: playout buffering



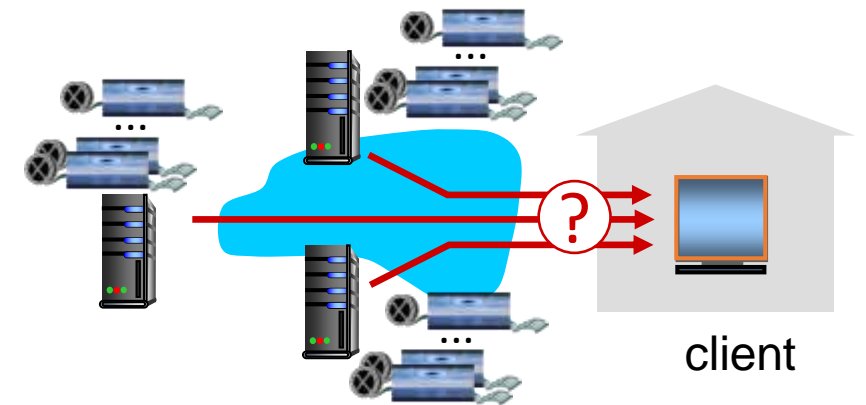
- *client-side buffering and playout delay*: compensate for network-added delay, delay jitter

# Streaming multimedia: DASH

*D*ynamic, *A*daptive  
*S*teaming over *H*TTP

## server:

- divides video file into multiple chunks
- each chunk encoded at multiple different rates
- different rate encodings stored in different files
- files replicated in various CDN nodes
- *manifest file*: provides URLs for different chunks

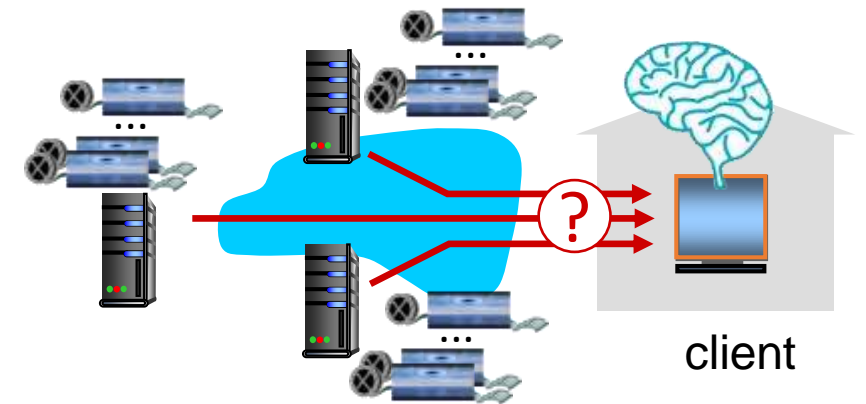


## client:

- periodically estimates 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), and from different servers

# 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
  - Popular media sent over and over
    - ISPs paid for sending the same bytes over the Internet
  - long (and possibly congested) path to distant clients

