Chapter 2
Application Layer

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Chapter 2: Application layer

- 2.1 Principles of network applications
- 2.2 Web and HTTP
- 2.3 FTP
- 2.4 Electronic Mail
  - SMTP, POP3, IMAP
- 2.5 DNS
- 2.6 P2P applications
- 2.7 Socket programming with TCP
- 2.8 Socket programming with UDP
Chapter 2: Application Layer

Our goals:

- conceptual, implementation aspects of network application protocols
  - transport-layer service models
  - client-server paradigm
  - peer-to-peer paradigm

- learn about protocols by examining popular application-level protocols
  - HTTP
  - FTP
  - SMTP / POP3 / IMAP
  - DNS

- programming network applications
  - socket API
Some network apps

- e-mail
- web
- instant messaging
- remote login
- P2P file sharing
- multi-user network games
- streaming stored video clips
- voice over IP
- real-time video conferencing
- grid computing
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

2: Application Layer
Chapter 2: Application layer

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- 2.8 Socket programming with UDP
- 2.9 Building a Web server
Application architectures

- Client-server
- Peer-to-peer (P2P)
- Hybrid of client-server and P2P
Client-server architecture

server:
- always-on host
- permanent IP address
- server farms for scaling

clients:
- communicate with server
- may be intermittently connected
- may have dynamic IP addresses
- do not communicate directly with each other
**Pure P2P architecture**

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

Highly scalable but difficult to manage
Hybrid of client-server and P2P

Skype
- voice-over-IP P2P application
- centralized server: finding address of remote party:
- client-client connection: direct (not through server)

Instant messaging
- chatting between two users is P2P
- centralized service: client presence detection/location
  - user registers its IP address with central server when it comes online
  - user contacts central server to find IP addresses of buddies
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

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 which brings message to socket at receiving process
- API: (1) choice of transport protocol; (2) ability to fix a few parameters (lots more on this later)
Addressing processes

- To receive messages, process must have an identifier.
- Host device has a unique 32-bit IP address.
- **Q:** Does IP address of host suffice for identifying the process?
Addressing processes

- to receive messages, process must have identifier
- host device has unique 32-bit IP address
- Q: does IP address of host on which process runs suffice for identifying the process?
  - A: No, many processes can be running on same host
- identifier includes both IP address and port numbers associated with process on host.
- Example port numbers:
  - HTTP server: 80
  - Mail server: 25
- to send HTTP message to gaia.cs.umass.edu web server:
  - IP address: 128.119.245.12
  - Port number: 80
- more shortly...
App-layer protocol defines

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

Public-domain protocols:
- defined in RFCs
- allows for interoperability
  - e.g., HTTP, SMTP

Proprietary protocols:
- e.g., Skype
What transport service does an app need?

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

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 of common apps

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Data loss</th>
<th>Throughput</th>
<th>Time Sensitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>file transfer</td>
<td>no loss</td>
<td>elastic</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e-mail</td>
<td>no loss</td>
<td>elastic</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web documents</td>
<td>no loss</td>
<td>elastic</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real-time audio/video</td>
<td>loss-tolerant</td>
<td>audio: 5kbps-1Mbps</td>
<td>yes, 100’s msec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>video:10kbps-5Mbps</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stored audio/video</td>
<td>loss-tolerant</td>
<td>same as above</td>
<td>yes, few secs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interactive games</td>
<td>loss-tolerant</td>
<td>few kbps up</td>
<td>yes, 100’s msec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instant messaging</td>
<td>no loss</td>
<td>elastic</td>
<td>yes and no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Internet transport protocols services**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TCP service:</th>
<th>UDP service:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- <em>connection-oriented:</em> setup required between client and server processes</td>
<td>- unreliable data transfer between sending and receiving process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>reliable transport</em> between sending and receiving process</td>
<td>- does not provide: connection setup, reliability, flow control, congestion control, timing, throughput guarantee, or security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>flow control:</em> sender won’t overwhelm receiver</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>congestion control:</em> throttle sender when network overloaded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <em>does not provide:</em> timing, minimum throughput guarantees, security</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Q:** why bother? Why is there a UDP?
### Internet Apps: Application, Transport Protocols

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Application Layer Protocol</th>
<th>Underlying Transport Protocol</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e-mail</td>
<td>SMTP [RFC 2821]</td>
<td>TCP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remote terminal access</td>
<td>Telnet [RFC 854]</td>
<td>TCP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web</td>
<td>HTTP [RFC 2616]</td>
<td>TCP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file transfer</td>
<td>FTP [RFC 959]</td>
<td>TCP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>streaming multimedia</td>
<td>HTTP (e.g., Youtube), RTP [RFC 1889]</td>
<td>TCP or UDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet telephony</td>
<td>SIP, RTP, proprietary (e.g., Skype)</td>
<td>typically UDP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 2: Application layer

