Chapter 2
Application 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

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

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)
- real-time video conferencing (e.g., Zoom)
- Internet search
- remote login
- …

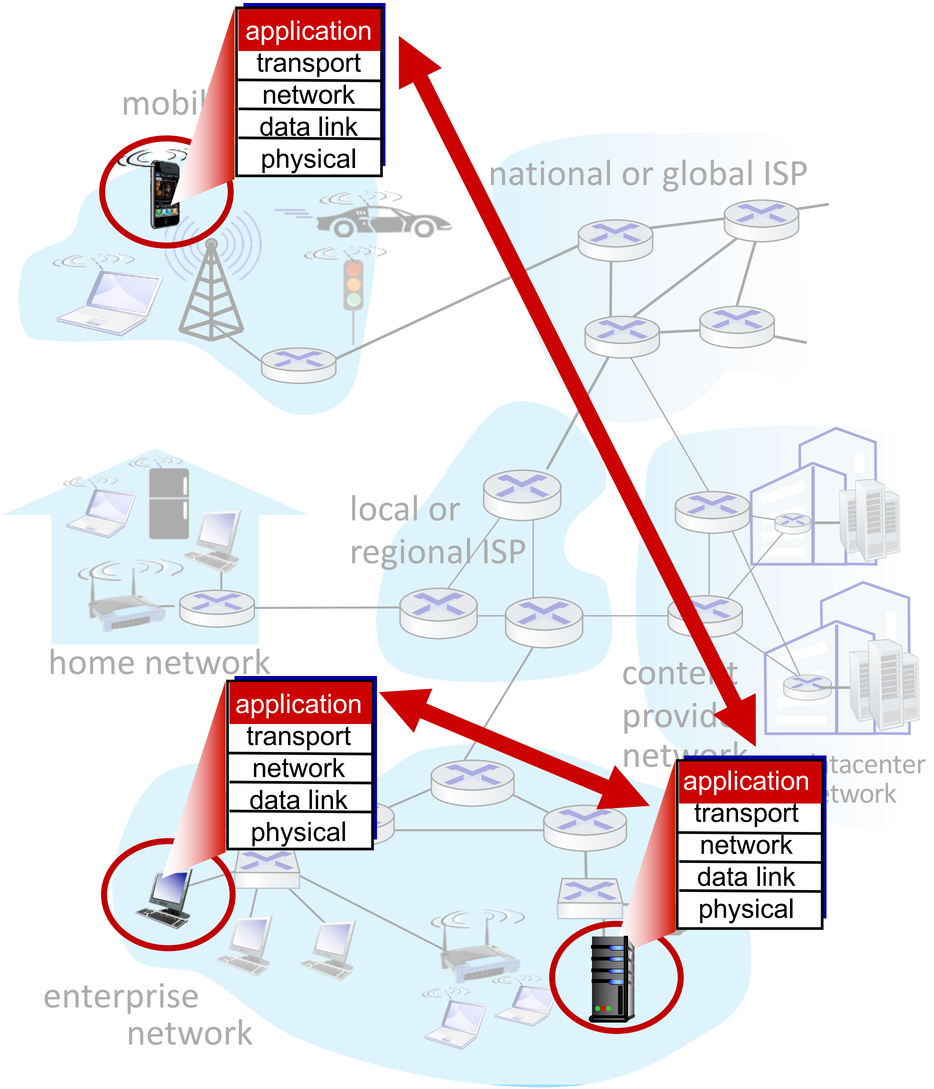
Creating a network app

write programs that:

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

no need to write software for network-core devices

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



Client-server paradigm

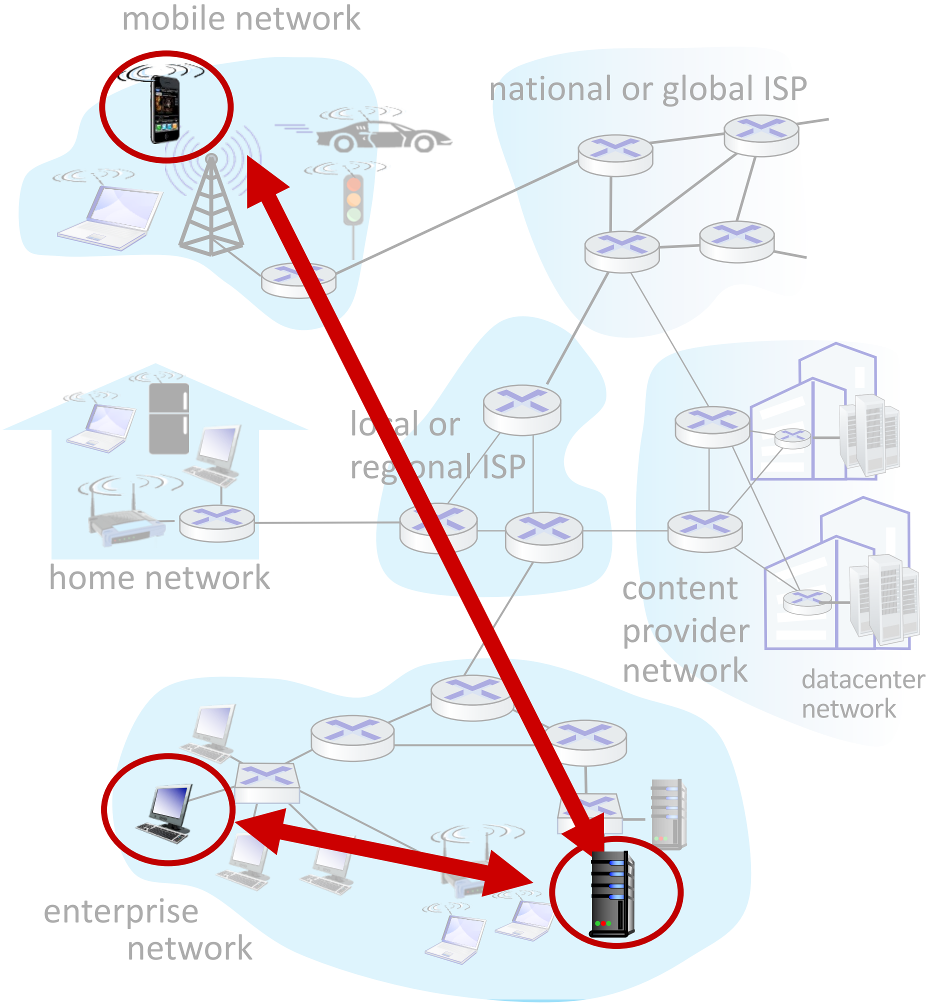
server:

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

clients:

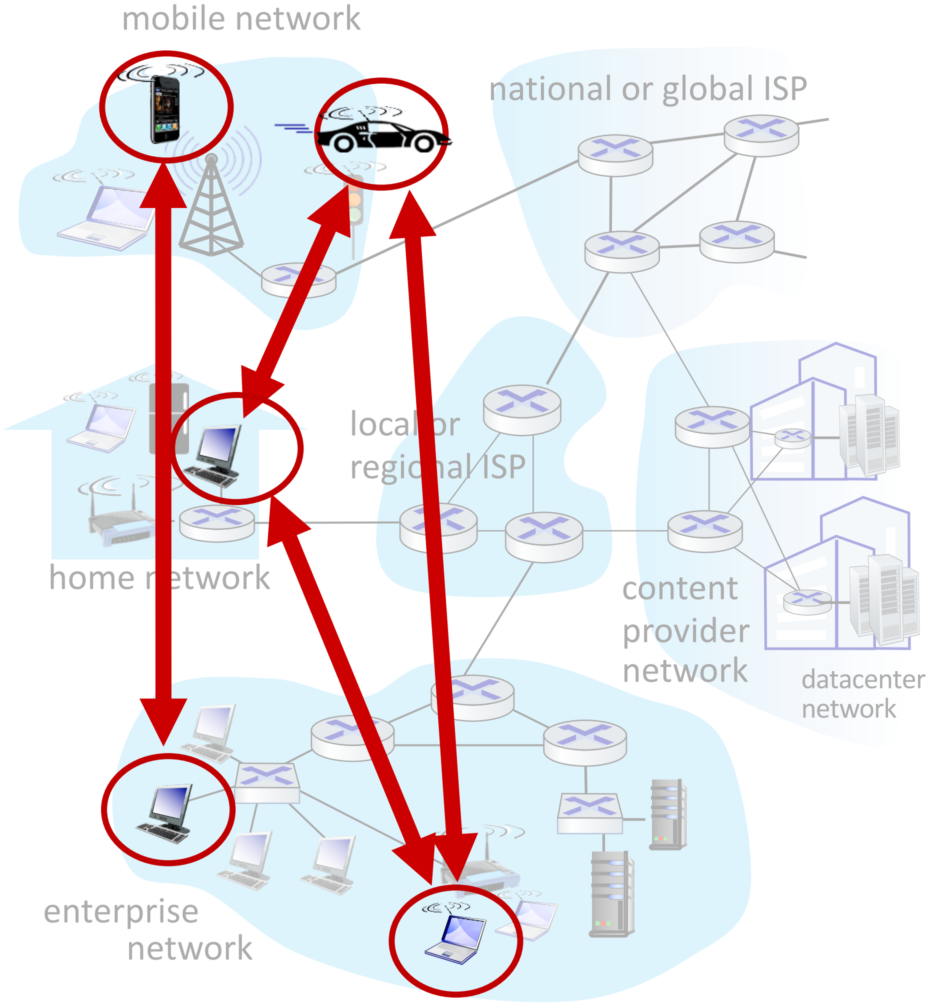
- contact, communicate with server
- may be intermittently connected
- may have dynamic IP addresses
- do *not* communicate directly with each other

- examples: HTTP, IMAP, FTP



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

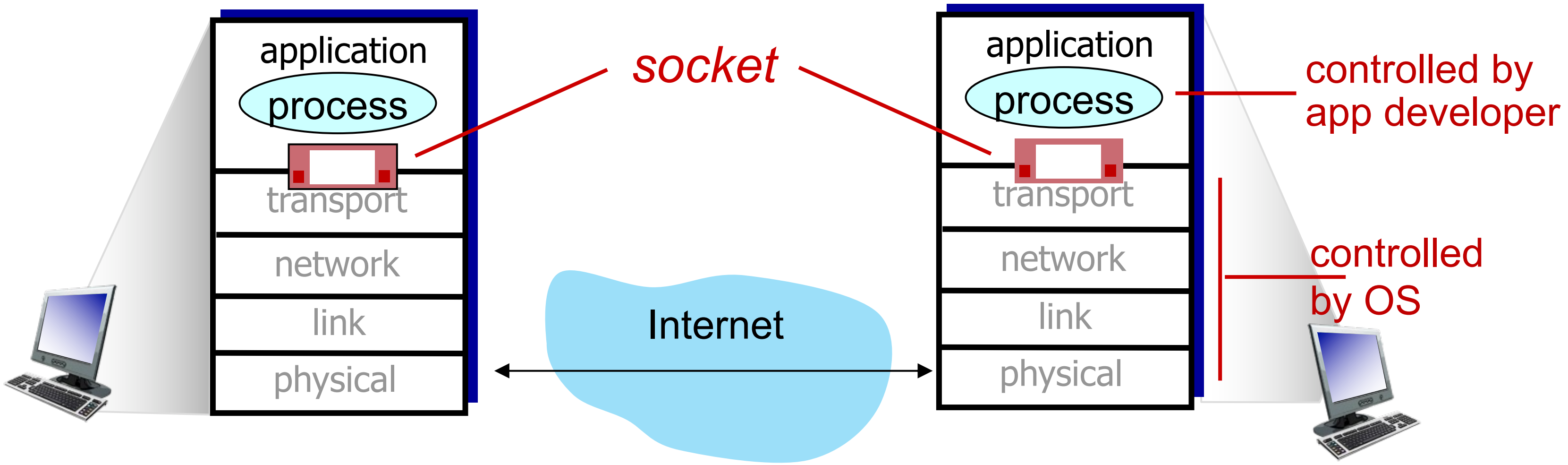
client process: process that initiates communication

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

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 integrity

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

timing

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

throughput

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

security

- encryption, data integrity, …

Transport service requirements: common apps

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

Internet transport protocols services

TCP service:

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

UDP service:

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

Q: why bother? *Why* is there a UDP?

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Web and HTTP

First, a quick review…

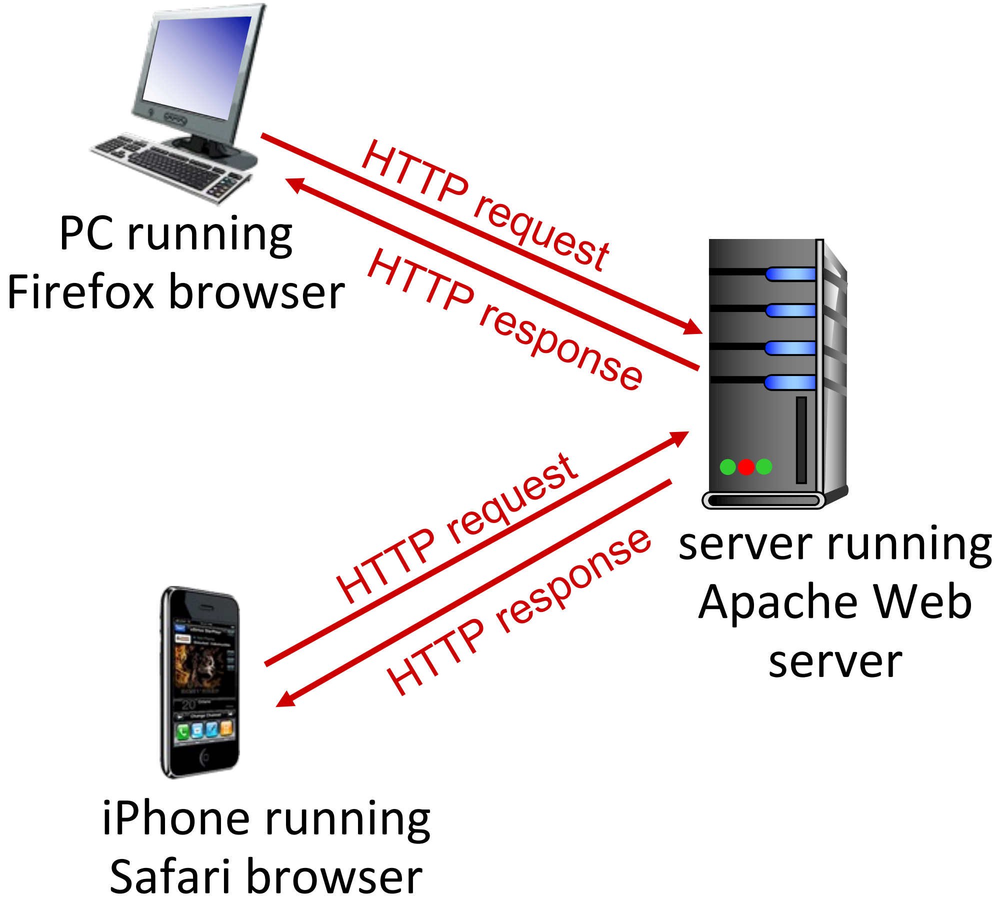
- a web page consists of *objects,* each of which can be stored on different Web servers
- objects can be HTML file, JPEG image, Java applet, audio file,…
- a web page consists of *base HTML-file* which includes *several referenced objects, each* addressable by a *URL,* e.g.,

$$\underbrace{\texttt{www.someschool.edu}}_{\text{host name}}\underbrace{\texttt{/someDept/pic.gif}}_{\text{path name}}$$

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

What about embedded objects within a web page?

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

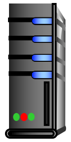
Persistent HTTP

- 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

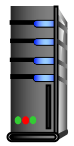
3. HTTP server receives request message, forms *response message* containing requested object, and sends message into its socket

time

Non-persistent HTTP: example (cont.)

User enters URL: **`www.someSchool.edu/someDepartment/home.index`**

(containing text, references to 10 jpeg images)



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

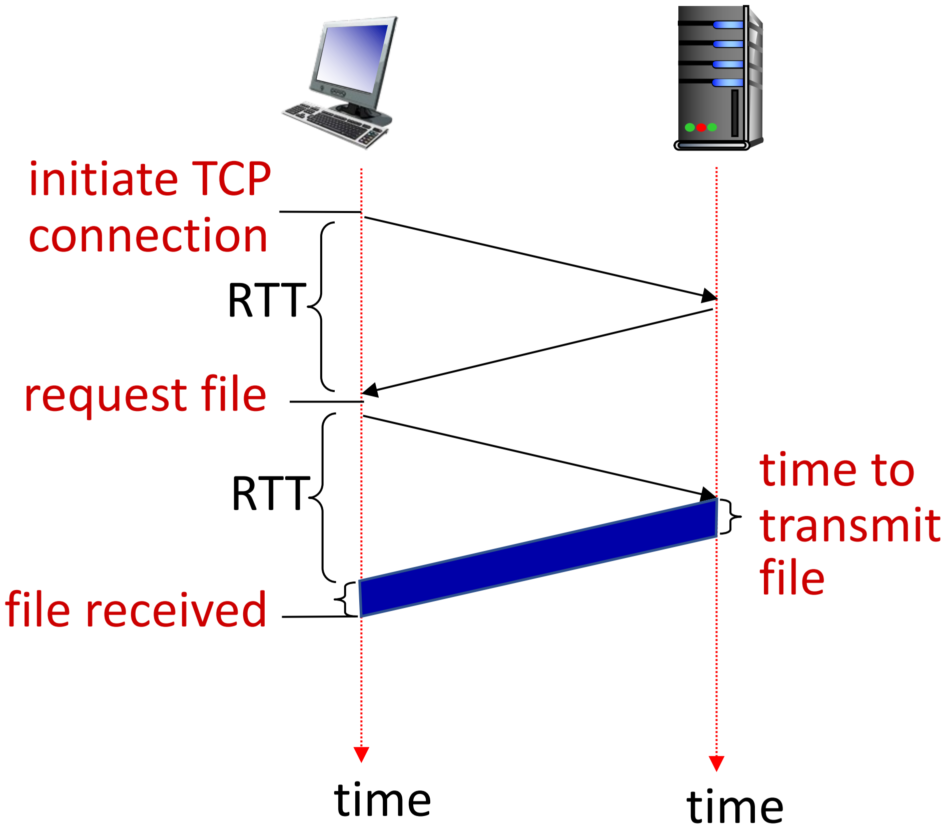
time

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
- obect/file transmission time



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 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)

carriage return character

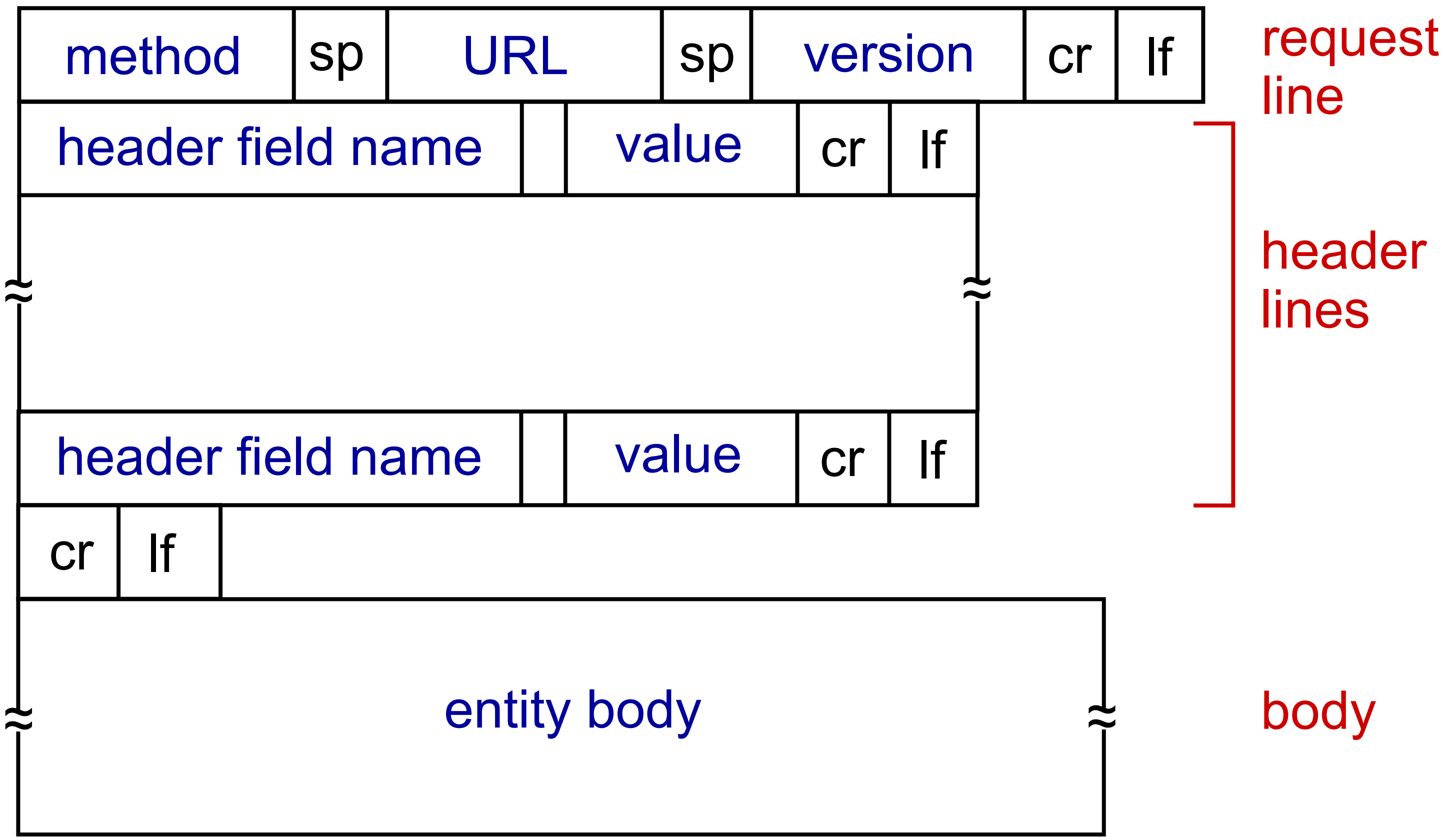
line-feed character

request line (GET, POST, HEAD commands)

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 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 the request message

HTTP: GET & POST

- GET and POST are the most frequently used HTTP commands
- Initially designed with different purposes:
  - GETting information
  - POSTing information

- GET: input parameters are appended to the URL after «?»
- POST: input info enclosed in the payload

HTTP: GET

- VISIBLE request parameters
- Browsers limit the length of the query string
  - Most browser only allow for up to 240 characters
- The request can be bookmarked and reloaded

HTTP: POST

- Request parameters are not visible
- The amount of data sent through a POST is not limited (even megabytes)
- POST requests cannot be bookmarked or copied to be reloaded

HTTP response message

status line (protocol
status code status phrase)

```
HTTP/1.1 200 OK
```

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

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!