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

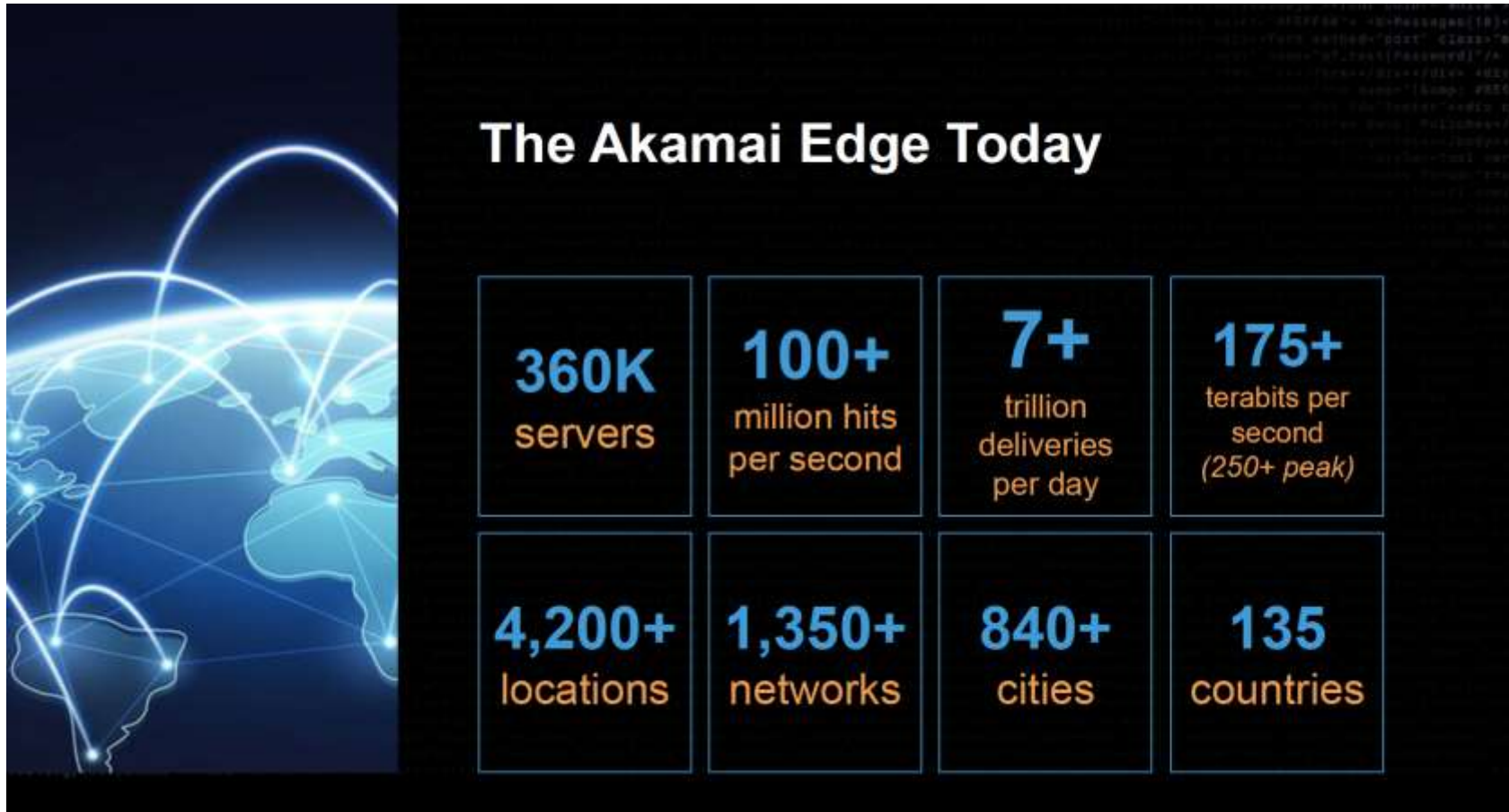
# Content distribution networks (CDNs)

*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*). **Private or Third-Party**
  - *enter deep:* push CDN servers deep into many access networks
    - close to users
    - Akamai: 240,000 servers deployed in > 120 countries (2015)
  - *bring home:* is to bring the ISPs home by building large clusters at a smaller number (for example, tens) of sites. Reside in IXPs (Internet exchange Points)
    - used by Limelight



# Akamai today:

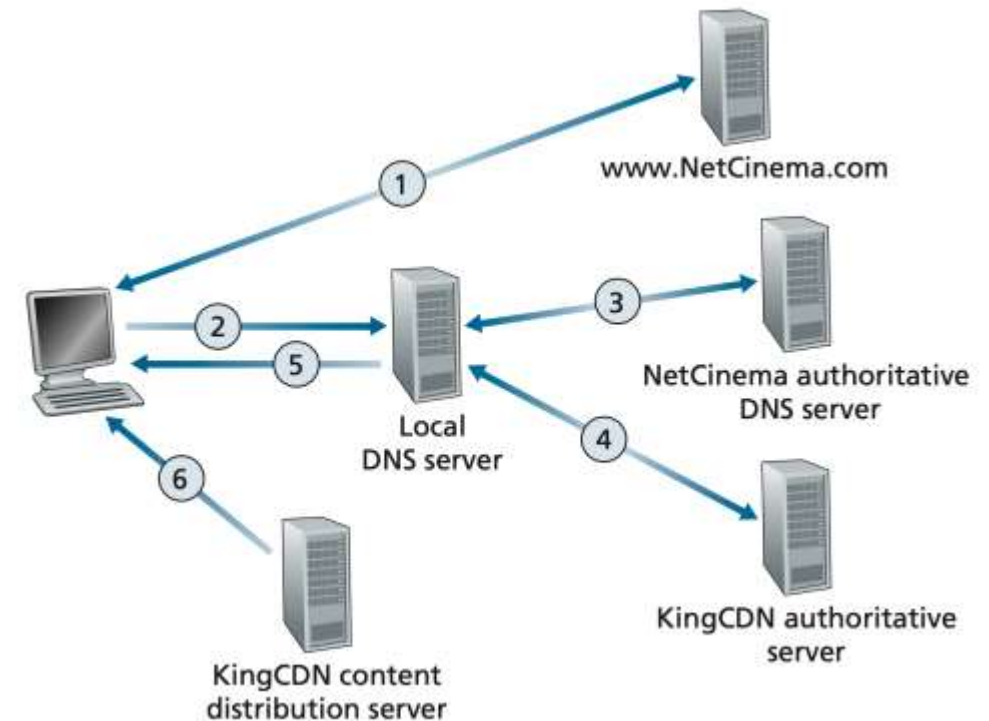


Source: <https://networkingchannel.eu/living-on-the-edge-for-a-quarter-century-an-akamai-retrospective-downloads/>

# CDNs take Advantage of DNS

- DNS are used by CDNs to redirect requests
- Example: content provider KingCDN distributes videos to customers
- On its webpage each video has a URL

1. The user visits the Web page at NetCinema.
2. User clicks on URL for the video
3. User's host sends a DNS query for video.netcinema.com.
4. The user's Local DNS Server (LDNS) relays the DNS query to an authoritative DNS server for NetCinema,
5. The LDNS forwards the IP address of the content-serving CDN node to the user's host.
6. Direct TCP connection with the server at that IP address and issues an HTTP GET request for the video. If DASH is used, the server will first send to the client a manifest file with a list of URLs, one for each version of the video, and the client will dynamically select chunks from the different versions





# Application Layer: Overview

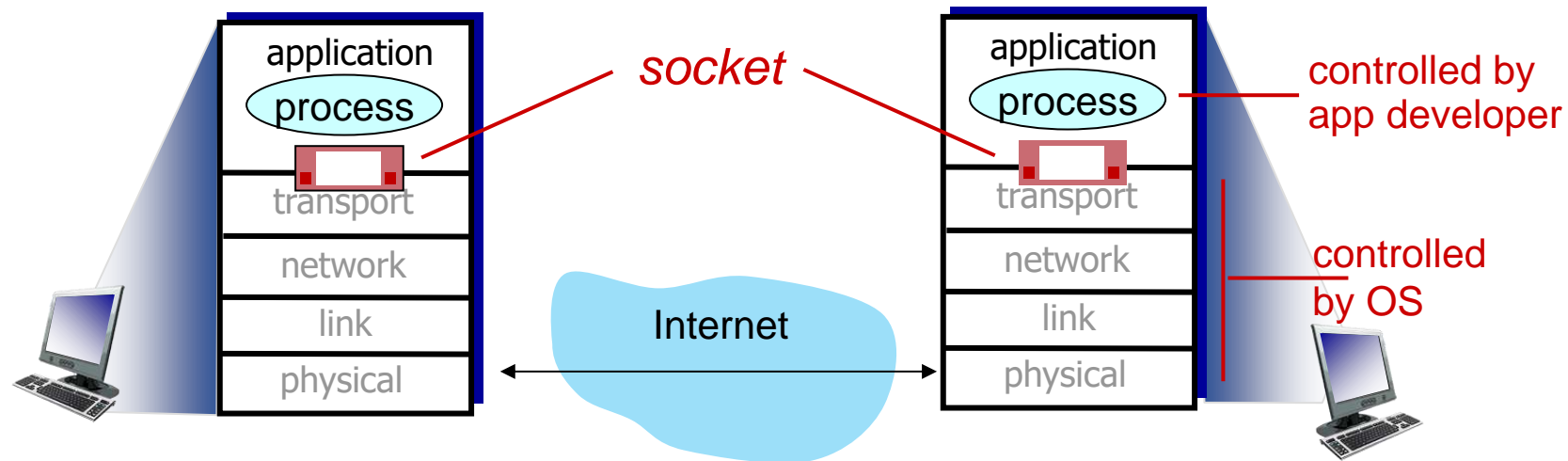
- Principles of network applications
- Web and HTTP
- E-mail, SMTP, IMAP
- The Domain Name System DNS
- P2P applications
- video streaming and content distribution networks
- **socket programming with UDP and TCP**