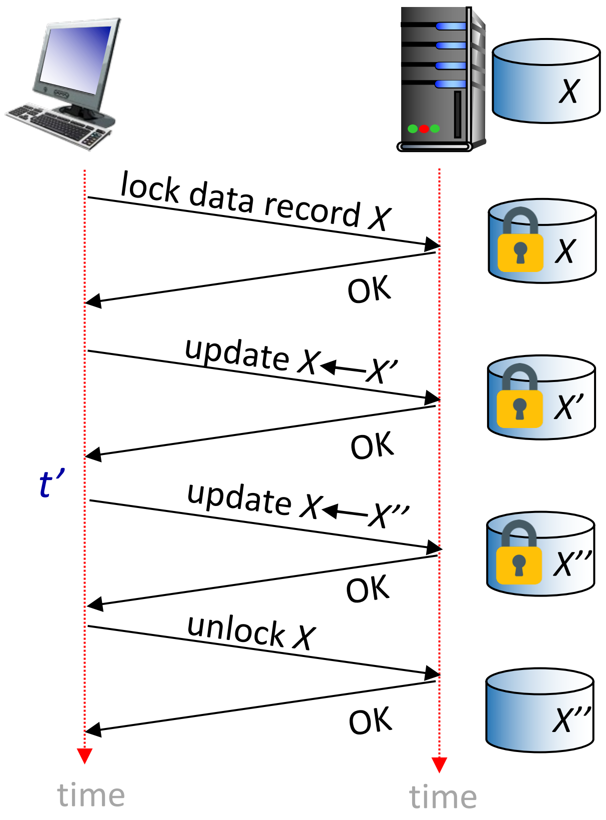
(or use Wireshark to look at captured HTTP request/response)

Maintaining user/server state: cookies

Recall: HTTP GET/response interaction is *stateless*

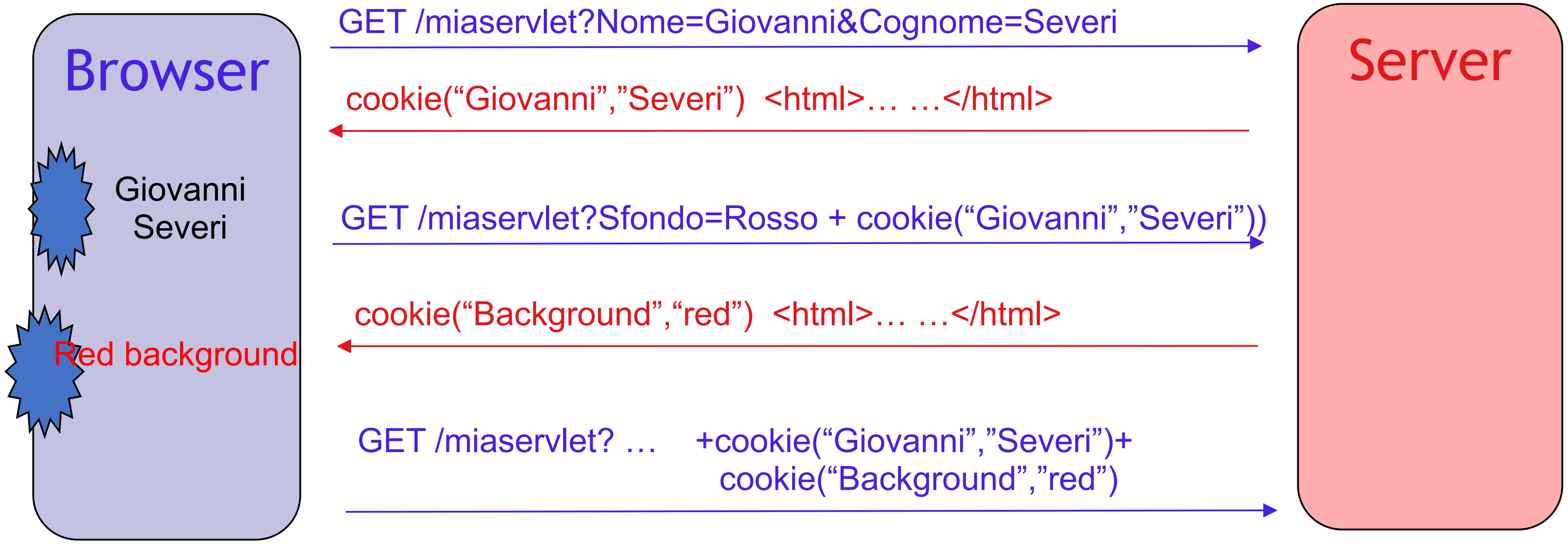
- no notion of multi-step exchanges of HTTP messages to complete a Web "transaction"
  - no need for client/server to track "state" of multi-step exchange
  - all HTTP requests are independent of each other
  - no need for client/server to "recover" from a partially-completed-but-never-completely-completed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

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



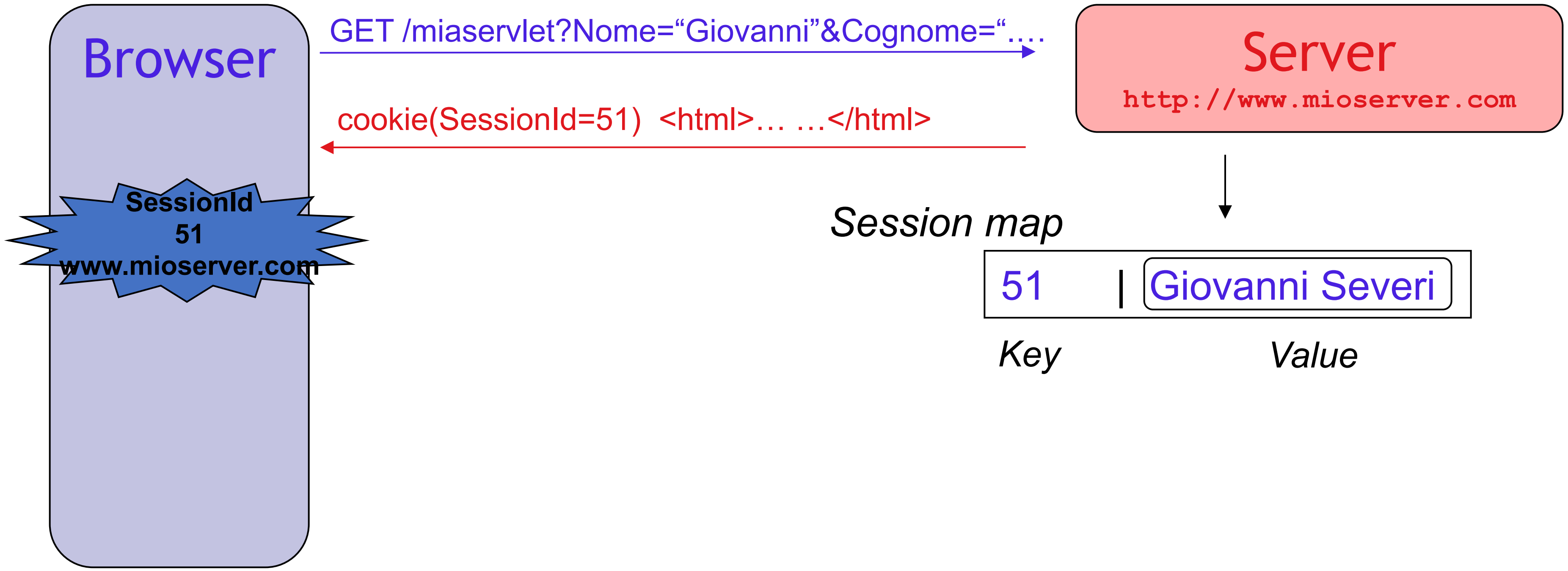
Q: what happens if network connection or client crashes at *t'* ?

Session management with cookies

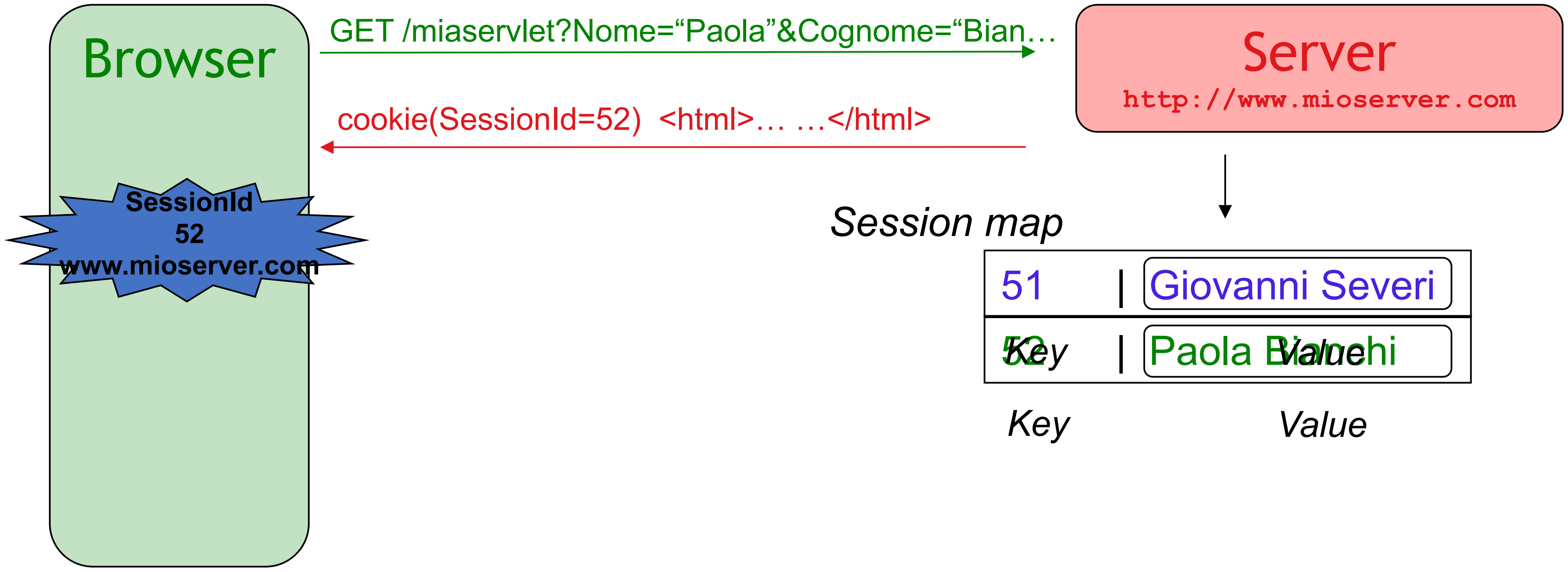


…or even better…

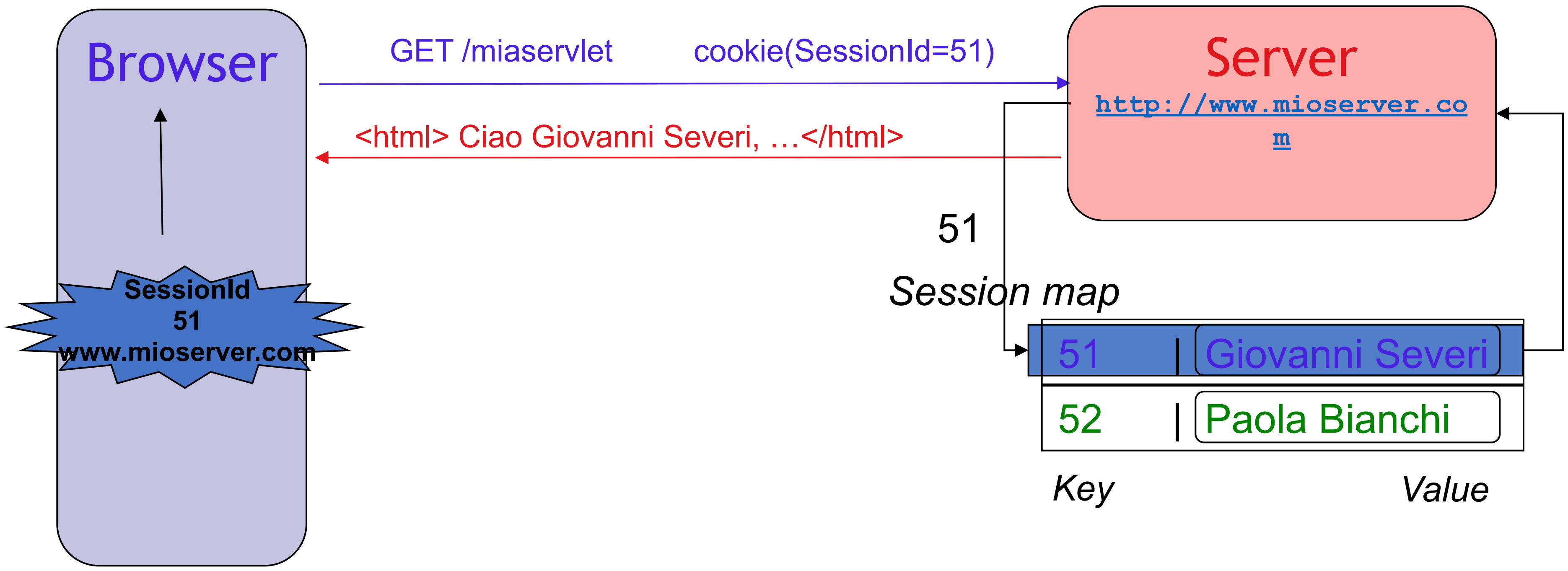
Session management with (1/3) persistent objects located on the server side



Session management with (2/3) persistent objects located on the server side



Session management with (3/3)
persistent objects located on the server side



Maintaining user/server state: cookies

Maintaining user/server state: cookies

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

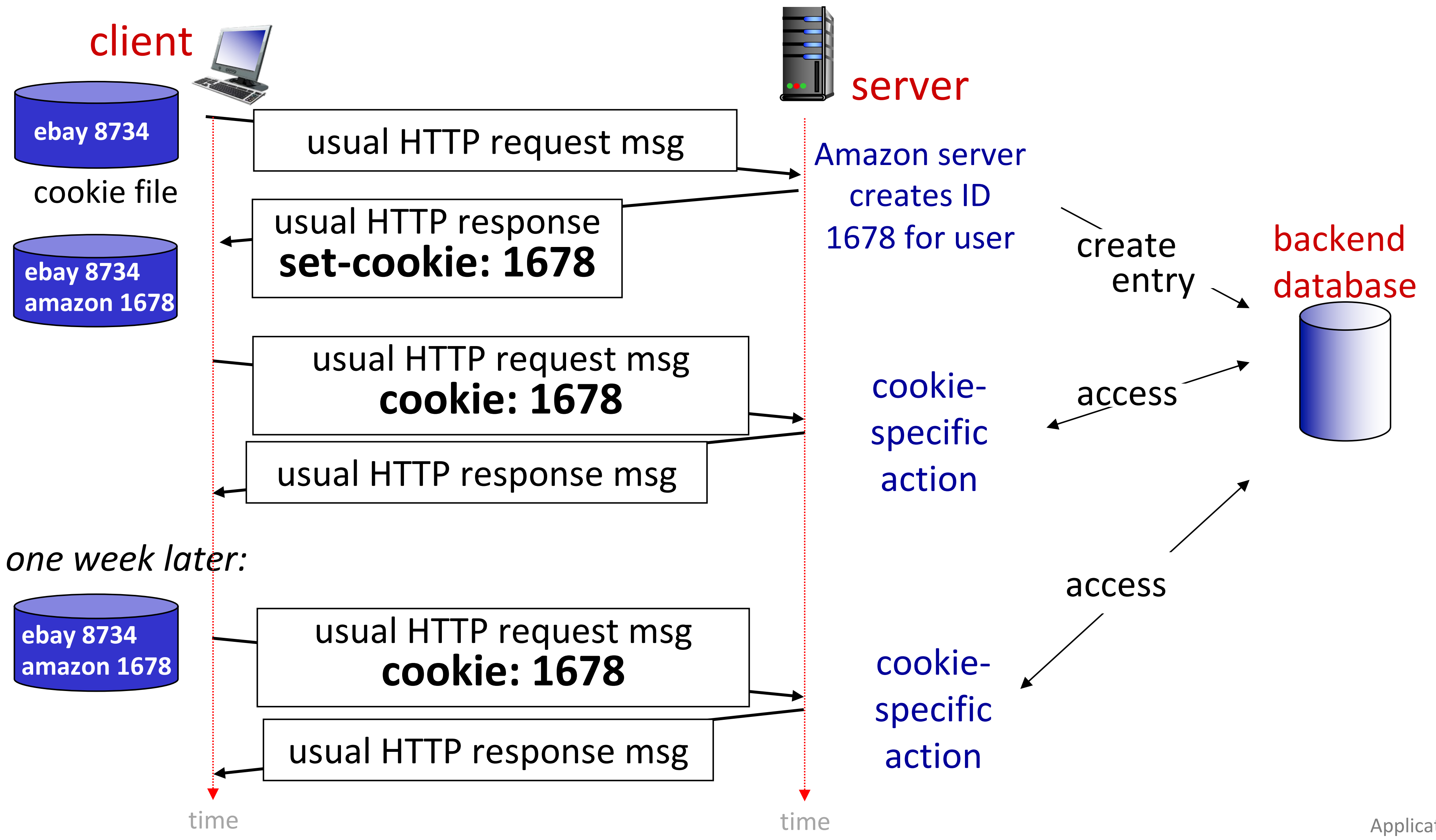
four components:

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?

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

aside

cookies and privacy:

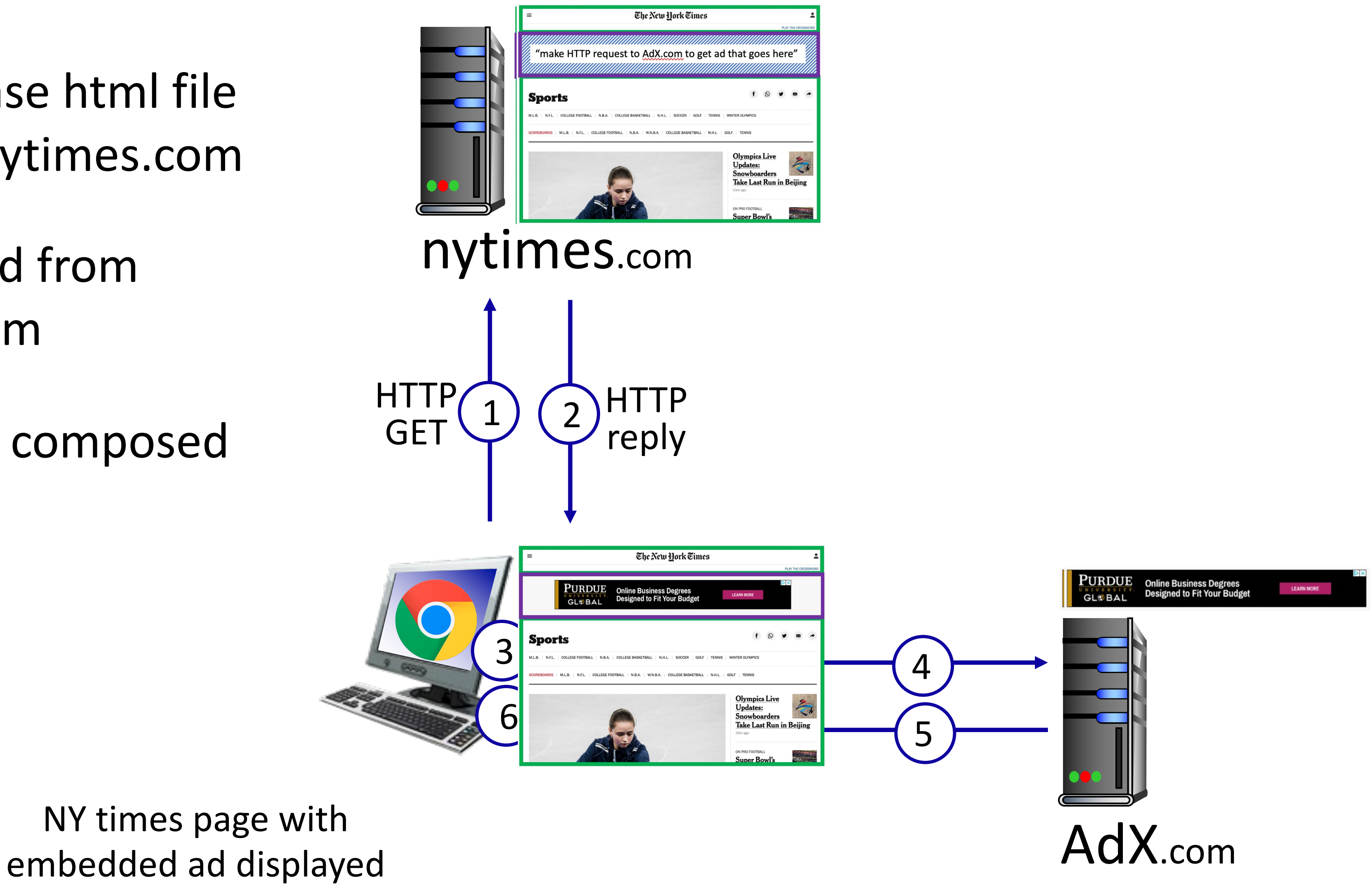
- cookies permit sites to *learn* a lot about you on their site.
- third party persistent cookies (tracking cookies) allow common identity (cookie value) to be tracked across multiple web sites