# 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 and 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

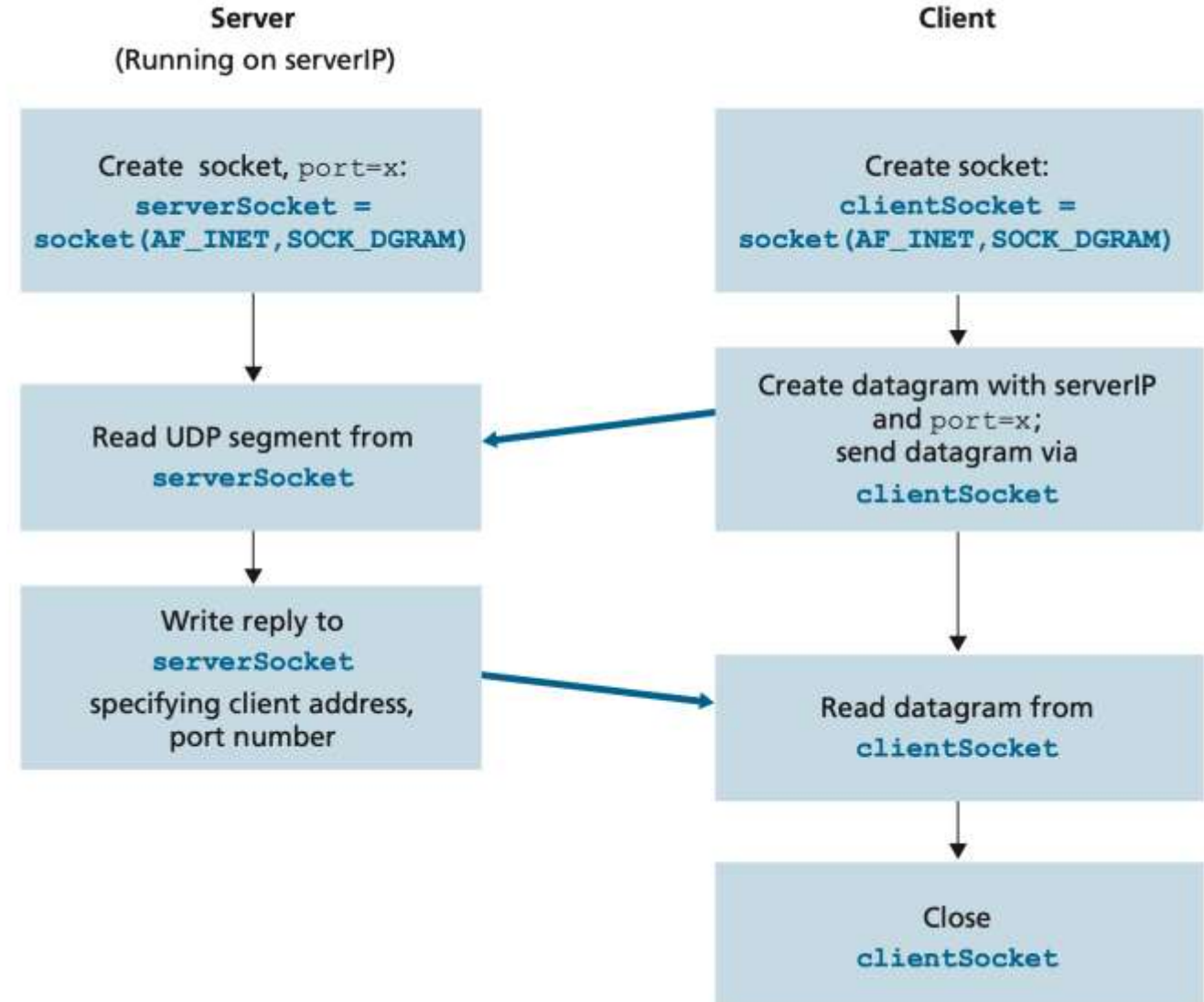
**UDP:** transmitted data may be lost or received out-of-order