Example: displaying a NY Times web page

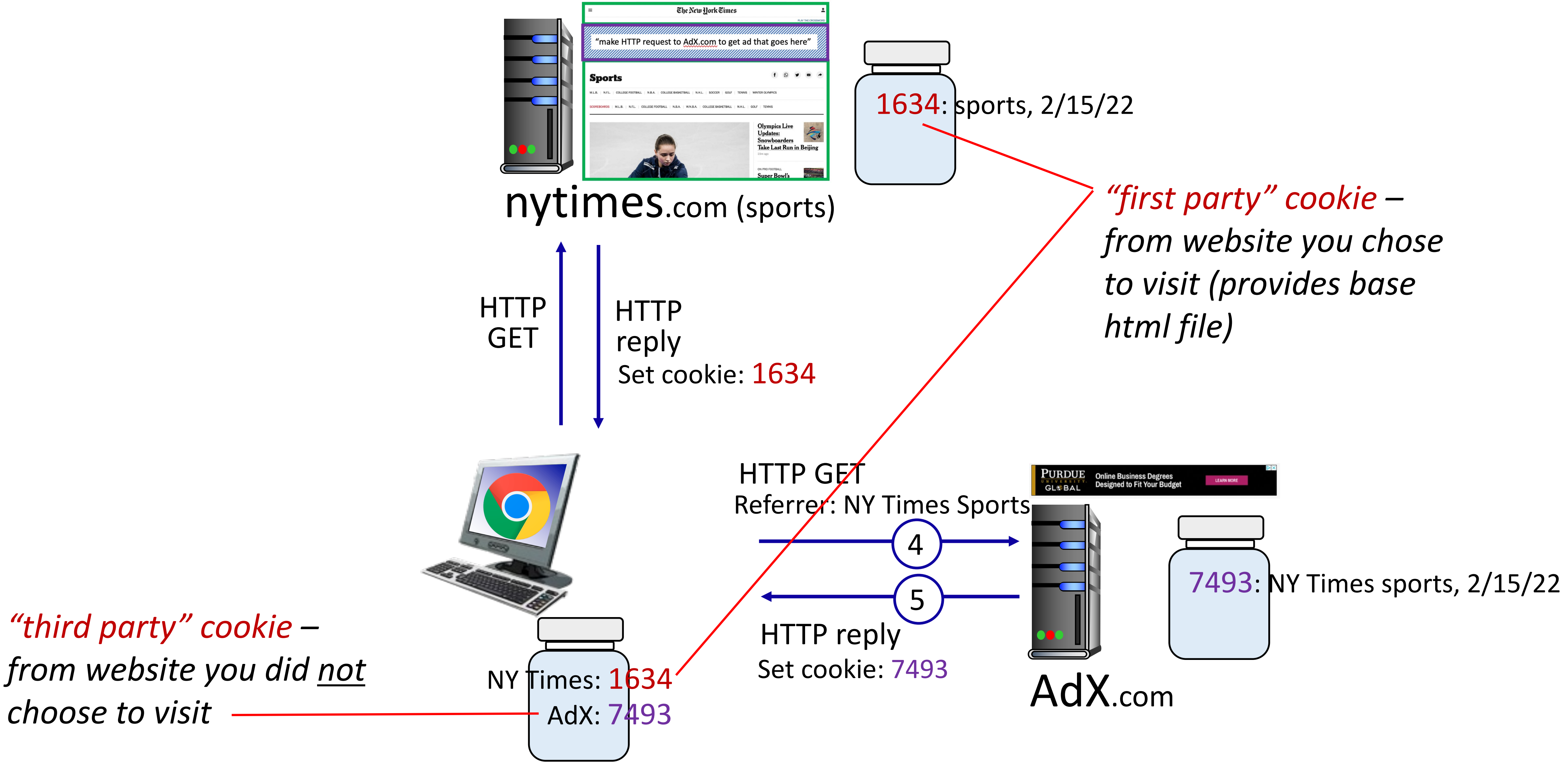
1 2 GET base html file from nytimes.com

4 5 fetch ad from AdX.com

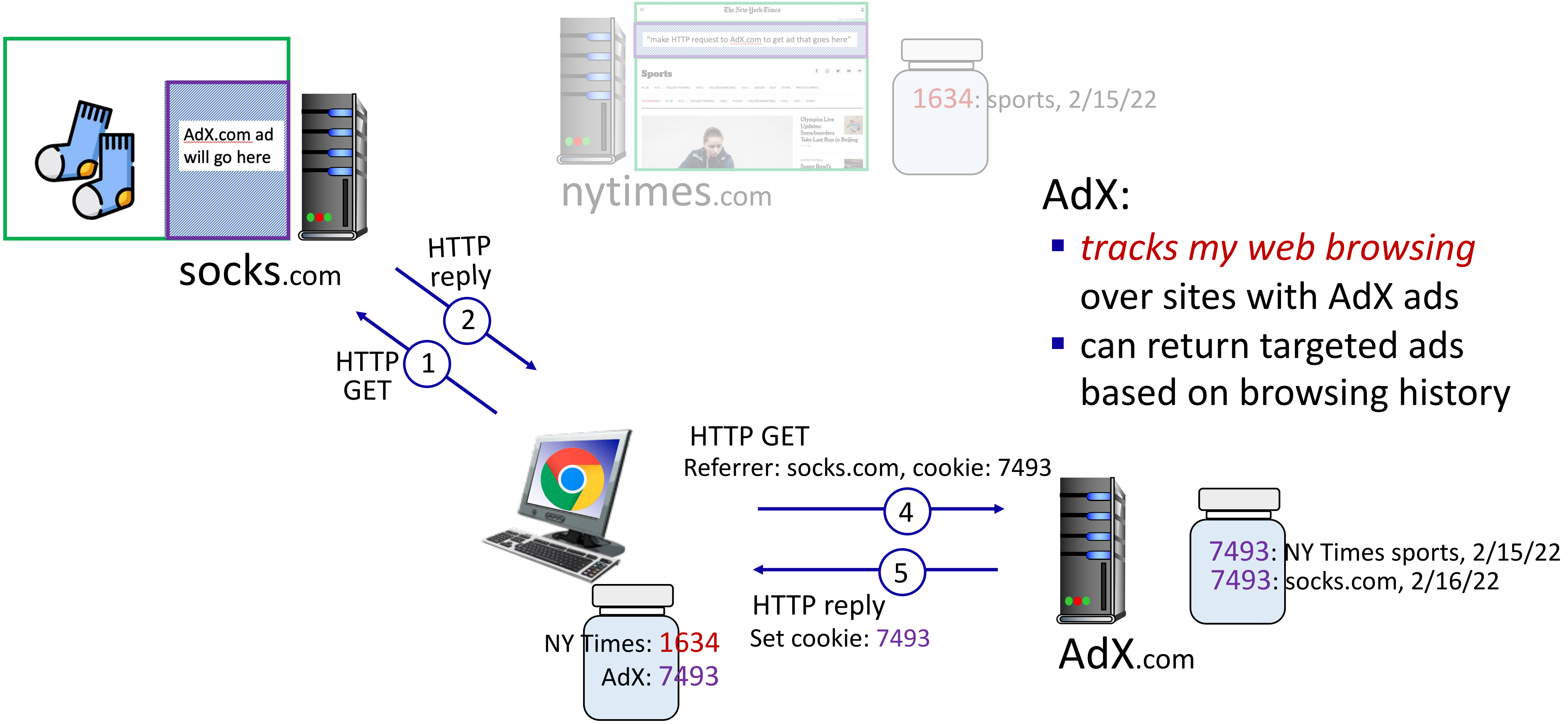
7 display composed page



Cookies: tracking a user's browsing behavior



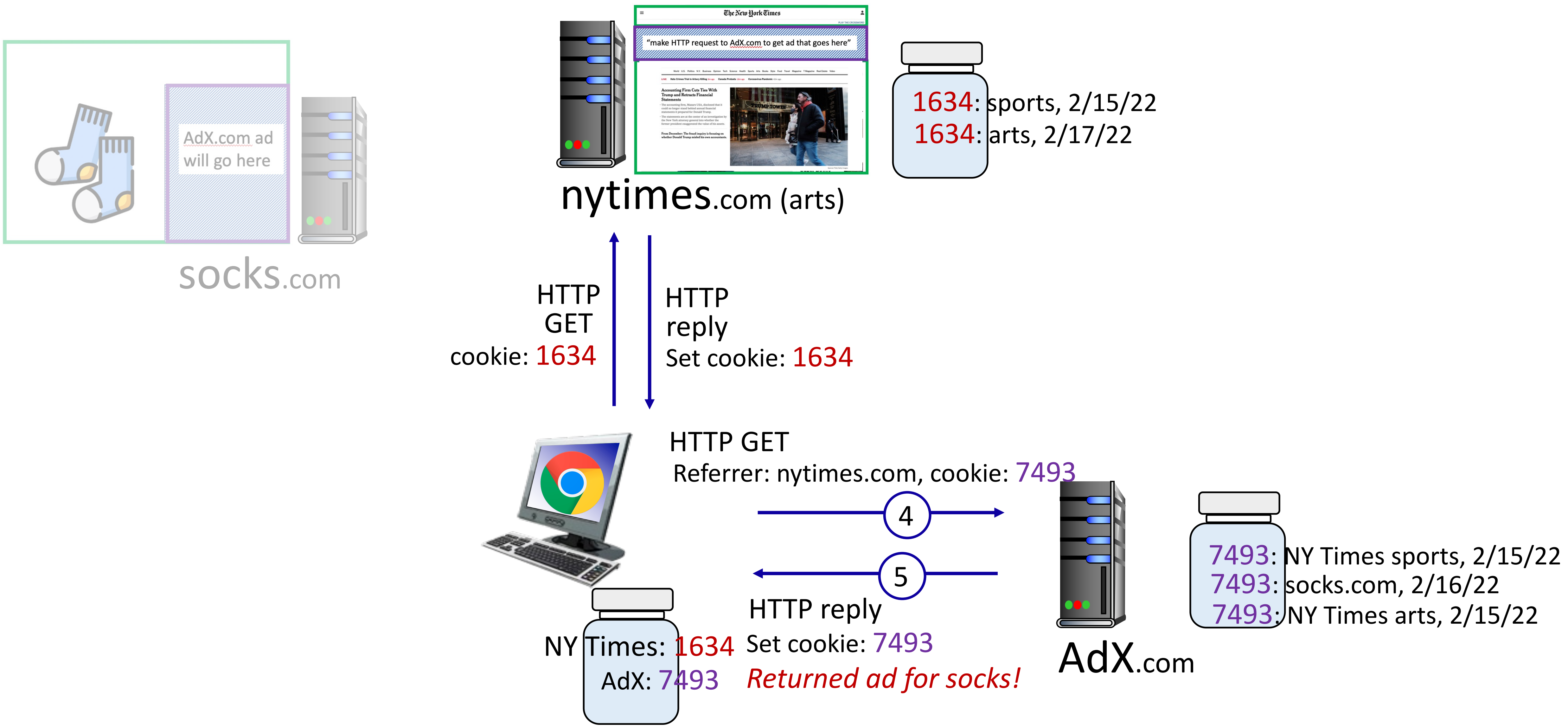
Cookies: tracking a user's browsing behavior



AdX:

- *tracks my web browsing* over sites with AdX ads
- can return targeted ads based on browsing history

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

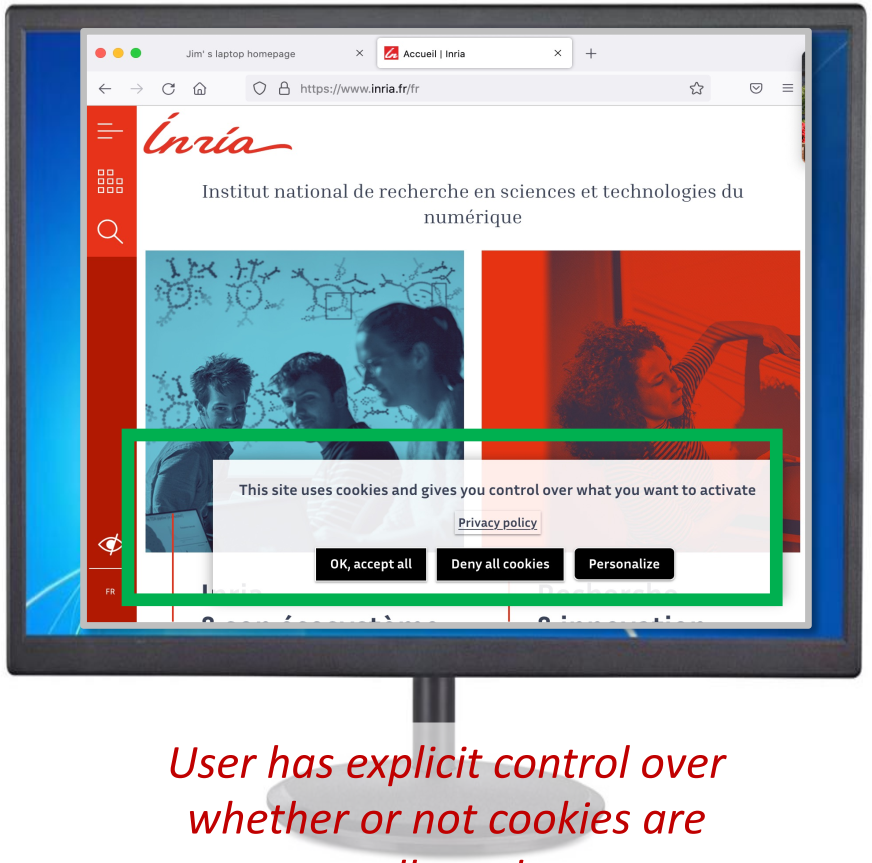
GDPR (EU General Data Protection Regulation) and cookies

"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

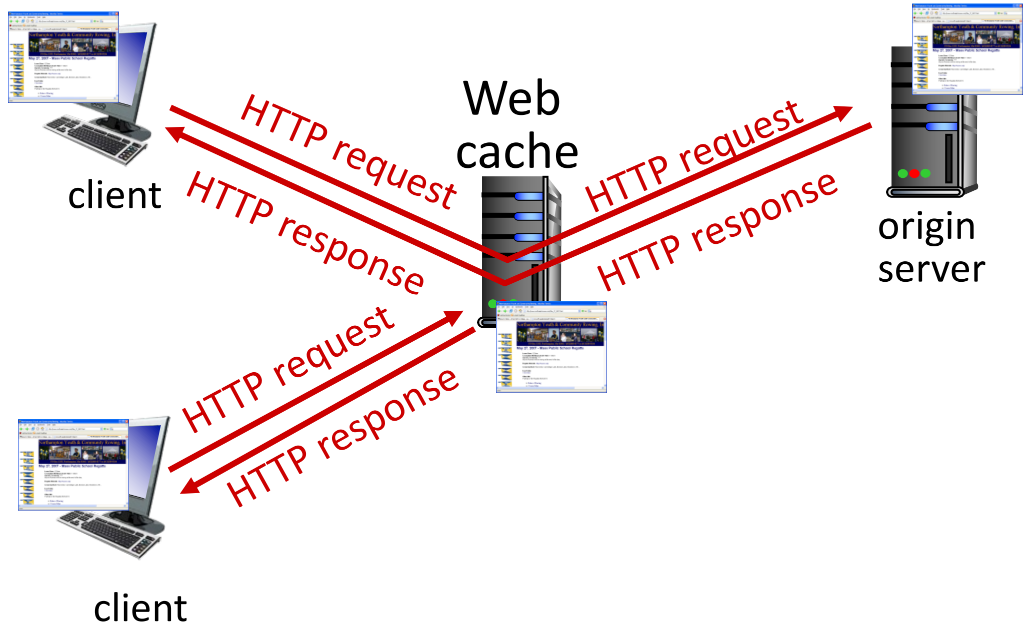


User has explicit control over whether or not cookies are allowed

Web caches

Goal: satisfy client requests without involving origin server

- user configures browser to point to a (local) *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 (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

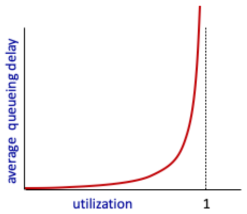
Scenario:

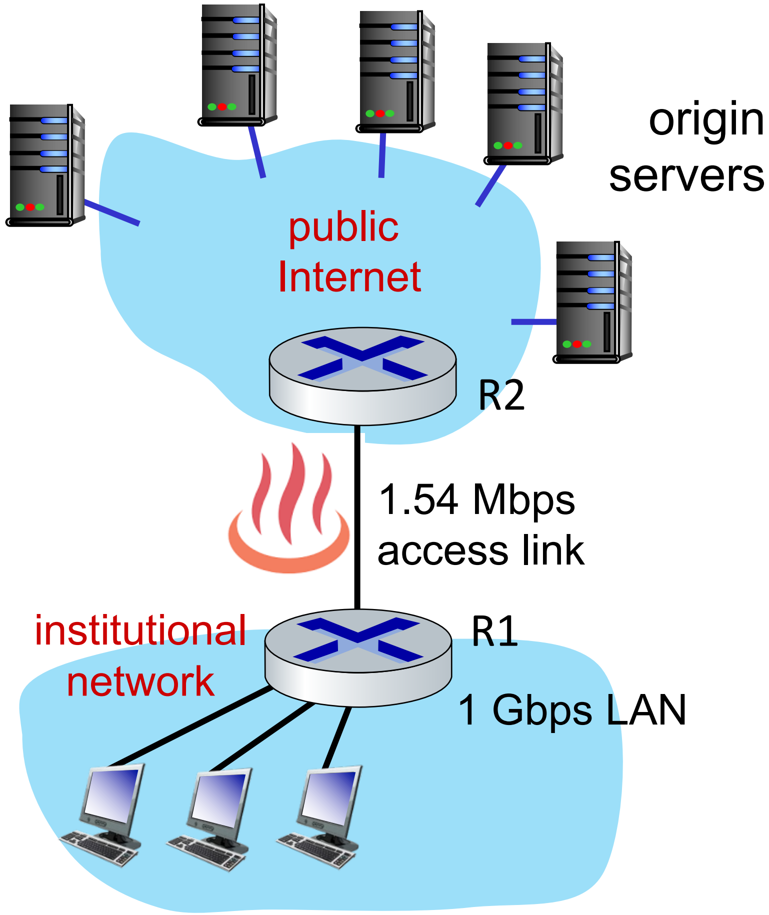
- access link rate: 1.54 Mbps
- RTT from router R2 to server: 2 sec
- web object size: 100K bits
- average request rate from browsers to origin servers: 15/sec
  - avg data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps

Performance:

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

problem: large queueing delays at high utilization!





Option 1: buy a faster access link

Scenario:

154 Mbps

- access link rate: ~~1.54~~ Mbps
- RTT from router R2 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

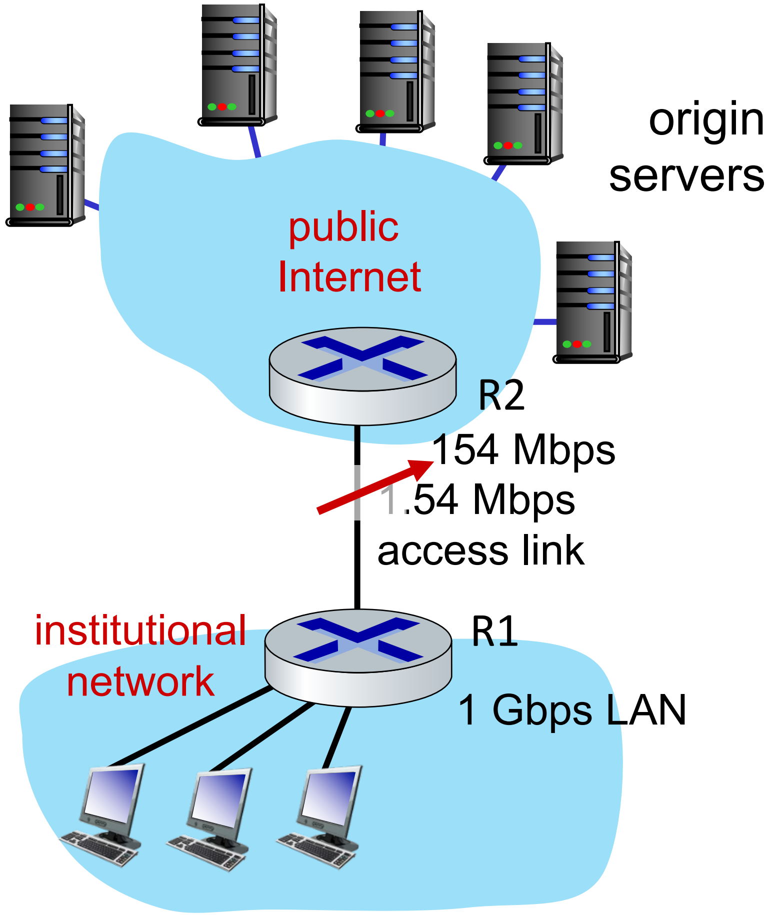
Performance:

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

  = 2 sec + ~~minutes~~ + μ secs

  msecs

Cost: faster access link (expensive!)