**Application viewpoint:**

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

# Client/server socket interaction: UDP

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



# Example app: UDP client

## *Python UDPClient*

include Python's socket library	→	from socket import *
		serverName = 'hostname'
		serverPort = 12000
create UDP socket	→	clientSocket = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_DGRAM)
get user keyboard input	→	message = input('Input lowercase sentence:')
attach server name, port to message; send into socket	→	clientSocket.sendto(message.encode(), (serverName, serverPort))
read reply data (bytes) from socket	→	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
create UDP socket → serverSocket = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_DGRAM)
bind socket to local port number 12000 → serverSocket.bind(('', serverPort))
print('The server is ready to receive')
loop forever → while True:
    Read from UDP socket into message, getting → message, clientAddress = serverSocket.recvfrom(2048)
    client's address (client IP and port)         modifiedMessage = message.decode().upper()
    send upper case string back to this client → serverSocket.sendto(modifiedMessage.encode(),
                                                                    clientAddress)
```

# 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

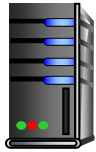
- when contacted by client, *server TCP creates new socket* for server process to communicate with that particular client
  - allows server to talk with multiple clients
  - client source port # and IP address used to distinguish clients (more in Chap 3)

## Application viewpoint

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

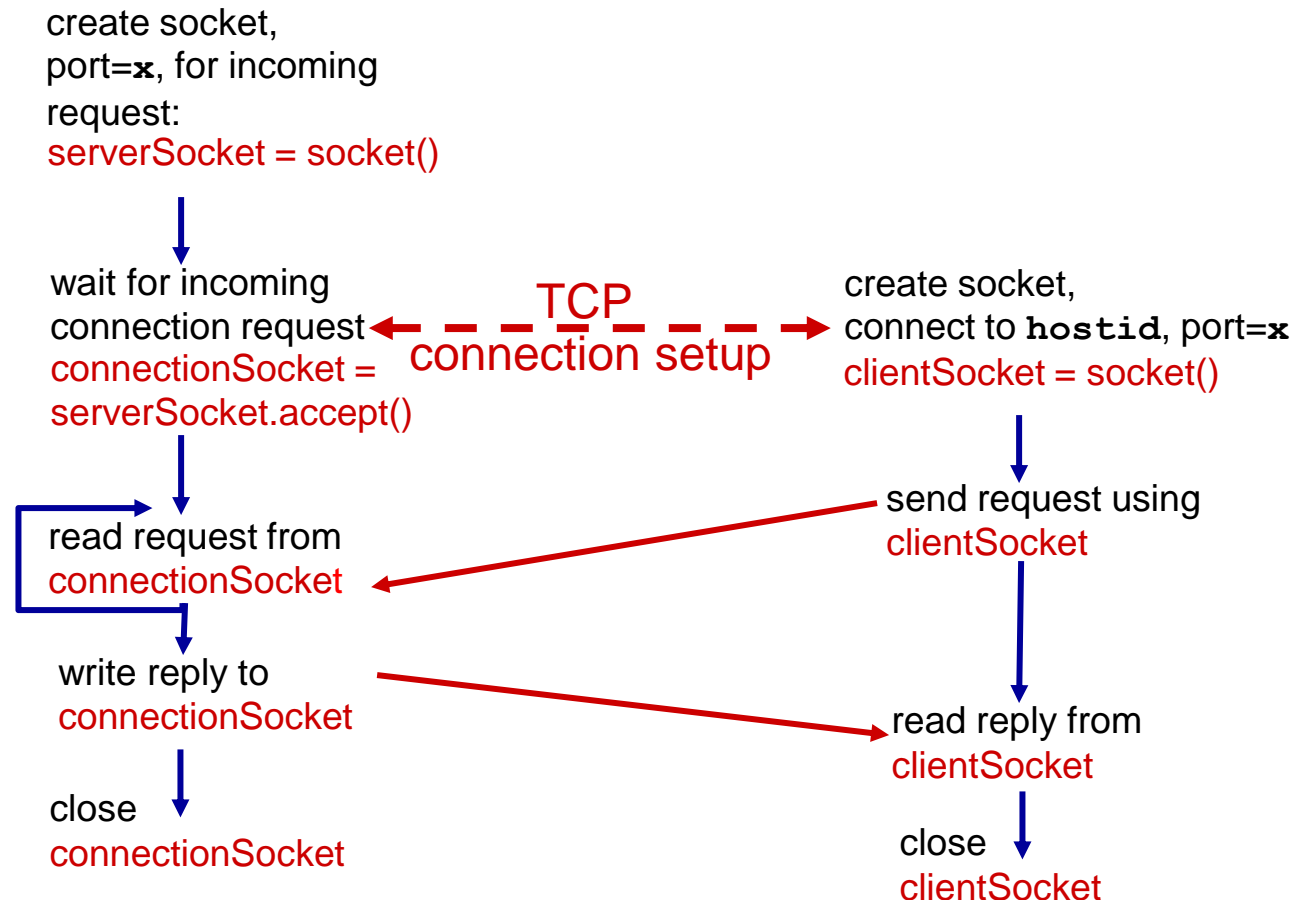