Option 2: install a web cache

Scenario:

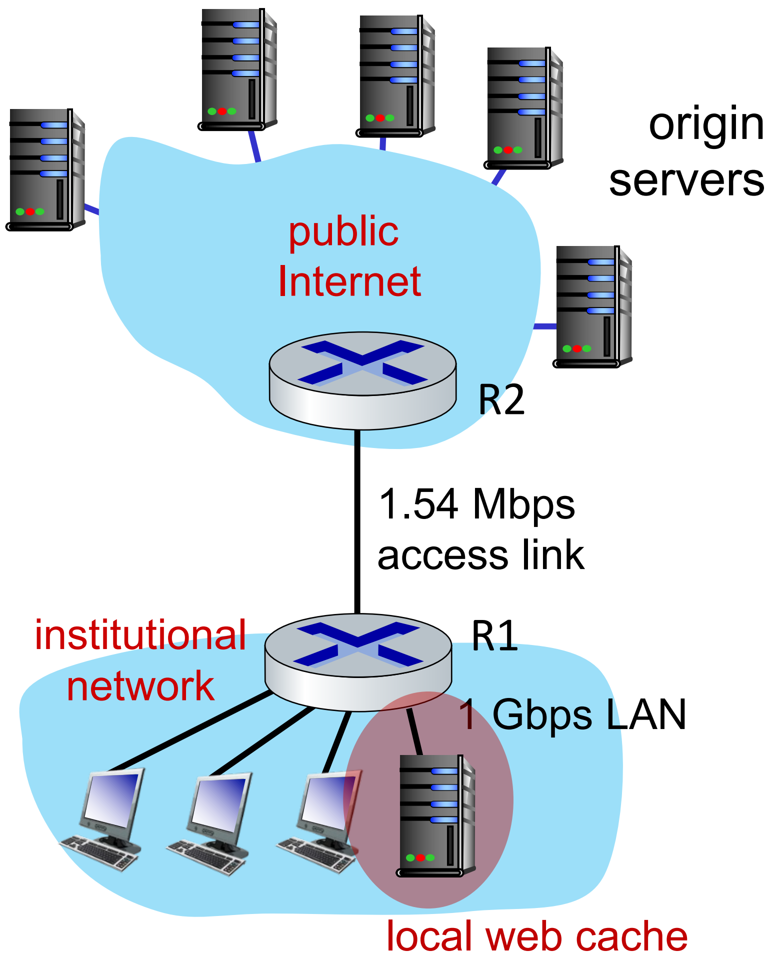
- access link rate: 1.54 Mbps
- RTT from router R2 to server: 2 sec
- web object size: 100K bits
- average request rate from browsers to origin servers: 15/sec
  - avg data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps

Cost: web cache (cheap!)

Performance:

- LAN utilization: .?
- access link utilization = ?
- average end-end delay = ?

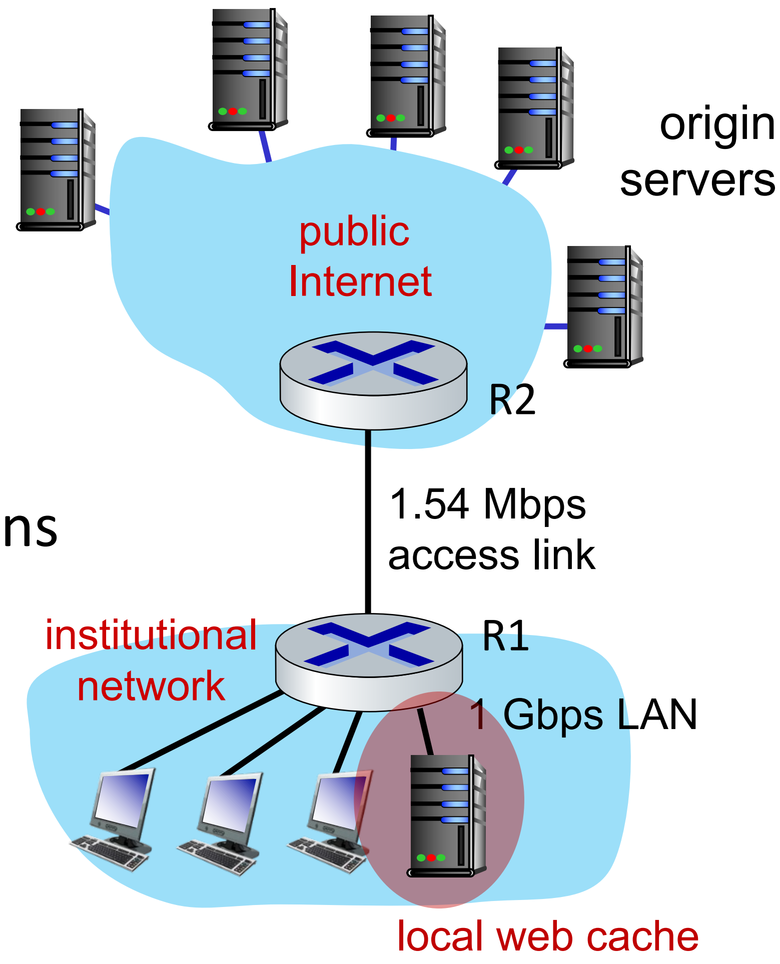
How to compute link utilization, delay?



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 Mbps = .9 Mbps
  - access link utilization = 0.9/1.54 = .58, which means low (~10msec) queueing delay at access link
- 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

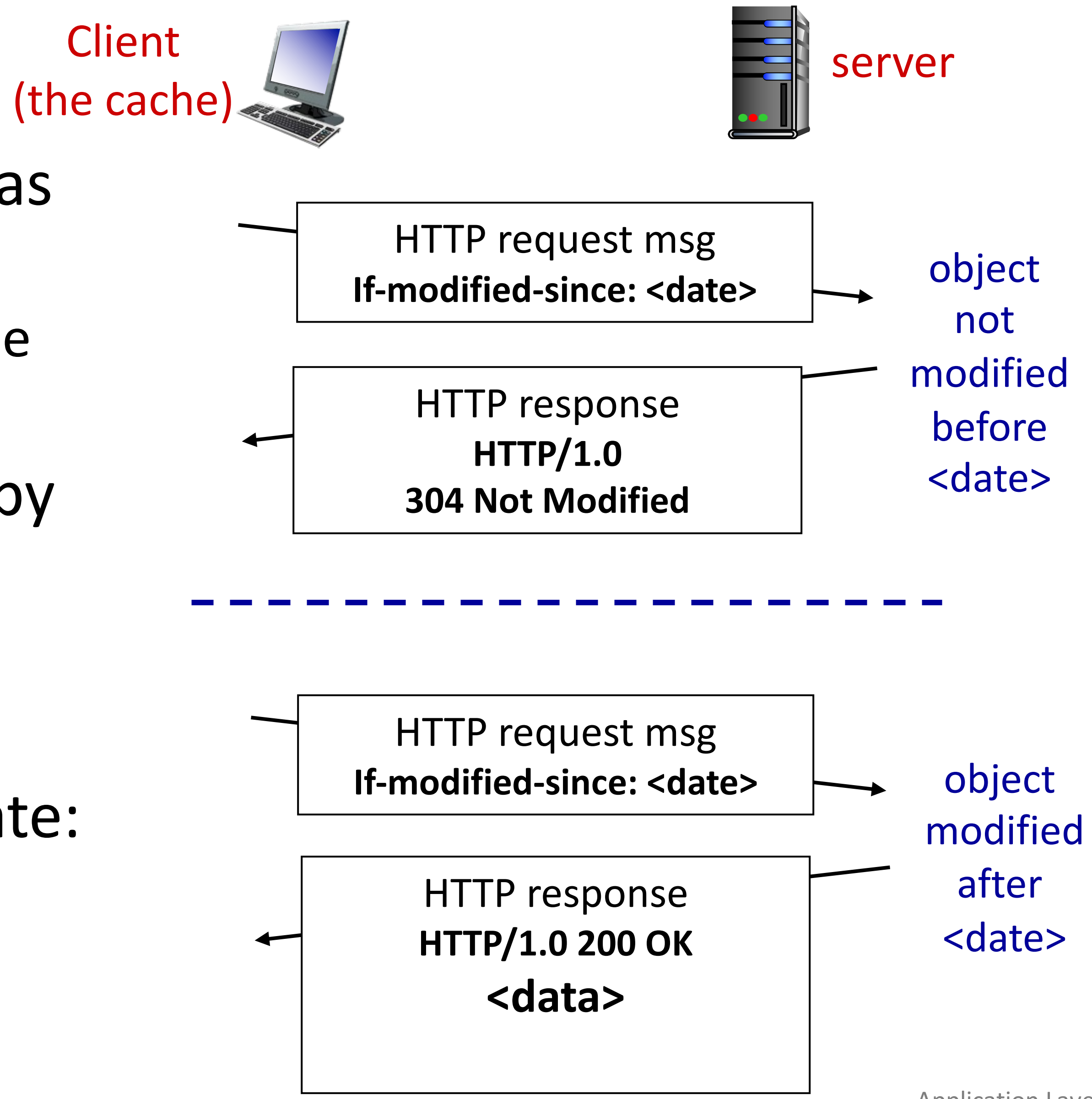
- no object transmission delay (or use of network resources)

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

  If-modified-since: <date>

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

  HTTP/1.0 304 Not Modified



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
- with FCFS, small object may have to wait for transmission (head-of-line (HOL) blocking) behind large object(s)
- loss recovery (retransmitting lost TCP segments) stalls object transmission

HTTP/2

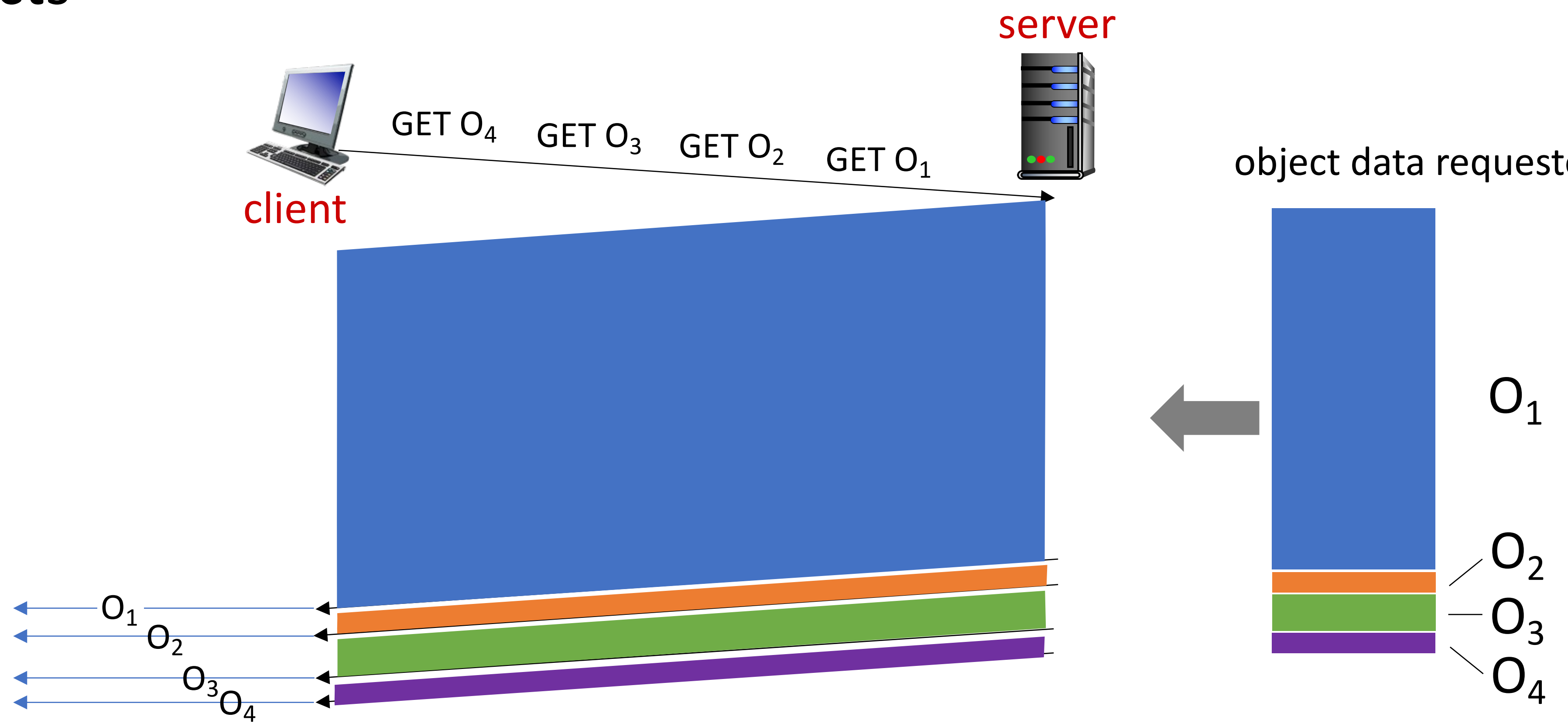
Key goal: decreased delay in multi-object HTTP requests

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

- methods, status codes, most header fields unchanged from HTTP 1.1
- transmission order of requested objects based on client-specified object priority (not necessarily FCFS)
- *push* unrequested (embedded) objects to client
- divide objects into frames, schedule frames to mitigate HOL blocking

HTTP/2: mitigating HOL blocking

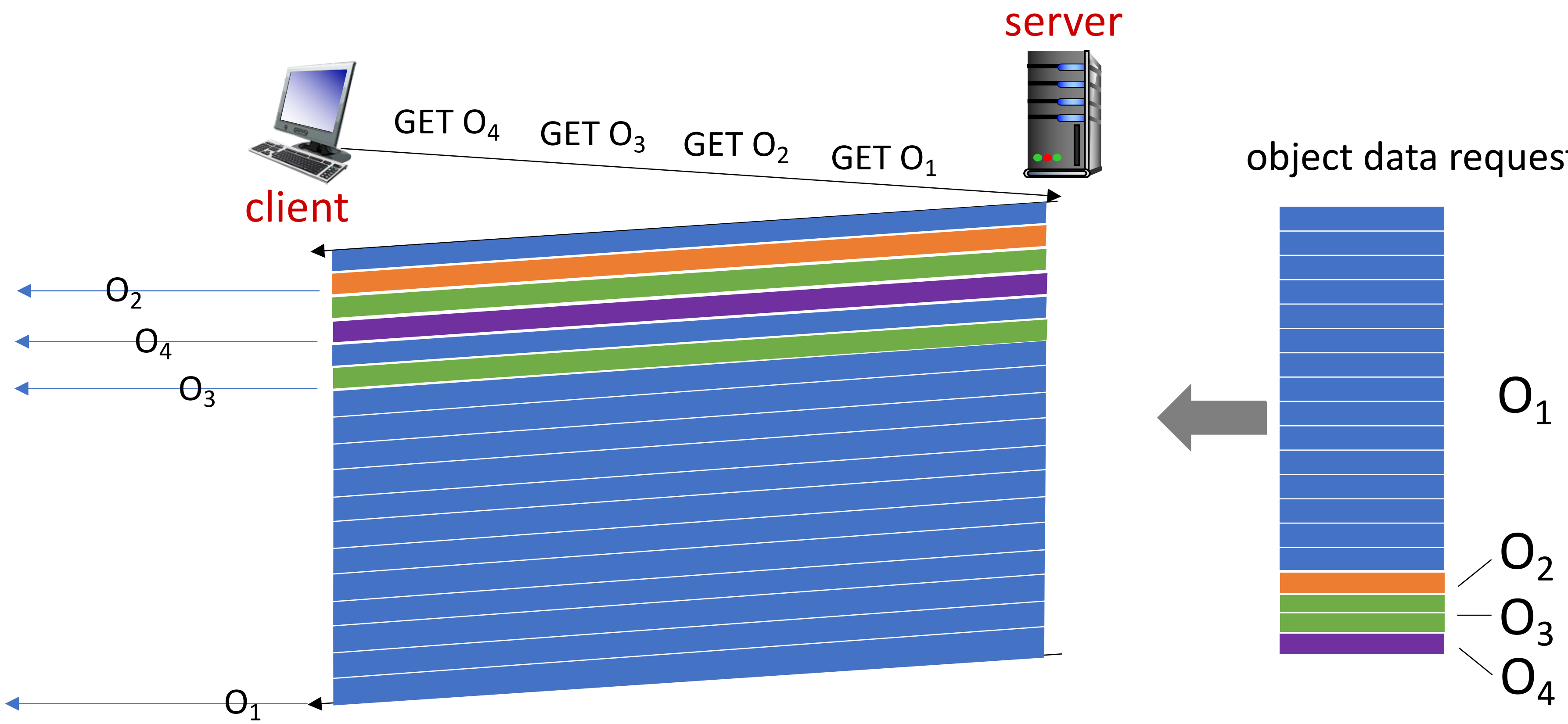
HTTP 1.1: client requests 1 large object (e.g., video file) and 3 smaller objects



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



O_2, O_3, O_4 delivered quickly, O_1 slightly delayed

HTTP/2 to HTTP/3

Pros of HTTP/2:

1) reduces HOL blocking with framing

2) pushes objects without waiting for an explicit request

(no delay for the extra requests)

Cons of HTTP/2:

- The use of a 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

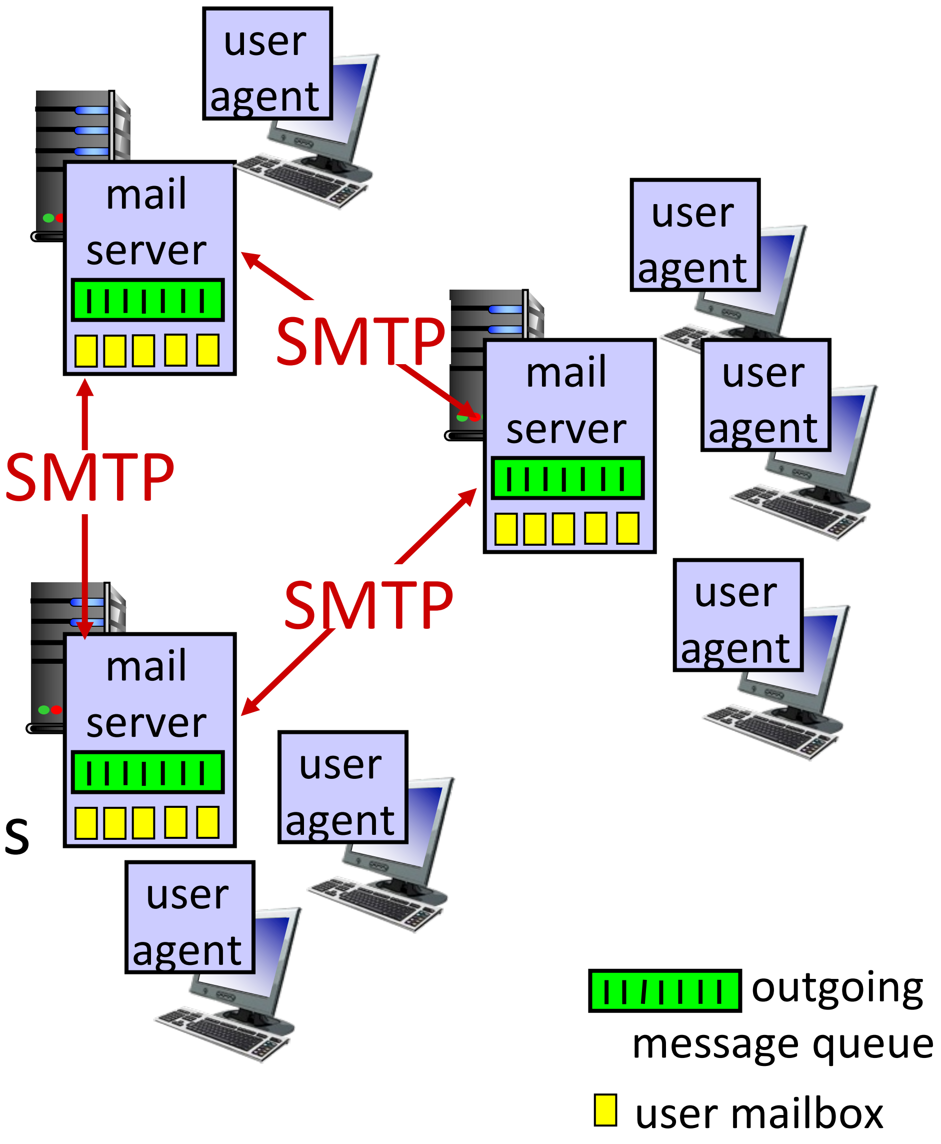
E-mail

Three major components:

- user agents
- 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

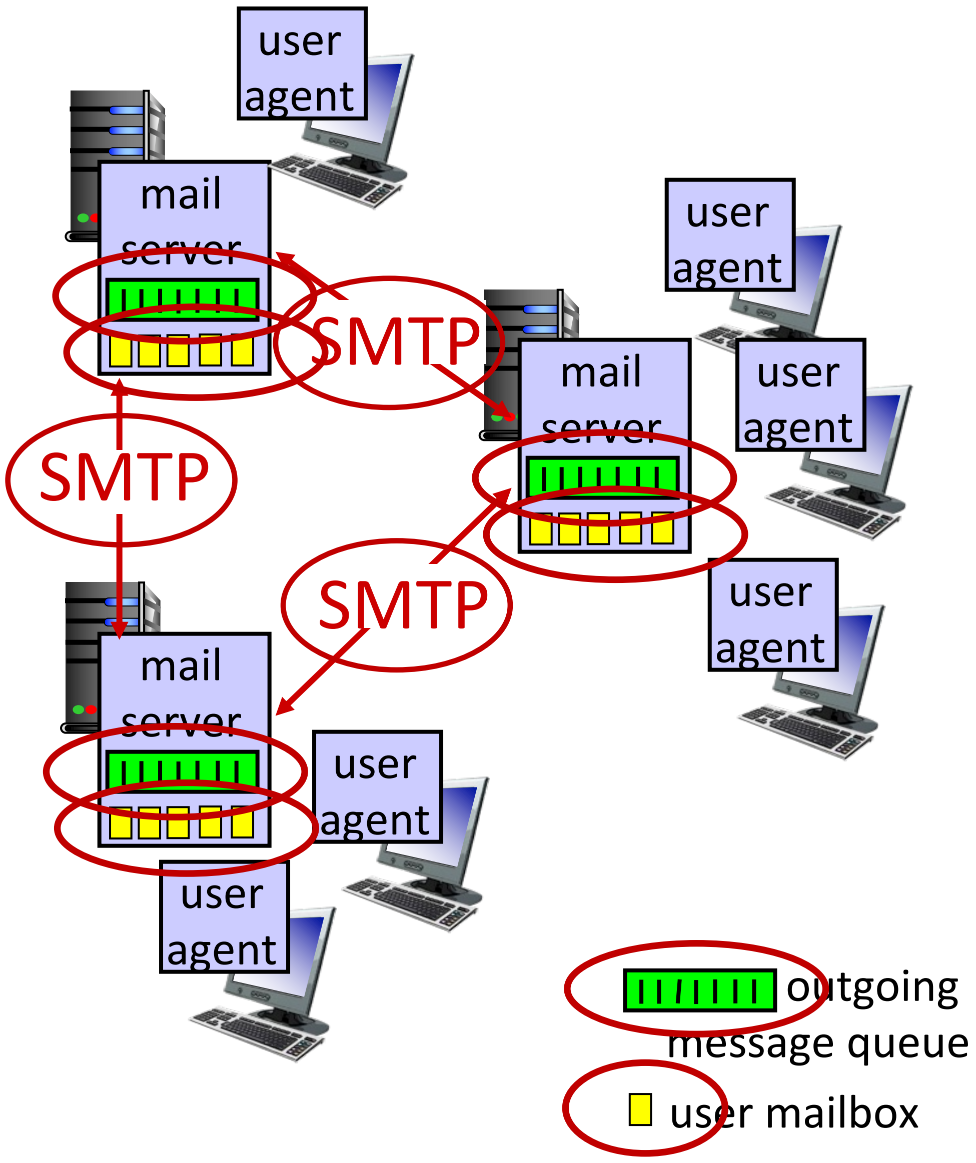
mail servers:

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

SMTP protocol between mail servers to send email messages

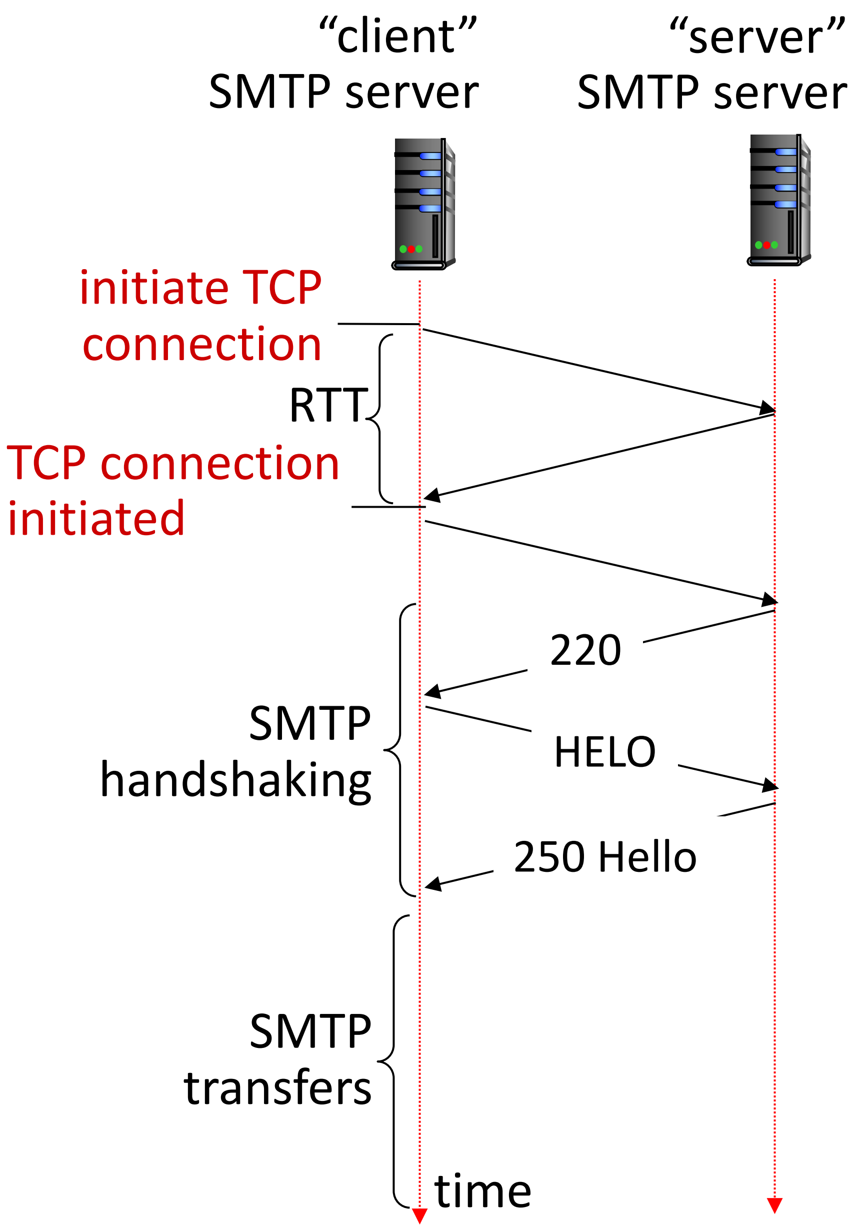
- client: sending mail server
- “server”: receiving mail server

Mail servers run both client and server side of SMTP



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

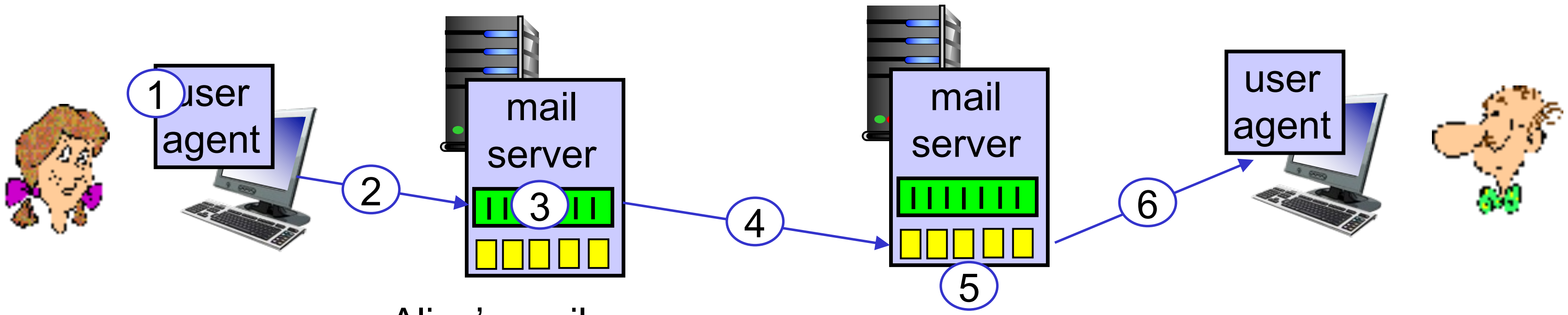
2) Alice’s UA sends message to her mail server using SMTP; message placed in message queue

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

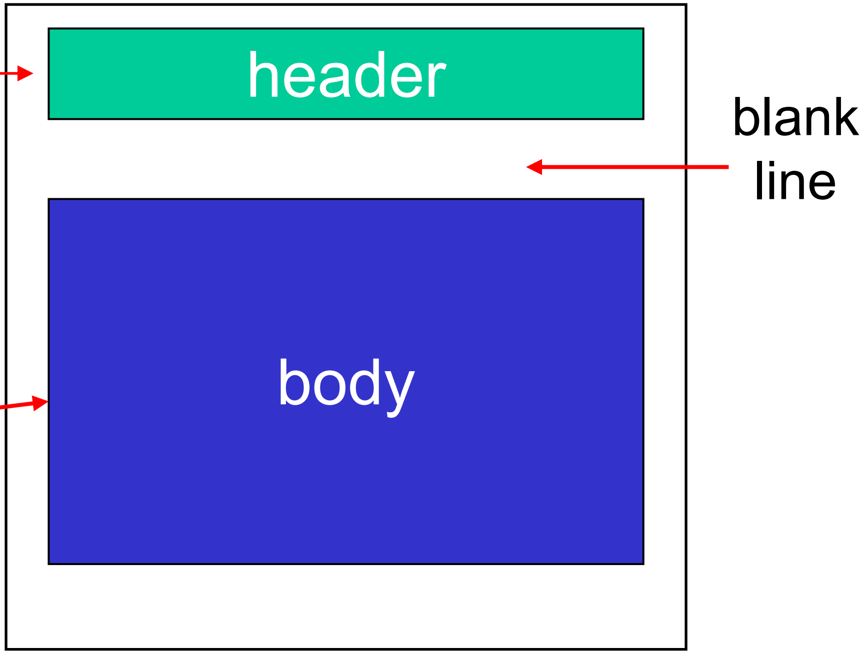
Mail message format

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

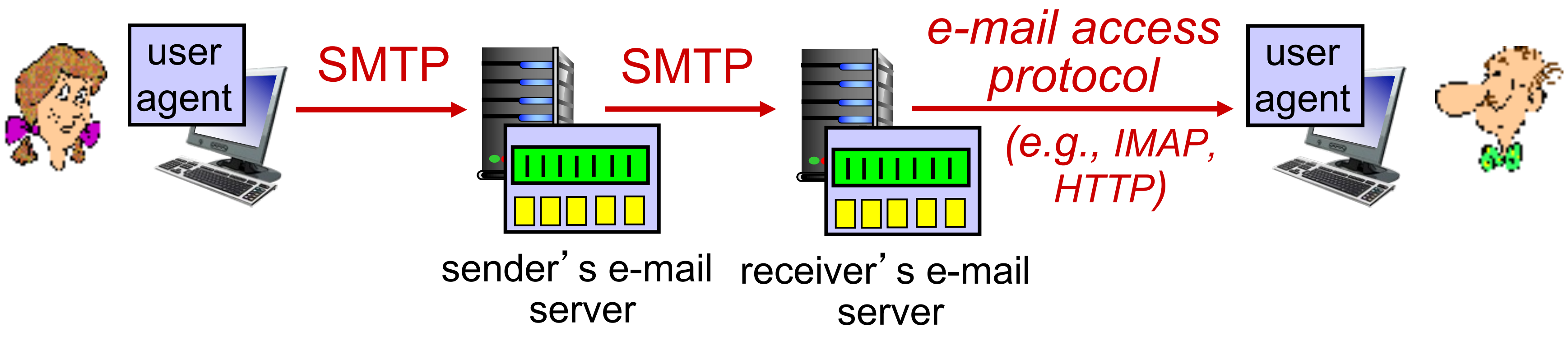
RFC 2822 defines *syntax* for e-mail message itself (like HTML defines syntax for web documents)

- 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
- HTTP: gmail, Hotmail, Yahoo!Mail, etc. provides web-based interface on top of STMP (to send), IMAP (or POP) to retrieve e-mail messages

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IP address

- Composed of 4 bytes
  - Corresponds to a string made up of 4 integers between 0 and 255, separated by a dot.
- It has a hierarchical structure
  - By reading it from right to left we obtain more specific information on the host location (host network -> host identity)
- Example
  - 121.34.230.94

Question: How do we retrieve a host IP address?

DNS: Domain Name System

DNS: Domain Name System

people: many identifiers:

- SSN, name, passport #

Internet hosts, routers:

- IP address (32 bit) - used for addressing datagrams
- "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 *name servers*
- *application-layer protocol:* hosts, DNS servers communicate to *resolve* names (address/name translation)
  - *note:* core Internet function, implemented as application-layer protocol
  - complexity at network's "edge"

DNS services: host name resolution

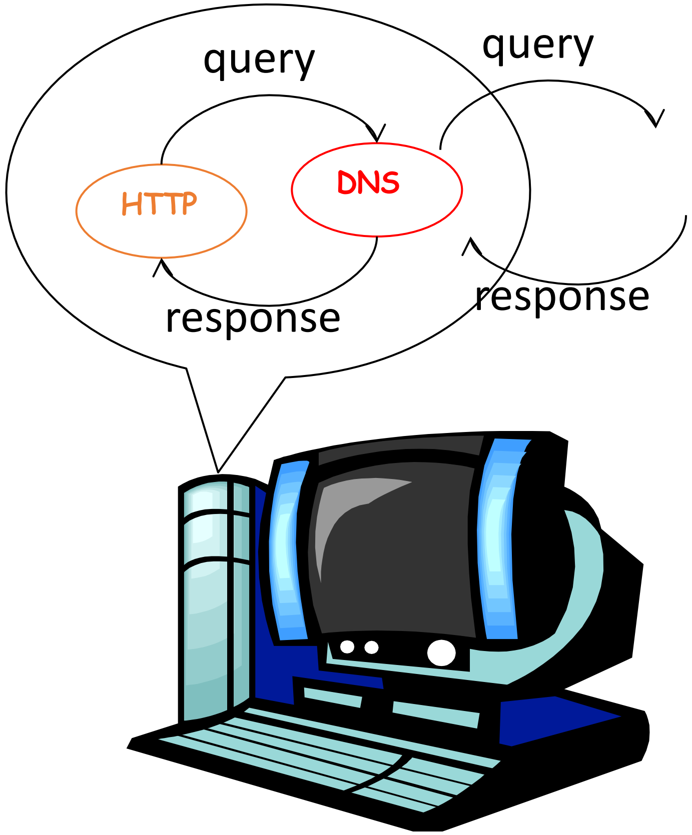
Domain Name System (RFC 1034, 1035):

- *Distributed database* implemented through a hierarchy of *DNS servers*
- *Application layer protocol* that allows hosts to query the distributed database to obtain a name *resolution (i.e. translation) into an IP address*
- The DNS is utilized by other application layer protocols (HTTP, SMTP, FTP) to obtain the IP address corresponding to given hostnames
- It utilizes the UDP transport protocol, and requests through port 53

HTTP and DNS – example of interaction

A browser (HTTP client) residing on a user host requires the URL `www.someschool.edu`

1. The host executes the client side of the DNS application (called **resolver**)
2. The browser extracts the host name from the URL, `www.someschool.edu`, and gives it to the DNS client
3. The DNS client sends a query to the DNS server, containing the host name to be translated
4. The DNS client receives a response containing the IP address corresponding to the requested hostname
5. Once obtained the IP address from the DNS, the browser initiates the TPC connection with the HTTP server located on the host pointed by the obtained IP address



DNS: is it an application?

- It is an application layer protocol
  - It is executed by end systems using a client-server paradigm
  - It utilizes an end-to-end transport protocol (UDP) to transfer messages between the end systems (DNS client and server)
- Not an application in the common sense, as users (with the exception of network administrator) do not directly interact with DNS servers
- It provides a fundamental functionality for all the internet applications to work properly
- It reflects the philosophy of pushing the complexity towards the edge of the network
- In order to work in the internet, every host is configured with at least one DSN address

DNS services: aliasing

- It allows the definition of simpler names replacing complex ones
- **Host aliasing**: a host may have different «nicknames» (alias)
  - For instance: `relay1.west-coast.enterprise.com` may have two nicknames, namely `enterprise.com` and `www.enterprise.com`
  - `relay1.west-coast.enterprise.com` is a **canonical** hostname
  - `enterprise.com e www.enterprise.com` are ***aliases***
  - Alias names are easier to be recalled
  - The DNS can be queried by an application to obtain tha canonical hostname as well as the IP address
- Mail server aliasing: mail servers and web servers of the same company often have the same alias, but different canonical names, as mail servers have a specific resolution service from the DNS

DNS services: load distribution

- The DNS service may be used to distribute the load among replicated servers (e.g., web servers)
- Sites with a high load of requests (e.g. cnn.com) are often replicated over multiple servers, each residing on a different host, and endowed with a different IP address
- The same canonical name of a host is associated to a set of IP addresses
- The DNS is configured to translate a hostname to a set of addresses at a time
- When a client sends a DNS request, the name is mapped to the set, and the server responds with a list whose order is varied at each new client request
- The rotation of DNS responses aims at distributing traffic among the server replicas

- PROBLEMS with address caching!

DNS hierarchy

- No DNS has the entire Internet mapping
- The whole mapping is hosted on many DNS servers
- DNS servers are organized in a three level hierarchy:
  - **Root**
  - **Top-level domain (TLD)**
  - **Authoritative**
- In addition to these, we have **local DNS servers** with which the applications interact directly and which host DNS caches.

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

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, each simple

handles many *trillions* of queries/day:

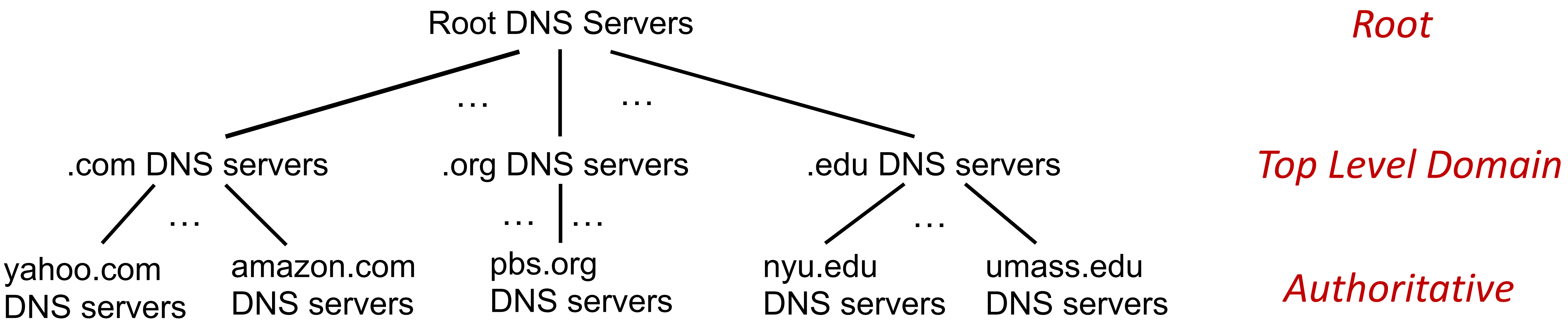
- *many* more reads than writes
- *performance matters:* almost every Internet transaction interacts with DNS - msecs count!

organizationally, physically decentralized:

- millions of different organizations responsible for their records

“bulletproof”: reliability, security

DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database

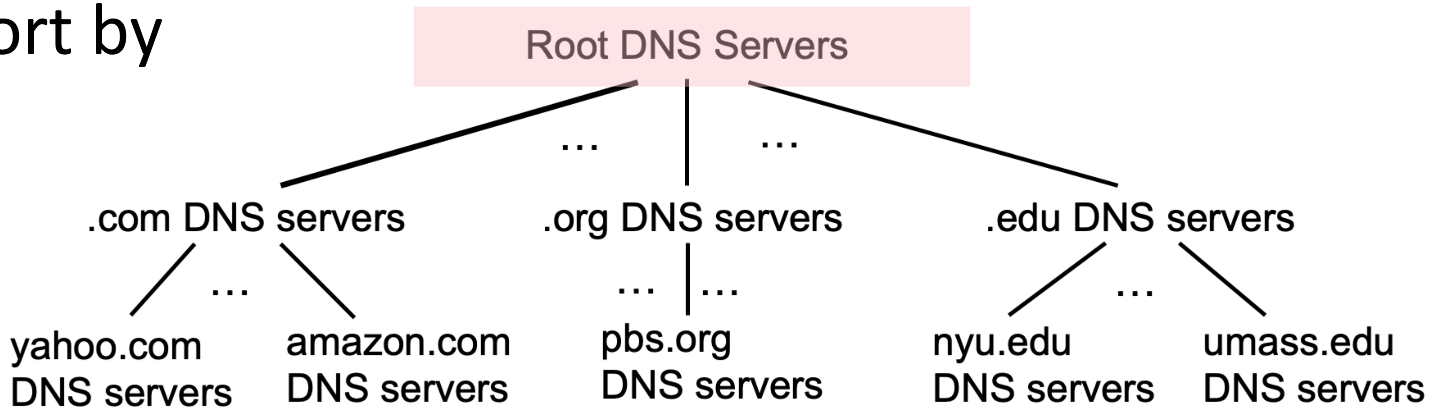


Client wants IP address for www.amazon.com; 1st approximation:

- 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

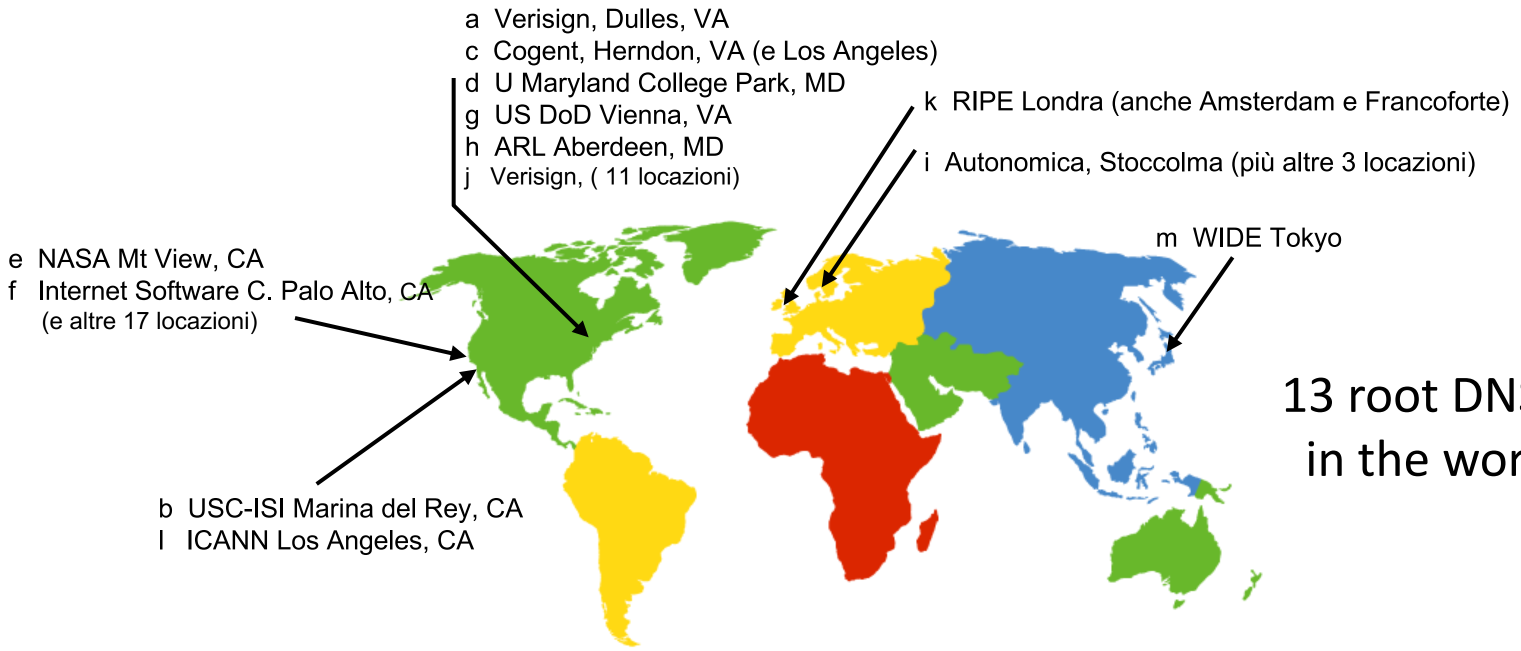
DNS: root name servers

- official, contact-of-last-resort by name servers that can not resolve name



DNS: root servers

- There are 13 DSN root servers
- Each is replicated multiple times for the sake of security and reliability (in total we have 247 root servers)
- Root servers receive requests from local DNS servers
- A root DNS server:
  - Queries a DNS TLD if it does not know how to map an address
  - Obtains the required mapping
  - Sends the obtained mapping to the local DNS

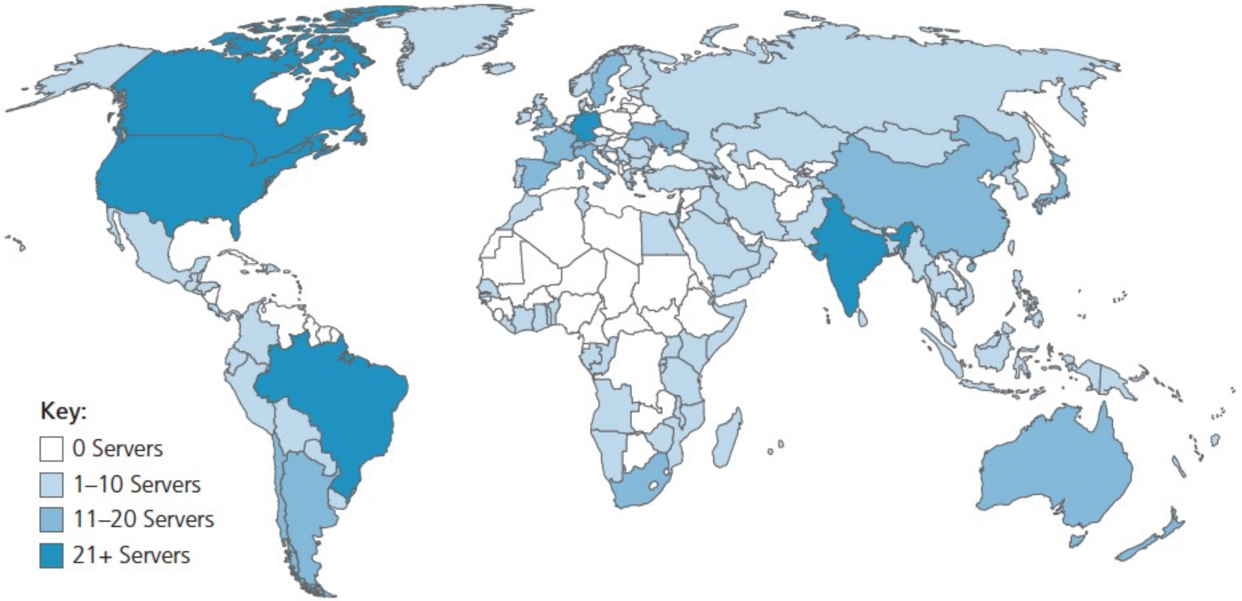


13 root DNS servers in the world

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

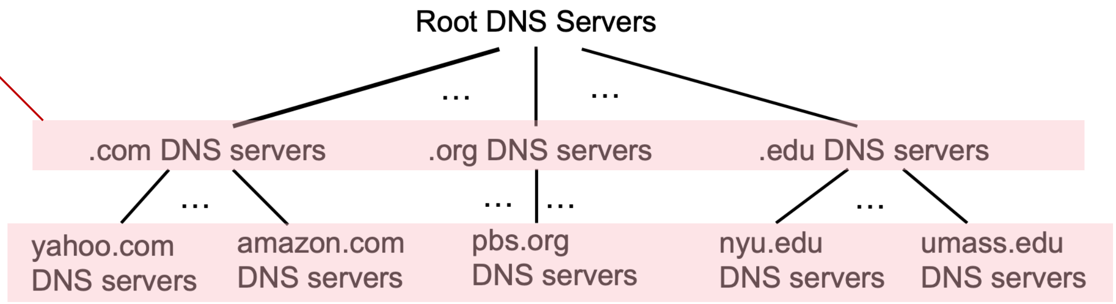
13 logical root name "servers" worldwide each "server" replicated many times (~200 servers in US)



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, .it
- 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

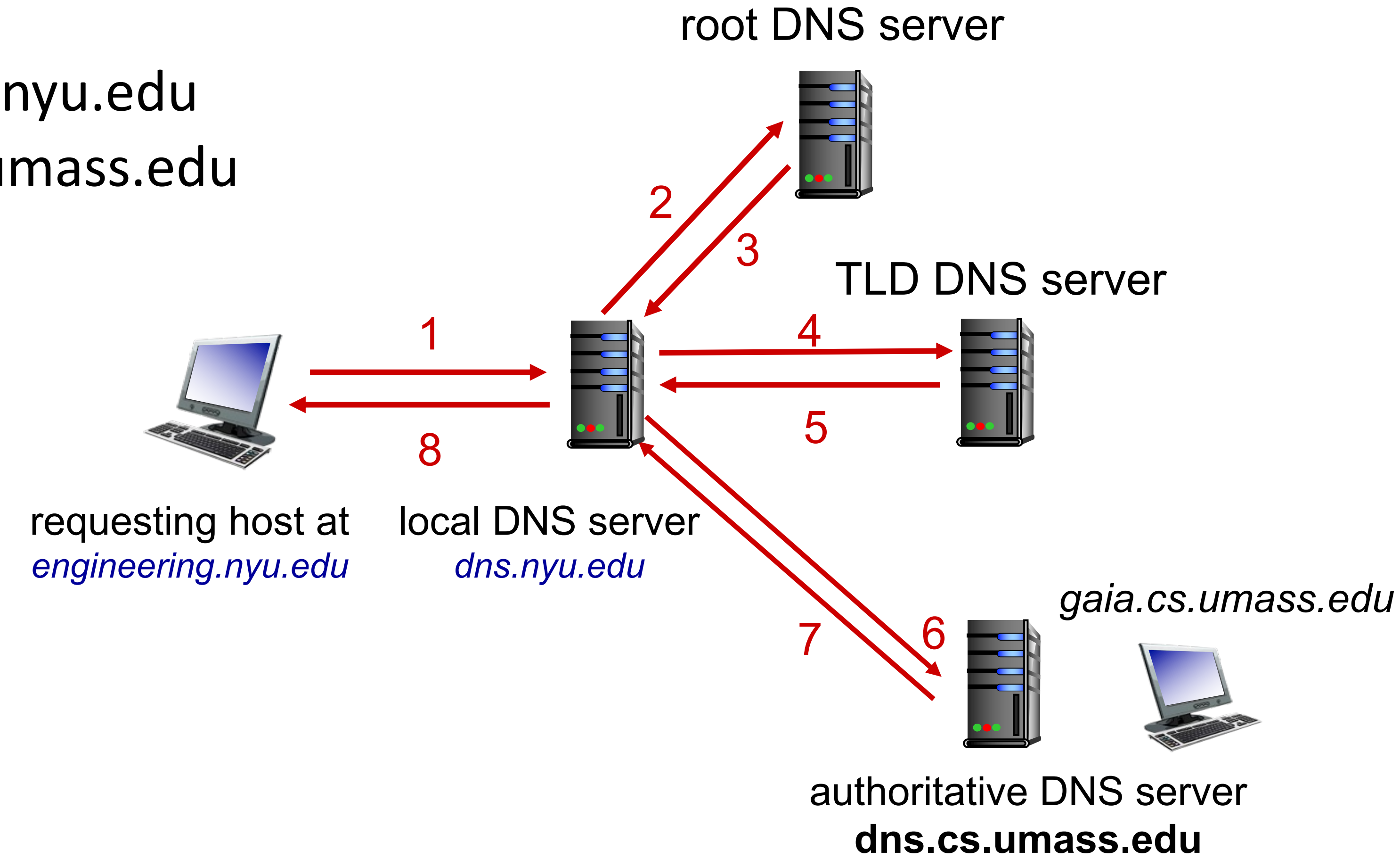
Local DNS name servers

- when host makes DNS query, it is sent to its *local* DNS server
  - Local DNS server returns reply, answering:
    - 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`
- local DNS server doesn't strictly belong to 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"

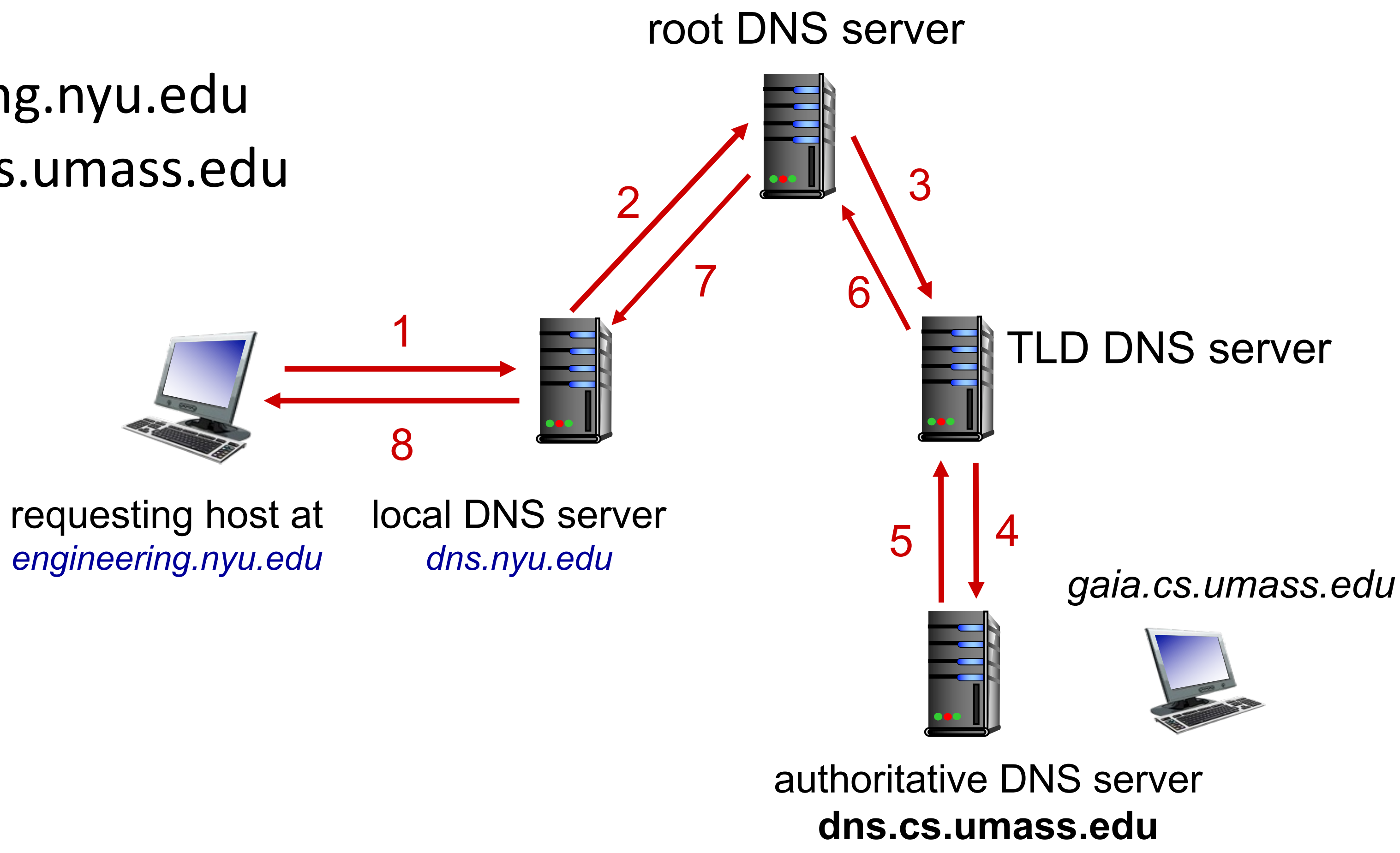


DNS name resolution: recursive query

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 DNS Information

- once (any) name server learns mapping, it *caches* mapping, and i*mmediately* 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! Also DNS caches may not honor the TTL requirement!
  - *best-effort name-to-address translation!*

THE CACHE SERVER flags its response as NON AUTHORITATIVE

DNS load distribution

Remember what we previously discussed…

DNS services: load distribution

- The DNS service may be used to distribute the load among replicated servers (e.g., web servers)
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- PROBLEMS with address caching!

DNS load distribution

With caching, the name resolution is much faster but NOT FULLY CONTROLLABLE
it is measured that
less than 5% of DNS requests reaches the authoritative server!

NEED for a TTL field in a DNS resolution:
once elapsed, the cache entry should be deleted and
new requests should generate a cache miss

->

unfortunately not always honored by local DNS servers

A problem for CDNs, which is why they resort to alternative mechanisms such as URL rewriting

What is stored in a DNS database?

DNS records

DNS: distributed database storing resource records (RR)

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

DNS record

DNS: distributed database storing resource records (RR)

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

- Type=A

Hostname → IP address

- **`name`** is the host name
- **`value`** is the IP address

Es. (`relay1.bar.foo.com`, 45.37.93.126, A)

DNS record

DNS: distributed database storing resource records (RR)

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

- Type=CNAME

Alias → Canonical Name

- **`name`** is the alias of some canonical name

  `value` is the canonical name

Es. (`foo.com`, `relay1.bar.foo.com`, CNAME)

DNS record

DNS: distributed database storing resource records (RR)

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

- Type=NS

  Domain name → Name Server

  - **`name`** is a domain name (for instance foo.com)
  - **`value`** is the host name of the authoritative DNS server which manages the domain

Es. (`foo.com`, `dns.foo.com`, NS)

This record is used to route DNS queries further along the query chain

DNS record

DNS: distributed database storing resource records (RR)

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

- Type=MX

Alias → mail server canonical name

- **`value`** is the canonical serve name associated to the mail server whose name is **`name`**

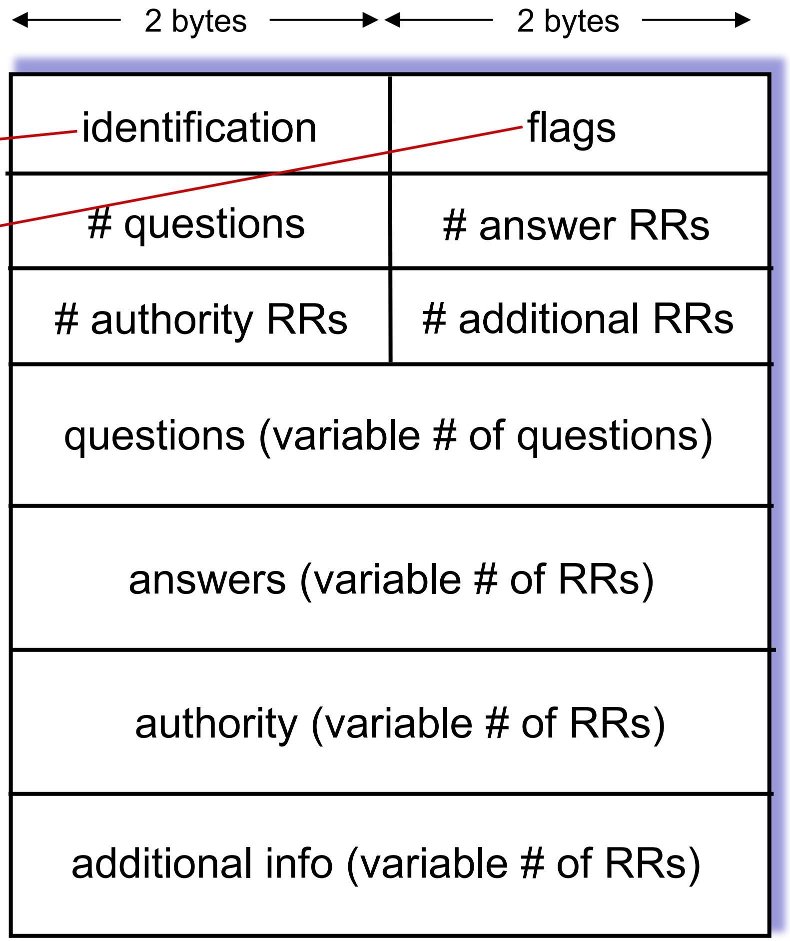
Es. (`foo.com, mail.bar.foo.com,` MX)

DNS protocol messages

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

message header (12 bytes):

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



DNS protocol messages

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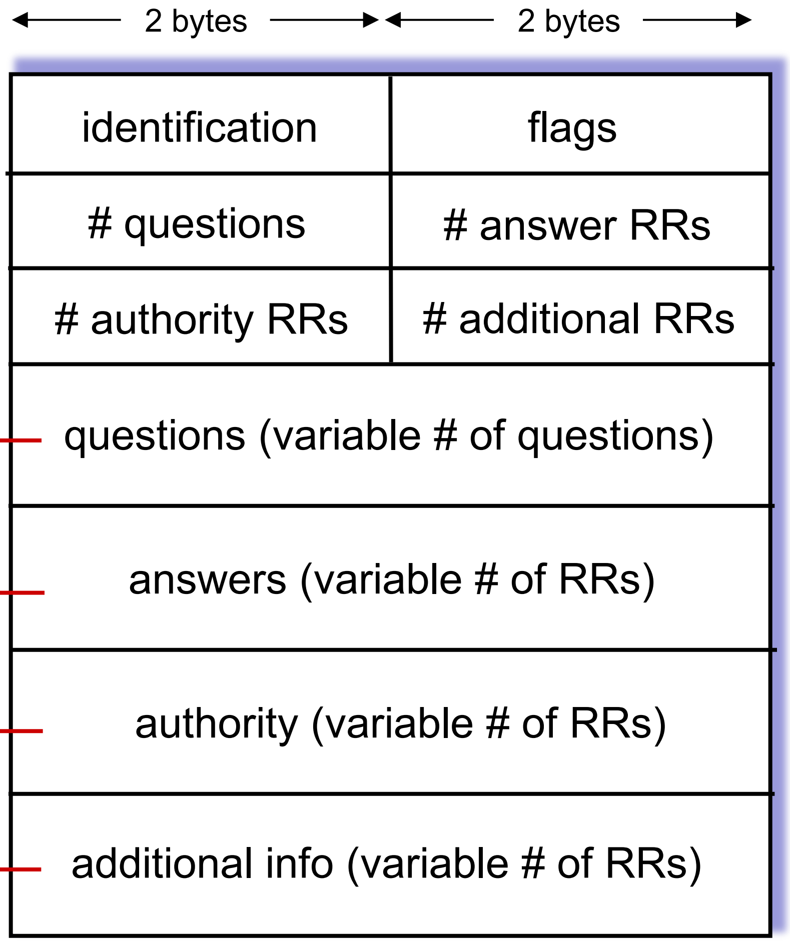

name, type fields for a query

RRs in response to query

records for authoritative servers

additional " helpful" info that may be used
e.g. MX type A answers

Getting your info into the 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, 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

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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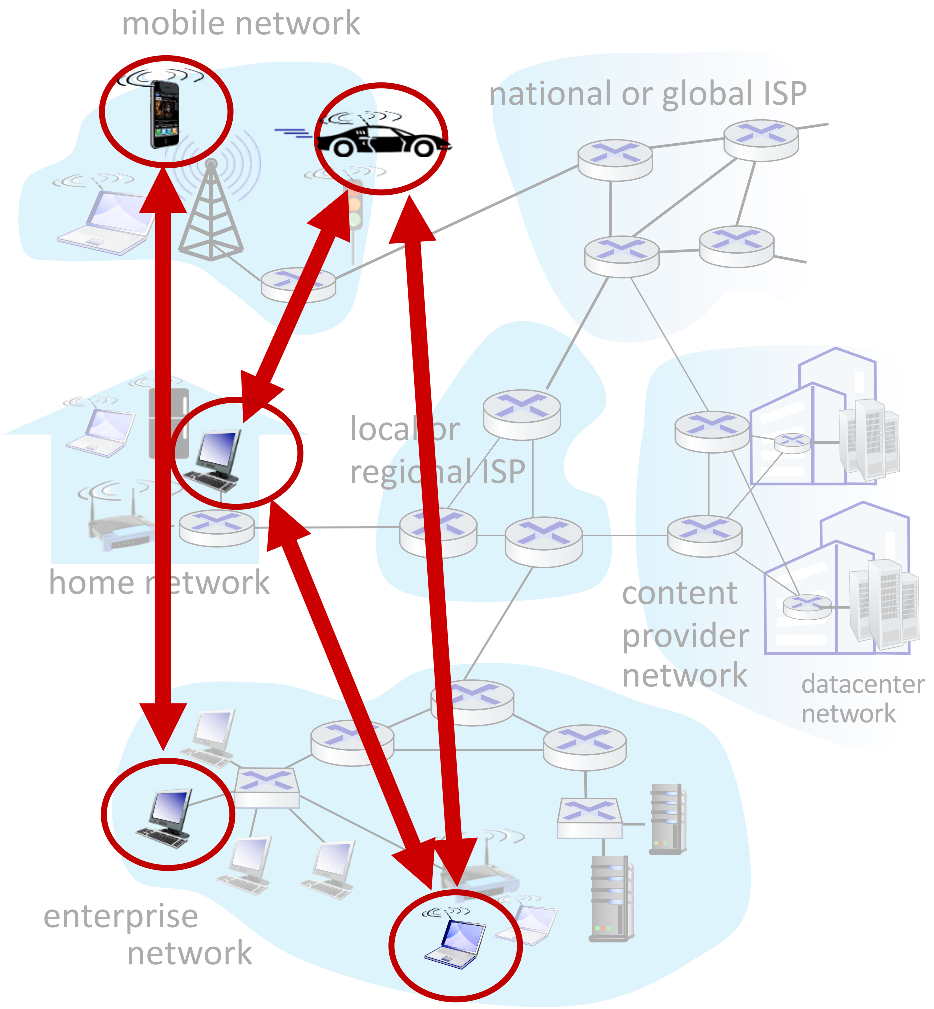
Peer-to-peer (P2P) architecture

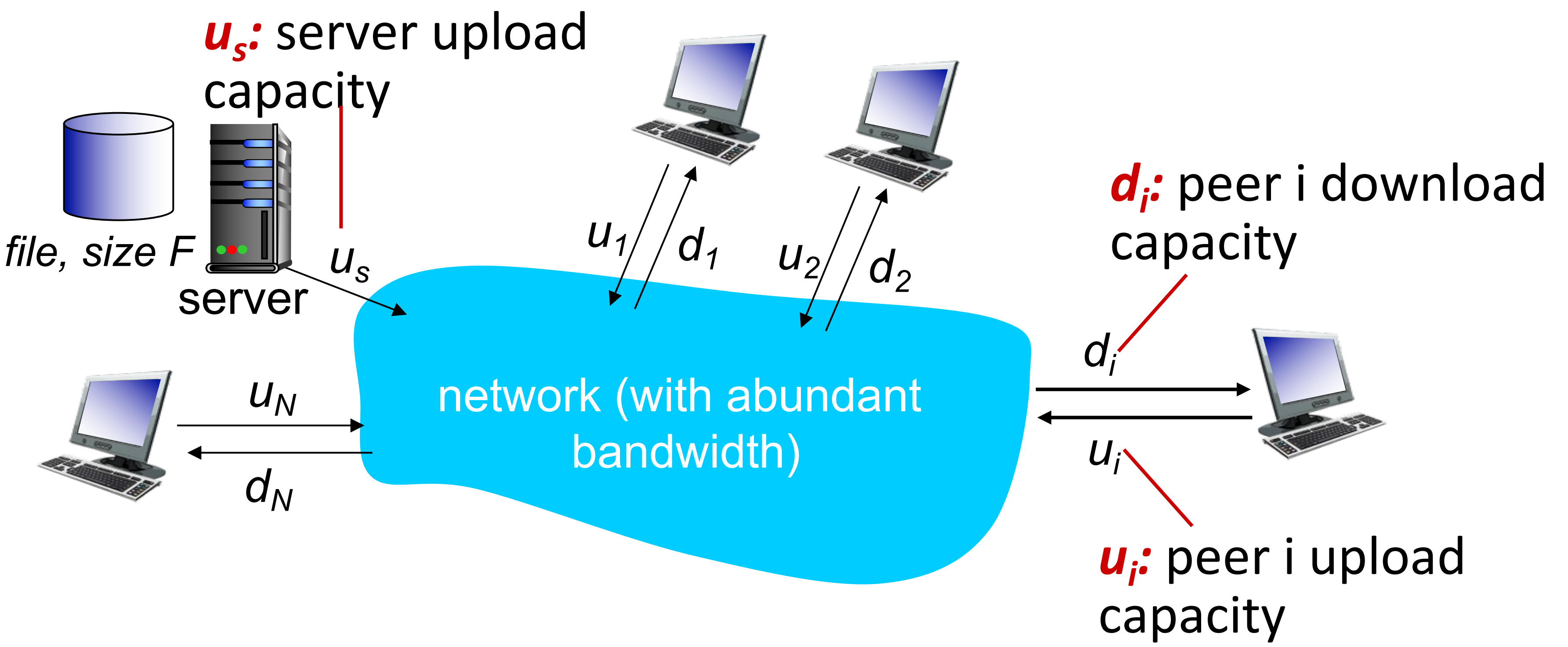
- *no* always-on server
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- peers request service from other peers, provide service in return to other peers
  - *self scalability* – new peers bring new service capacity, and new service demands
- peers are intermittently connected and change IP addresses
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



File distribution: client-server vs P2P

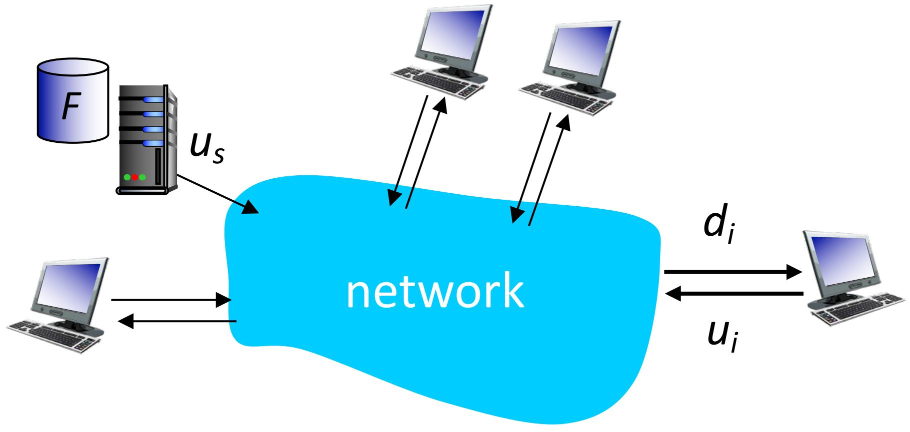
Q: how much time to distribute file (size *F*) from one server to *N peers*?

- 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}



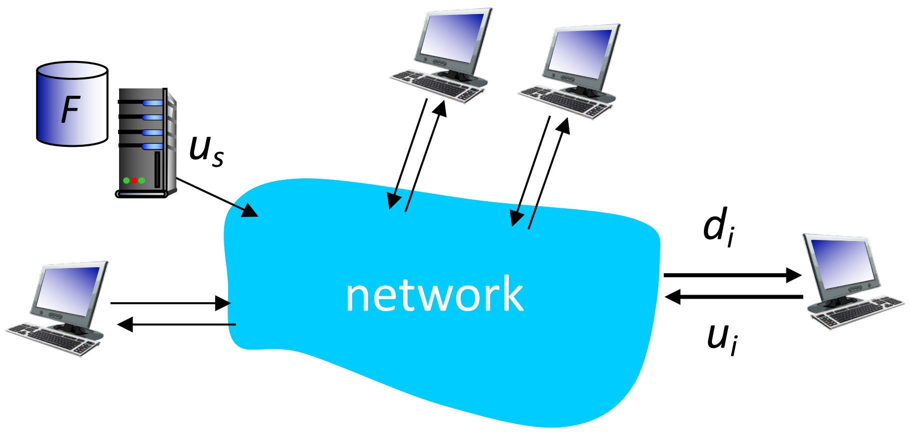
time to distribute F to N clients using client-server approach

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

increases linearly in N

File distribution time: P2P

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



time to distribute F to N clients using P2P approach

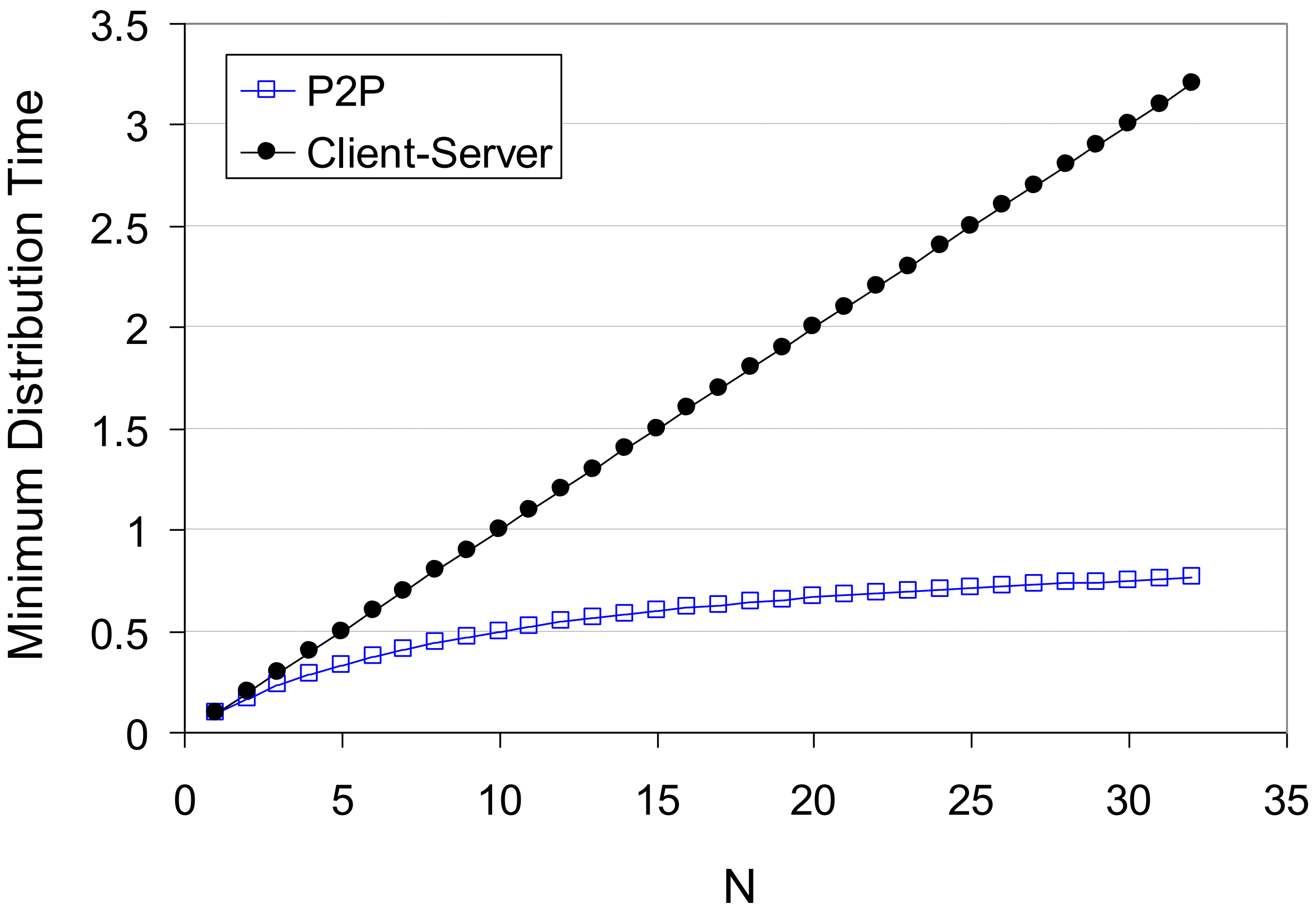
$$D_{P2P} \geq max\{F/u_{s,},F/d_{min,},NF/(u_s + \Sigma u_i)\}$$

increases linearly in N …

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

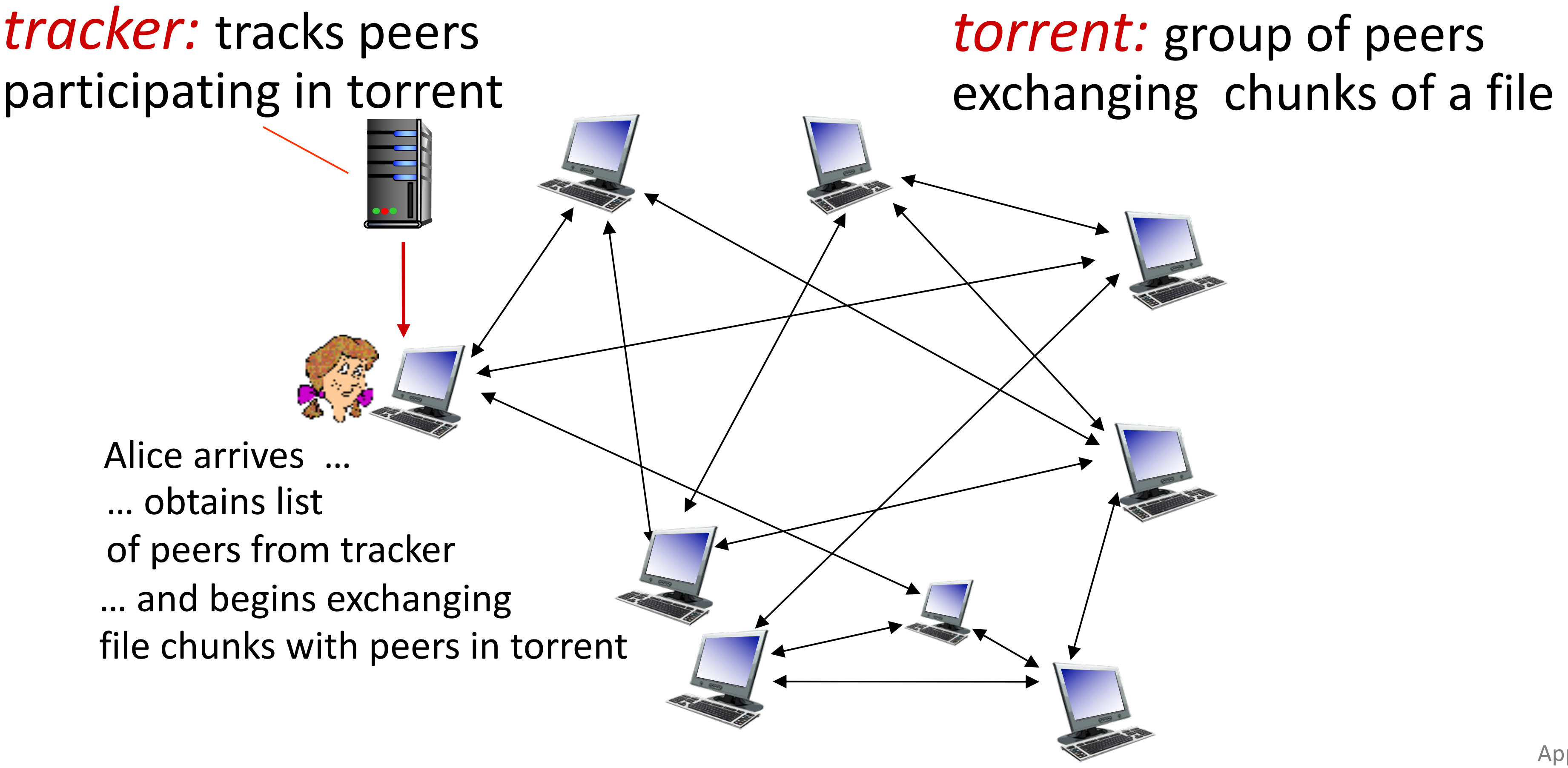
Client-server vs. P2P: example

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

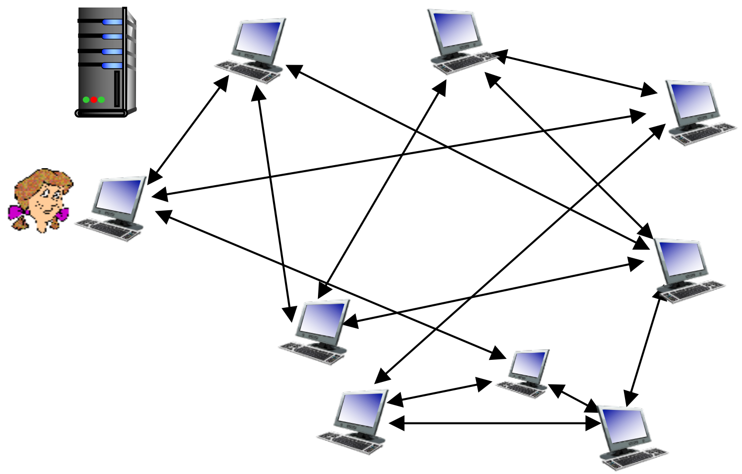


P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

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



P2P file distribution: BitTorrent



- peer joining torrent:
  - has no chunks, but will accumulate them over time from other peers
  - registers with tracker to get list of peers, connects to subset of peers ("neighbors")
- while downloading, peer uploads chunks to other peers
- peer may change peers with whom it exchanges chunks
- *churn:* peers may come and go
- once peer has entire file, it may (selfishly) leave or (altruistically) remain in torrent

BitTorrent: requesting, sending file chunks

Requesting chunks:

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

Sending chunks: tit-for-tat

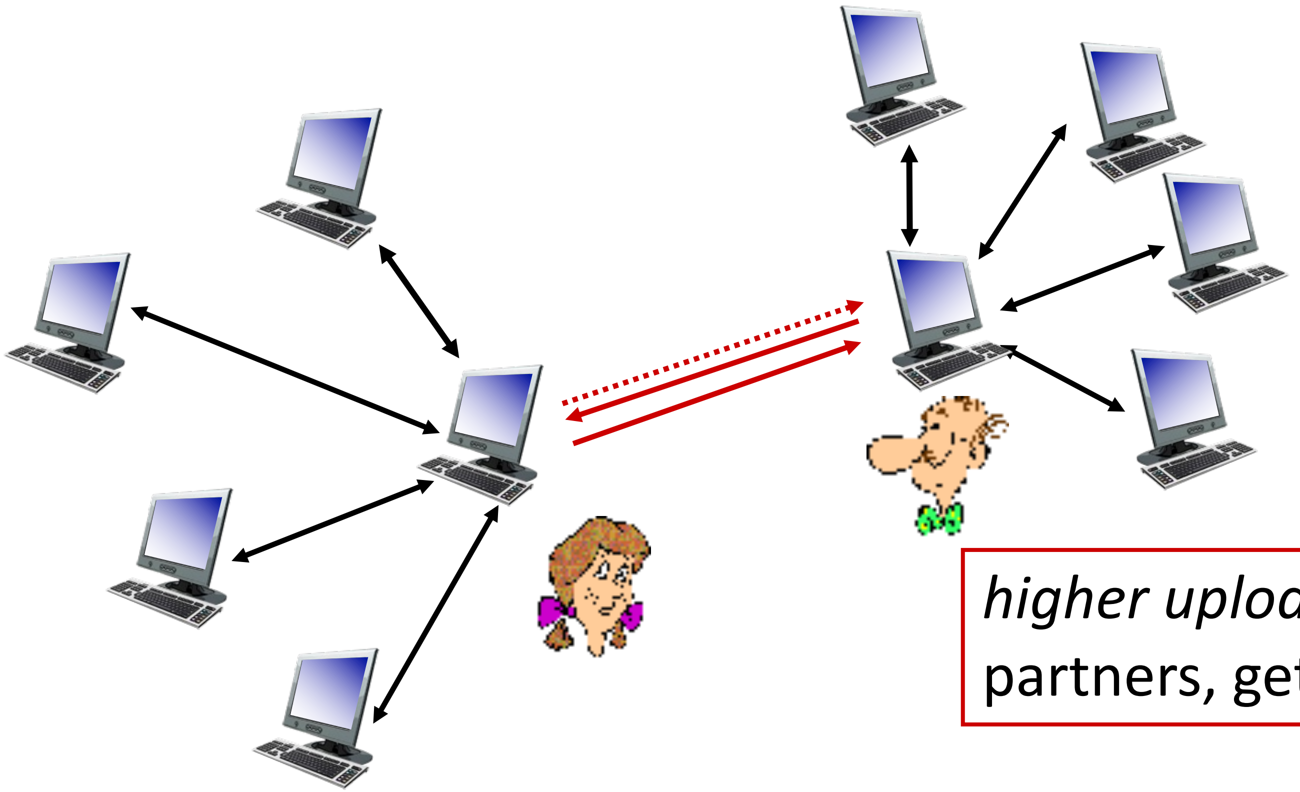
- Alice sends chunks to those four peers currently sending her chunks *at highest rate*
  - other peers are choked by Alice (do not receive chunks from her)
  - re-evaluate top 4 every10 secs
- every 30 secs: randomly select another peer, starts sending chunks
  - "optimistically unchoke" this peer
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

BitTorrent: tit-for-tat

(1) Alice "optimistically unchokes" Bob

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

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



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

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

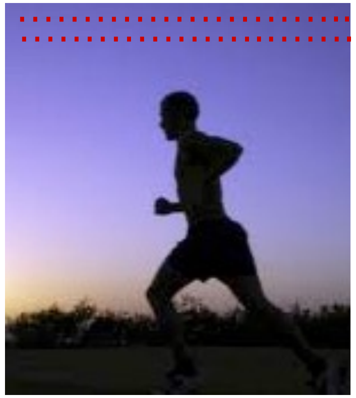
Video Streaming and CDNs: context

- 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?
- *challenge:* heterogeneity
  - different users have different capabilities (e.g., wired versus mobile; bandwidth rich versus bandwidth poor)
- *solution:* distributed, application-level infrastructure