# Client/server socket interaction: TCP



server (running on `hostid`)

client



# Example app: TCP client

## *Python TCPClient*

create TCP socket for server,  
remote port 12000

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

No need to attach server name, port

# Example app: TCP server

## *Python TCPServer*

	from socket import *
	serverPort = 12000
create TCP welcoming socket →	serverSocket = socket(AF_INET,SOCK_STREAM)
	serverSocket.bind(('',serverPort))
server begins listening for incoming TCP requests →	serverSocket.listen(1)
	print('The server is ready to receive')
loop forever →	while True:
server waits on accept() for incoming requests, new socket created on return →	connectionSocket, addr = serverSocket.accept()
read bytes from socket (but not address as in UDP) →	sentence = connectionSocket.recv(1024).decode()
	capitalizedSentence = sentence.upper()
	connectionSocket.send(capitalizedSentence.encode())
close connection to this client (but <i>not</i> welcoming socket) →	connectionSocket.close()

# Chapter 2: Summary

our study of network application layer is 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, 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:

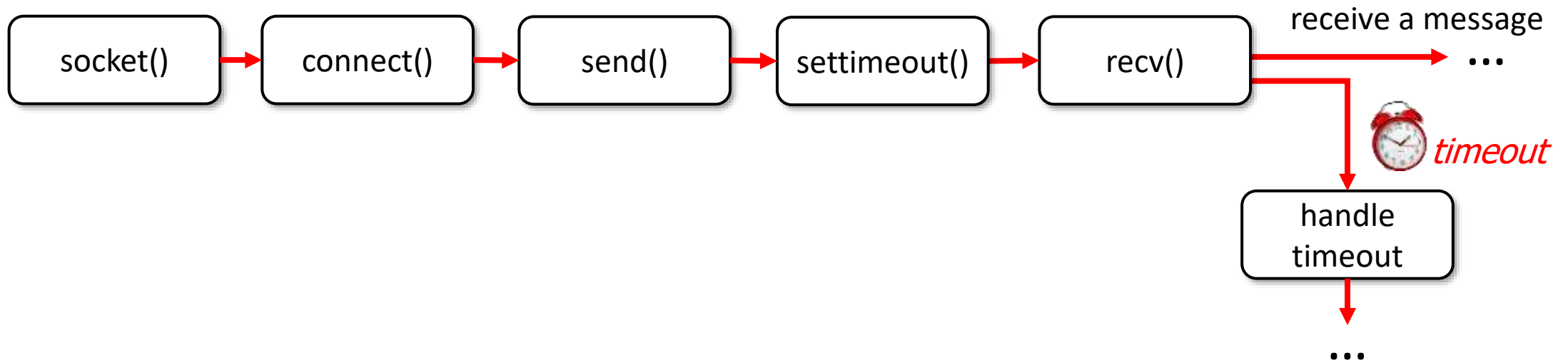
- centralized vs. decentralized
- stateless vs. stateful
- scalability
- reliable vs. unreliable message transfer
- “complexity at network edge”

# Additional Chapter 2 slides

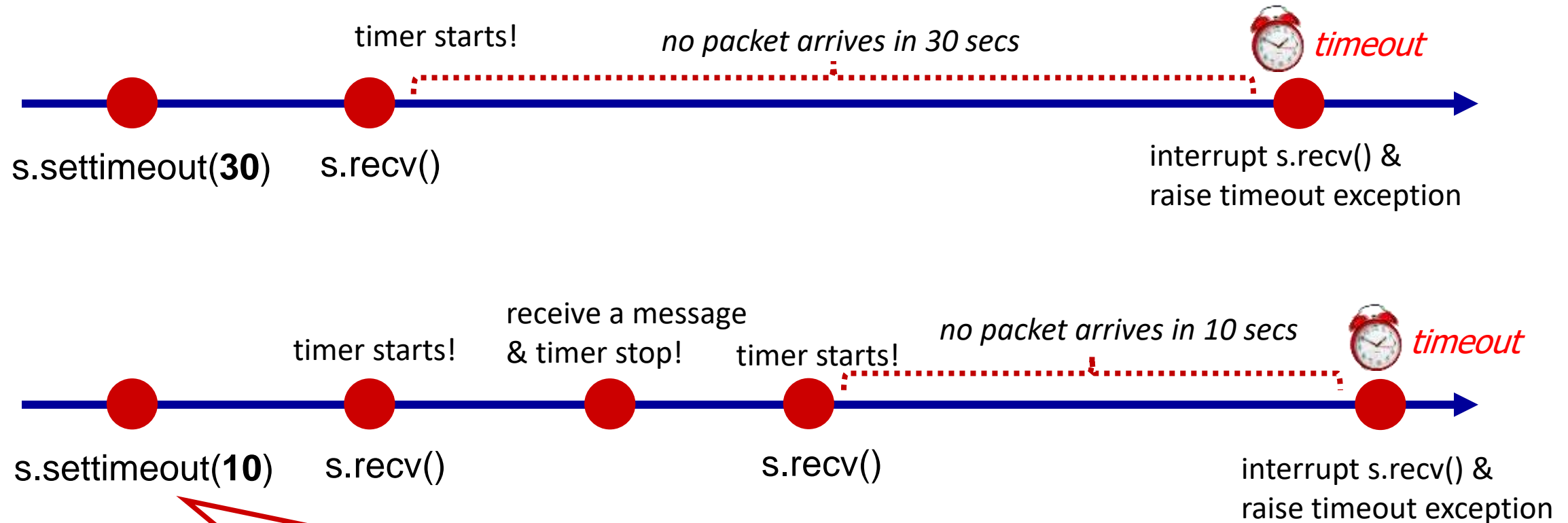
**JFK note:** the timeout slides are important IMHO if one is doing a programming assignment (especially an RDT programming assignment in Chapter 3), since students will need to use timers in their code, and the TRY/EXCEPT is really the easiest way to do this. I introduce this here in Chapter 2 with the socket programming assignment since it teaches something (how to handle exceptions/timeouts), and lets students learn/practice that before doing the RDT programming assignment, which is harder

# Socket programming: waiting for multiple events

- sometimes a program must **wait for one of several events** to happen, e.g.,:
  - wait for either (i) a reply from another end of the socket, or (ii) timeout: **timer**
  - wait for replies from several different open sockets: **select()**, **multithreading**
- timeouts are used extensively in networking
- using timeouts with Python socket:



# How Python `socket.settimeout()` works?



Set a timeout on all future socket operations of that specific socket!



# Python try-except block

Execute a block of code, and handle “exceptions” that may occur when executing that block of code

try:

<do something>

{ Executing this **try code block** may cause exception(s) to catch. If an exception is raised, execution jumps from jumps directly into **except code block**

except <exception>:

<handle the exception>

{ this **except code block** is only executed *if an <exception> occurred* in the **try code block** (note: except block is *required* with a try block)

# Socket programming: socket timeouts

## Toy Example:



- A shepherd boy tends his master's sheep.
- If he sees a wolf, he can send a message to villagers for help using a TCP socket.
- The boy found it fun to connect to the server without sending any messages. But the villagers don't think so.
- And they decided that if the boy connects to the server and doesn't send the wolf location **within 10 seconds for three times**, they will **stop listening** to him forever and ever.

set a 10-seconds timeout on  
all future socket operations

timer starts when `recv()` is called and will  
raise timeout exception if there is no  
message within 10 seconds.

catch socket timeout exception

## *Python TCPServer (Villagers)*