Multimedia: video

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

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



frame *i*

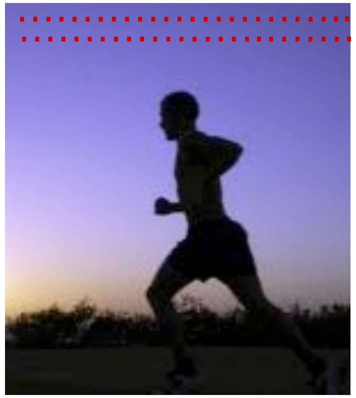
temporal coding example: instead of sending complete frame at i+1, send only differences from frame i

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)



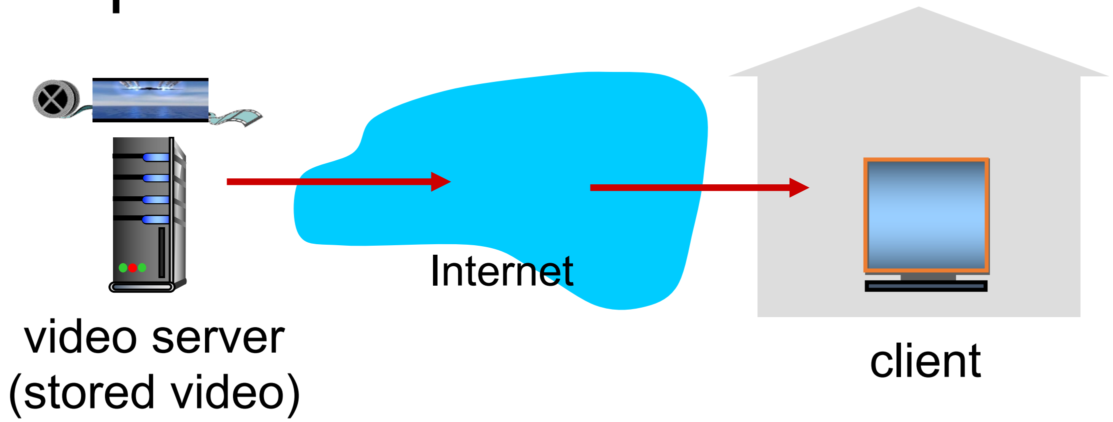
frame *i*

frame *i+1*

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

Streaming stored video

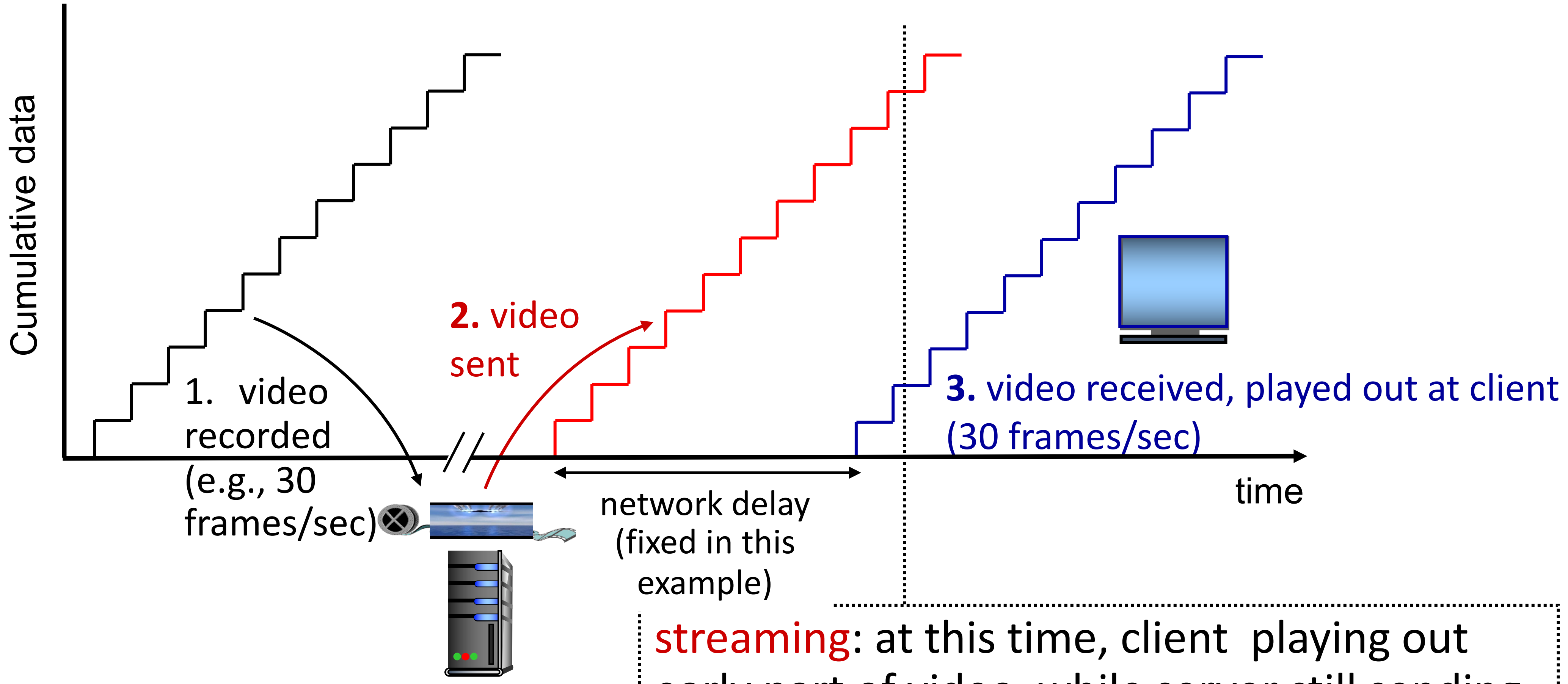
simple scenario:



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

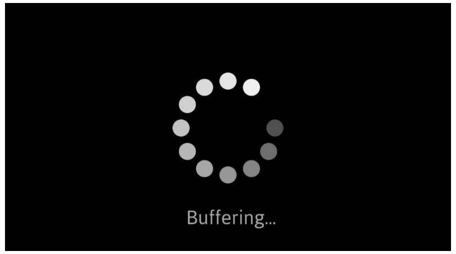
Streaming stored video



streaming: at this time, client playing out early part of video, while server still sending later part of video

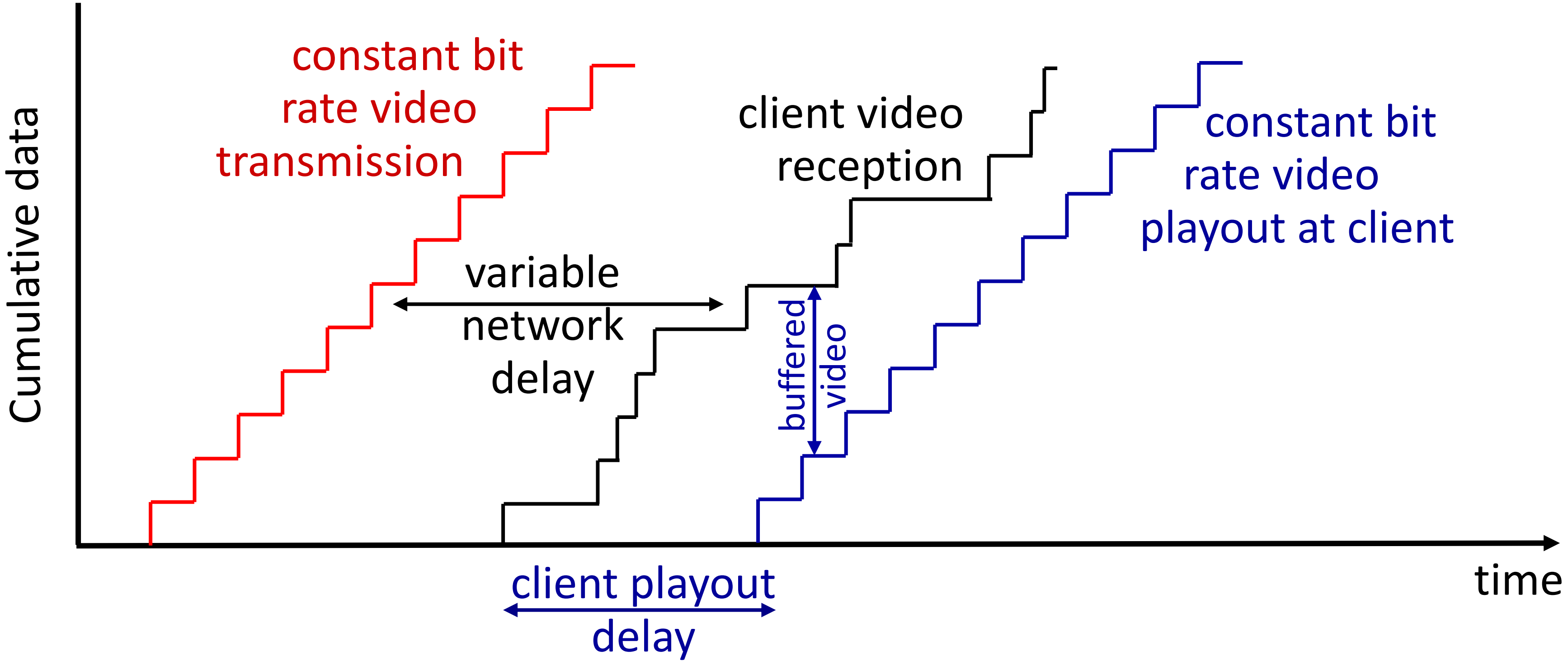
Streaming stored video: challenges

- 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



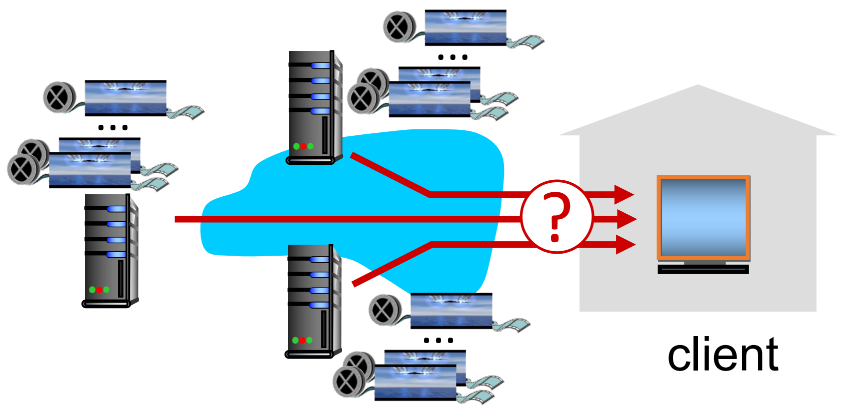
- *client-side buffering and playout delay:* compensate for network-added delay, delay jitter

Streaming multimedia: DASH

*D*ynamic, *A*daptive *S*treaming 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

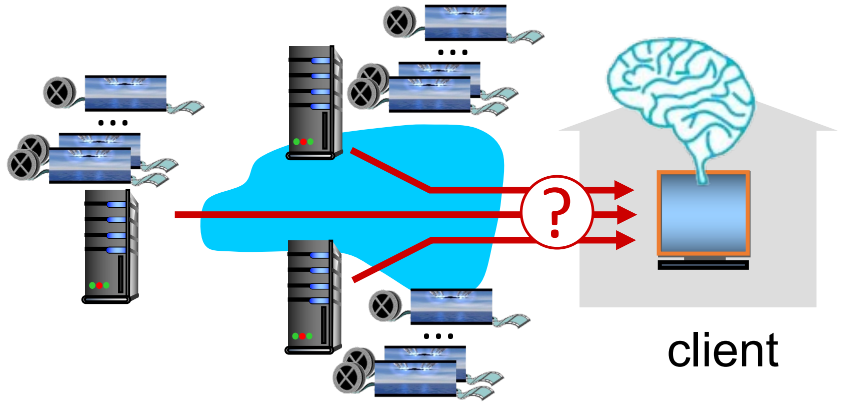


client:

- 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
  - point of network congestion
  - long (and possibly congested) path to distant clients

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

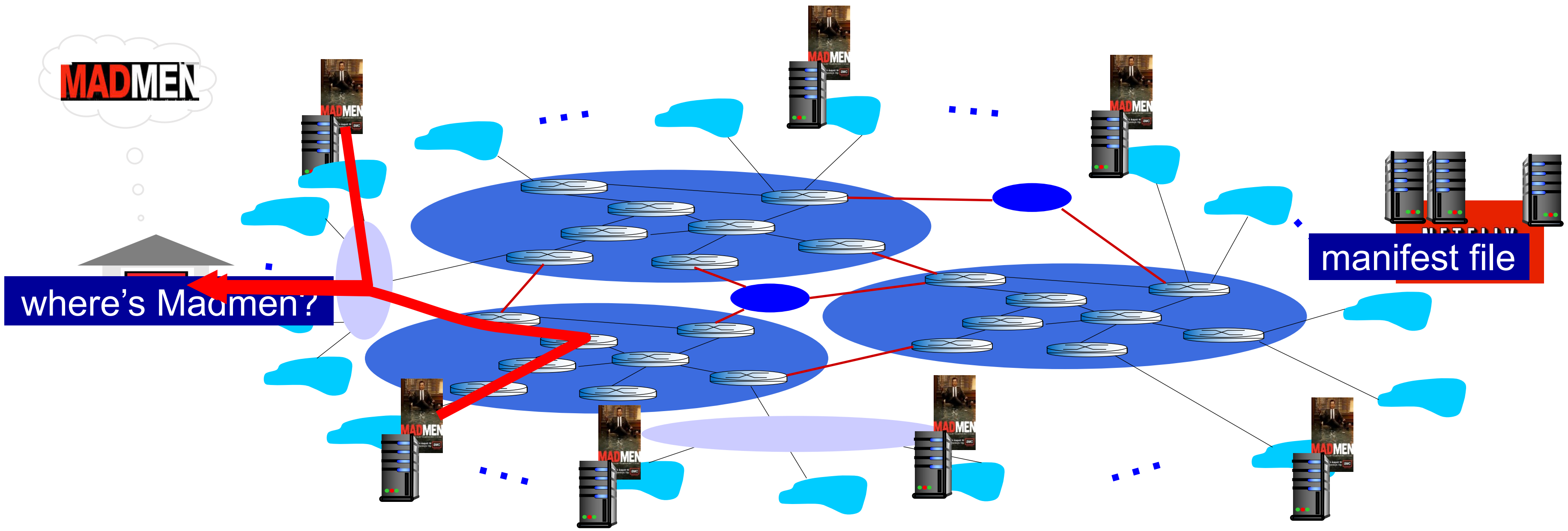
Content distribution networks (CDNs)

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

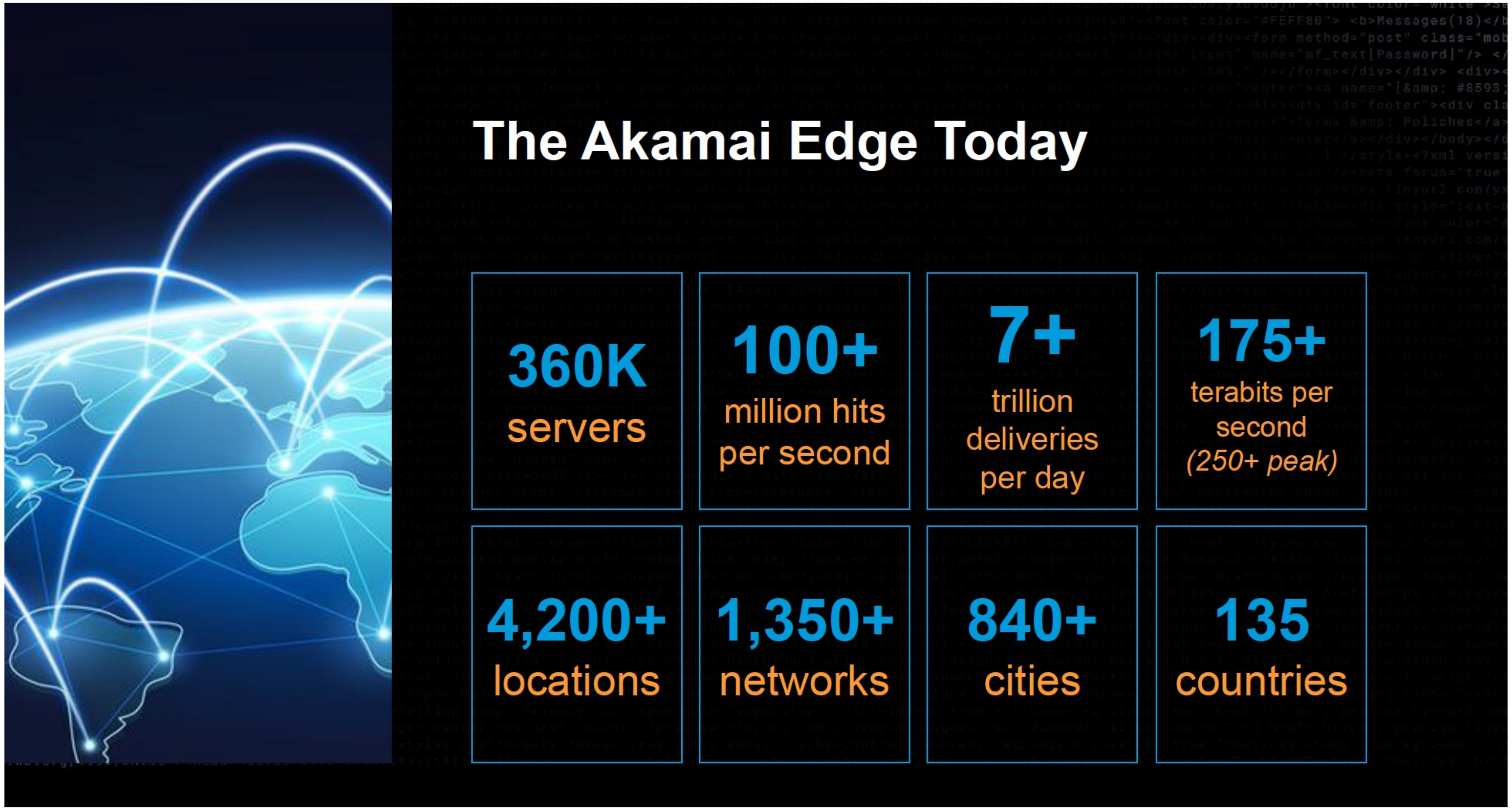
- *option 2:* store/serve multiple copies of videos at multiple geographically distributed sites *(CDN)*
  - *enter deep:* push CDN servers deep into many access networks
    - close to users
    - Akamai: 240,000 servers deployed in > 120 countries (2015)
  - *bring home:* smaller number (10's) of larger clusters in POPs near access nets
    - used by Limelight

Content distribution networks (CDNs)

- CDN: stores copies of content (e.g. MADMEN) at CDN nodes
- subscriber requests content, service provider returns manifest
  - using manifest, client retrieves content at highest supportable rate
  - may choose different rate or copy if network path congested



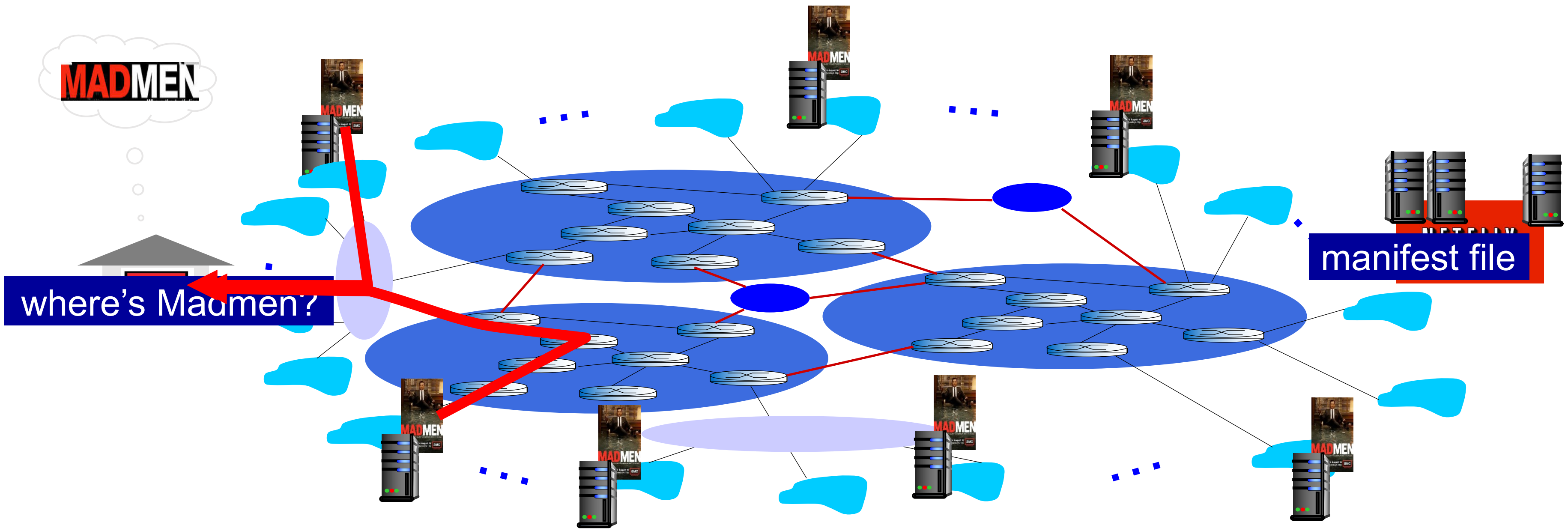
Akamai today:



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

How does Netflix work?

- Netflix: stores copies of content (e.g., MADMEN) at its (worldwide) OpenConnect CDN nodes
- subscriber requests content, service provider returns manifest
  - using manifest, client retrieves content at highest supportable rate
  - may choose different rate or copy if network path congested



Content distribution networks (CDNs)

OTT challenges: coping with a congested Internet from the "edge"

- what content to place in which CDN node?
- from which CDN node to retrieve content? At which rate?