```
from socket import *
serverPort = 12000
serverSocket = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM)
serverSocket.bind(('', serverPort))
serverSocket.listen(1)
counter = 0
while counter < 3:
    connectionSocket, addr = serverSocket.accept()
    connectionSocket.settimeout(10)
    try:
        wolf_location = connectionSocket.recv(1024).decode()
        send_hunter(wolf_location) # a villager function
        connectionSocket.send('hunter sent')
    except timeout:
        counter += 1
    connectionSocket.close()
```

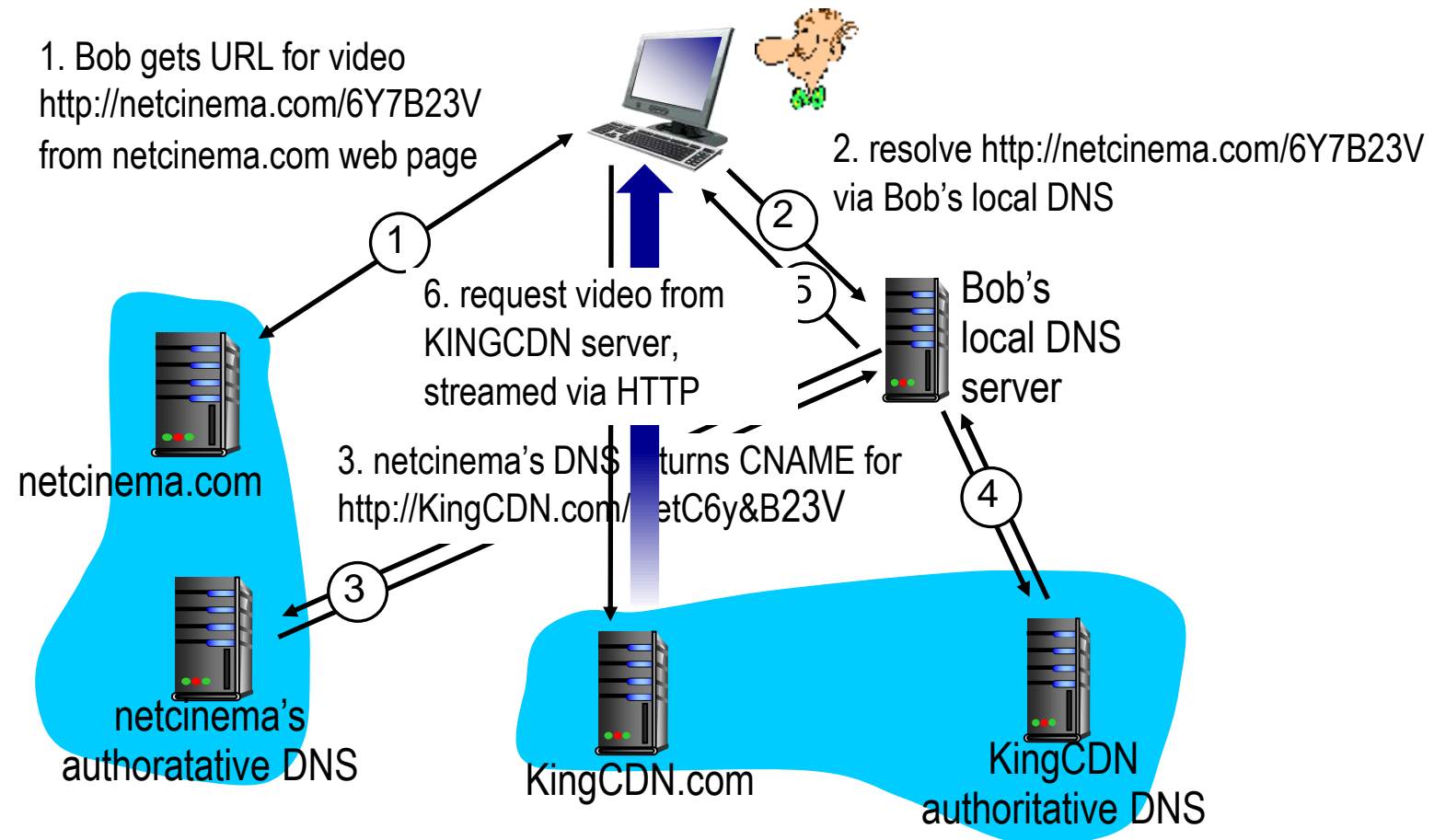
# Sample SMTP interaction

```
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
```

# 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