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  - app architectures
  - app requirements
- 2.2 Web and HTTP
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Web and HTTP

First some jargon
- Web page consists of objects
- Object can be HTML file, JPEG image, Java applet, audio file, ...
- Web page consists of base HTML-file which includes several referenced objects
- Each object is addressable by a URL
- Example URL:

  www.someschool.edu/someDept/pic.gif

  \underline{host name} \underline{path name}
HTTP overview

HTTP: hypertext transfer protocol
- Web's application layer protocol
- client/server model
  - *client*: browser that requests, receives, “displays” Web objects
  - *server*: Web server sends objects in response to requests

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HTTP overview (continued)

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

HTTP is "stateless"
- server maintains no information about past client requests

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

aside
HTTP connections

Nonpersistent HTTP
- At most one object is sent over a TCP connection.

Persistent HTTP
- Multiple objects can be sent over a single TCP connection between client and server.
Nonpersistent HTTP

Suppose user enters URL
www.someSchool.edu/someDepartment/home.index

1a. HTTP client initiates TCP
cconnection 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

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Nonpersistent HTTP (cont.)

4. HTTP server closes TCP connection.


6. Steps 1-5 repeated for each of 10 jpeg objects.
Non-Persistent HTTP: Response time

Definition of RTT: time for a small packet to travel from client to server and back.

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

Total = 2RTT + transmit time
Persistent HTTP

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

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

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

```
GET /somedir/page.html HTTP/1.1
Host: www.someschool.edu
User-agent: Mozilla/4.0
Connection: close
Accept-language: fr
```
(extra carriage return, line feed)
HTTP request message: general format

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>method</th>
<th>sp</th>
<th>URL</th>
<th>sp</th>
<th>version</th>
<th>cr</th>
<th>lf</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>header field name : value</td>
<td>cr</td>
<td>lf</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>header field name : value</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>cr</td>
<td>lf</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

Entity Body
Uploading form input

Post method:
- Web page often includes form input
- Input is uploaded to server in entity body

URL method:
- Uses GET method
- Input is uploaded in URL field of request line:

www.somesite.com/animalsearch?monkeys&banana
Method types

HTTP/1.0
- GET
- POST
- HEAD
  - asks server to leave requested object out of response

HTTP/1.1
- GET, POST, HEAD
- PUT
  - uploads file in entity body to path specified in URL field
- DELETE
  - deletes file specified in the URL field
HTTP response message

status line
(protocol
status code
status phrase)

HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Connection close
Date: Thu, 06 Aug 1998 12:00:15 GMT
Server: Apache/1.3.0 (Unix)
Last-Modified: Mon, 22 Jun 1998 ...
Content-Length: 6821
Content-Type: text/html

data data data data data data data ...
HTTP response status codes

In first line in server->client response message.
A few 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 (Location:)

400 Bad Request
  - request message 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. Telnet to your favorite Web server:
   
   `telnet cis.poly.edu 80`
   
   Opens TCP connection to port 80 (default HTTP server port) at cis.poly.edu. Anything typed in sent to port 80 at cis.poly.edu

2. Type in a GET HTTP request:
   
   `GET /~ross/ HTTP/1.1`
   `Host: cis.poly.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!
User-server state: cookies

Many major Web sites use cookies

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

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

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Cookies: keeping “state” (cont.)

One week later:

- eBay 8734
- Amazon 1678

**Server**

1. Amazon server creates ID 1678 for user
2. Access
3. Backend database
4. Cookie-specific action

**Client**

1. Usual HTTP request msg
2. Set-cookie: 1678
3. Usual HTTP request msg
4. Cookie: 1678
5. Usual HTTP response msg
6. Usual HTTP response msg
7. Usual HTTP request msg
8. Cookie: 1678
9. Usual HTTP response msg
Cookies (continued)

What cookies can bring:

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

How to keep “state”:

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

Cookies and privacy:

- cookies permit sites to learn a lot about you
- you may supply name and e-mail to sites
Web caches (proxy server)

**Goal:** satisfy client request without involving origin server

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

- cache acts as both client and server
- typically cache is installed by ISP (university, company, residential ISP)

Why Web caching?
- reduce response time for client request
- reduce traffic on an institution’s access link.
- Internet dense with caches: enables “poor” content providers to effectively deliver content (but so does P2P file sharing)
Caching example

Assumptions
- average object size = 100,000 bits
- avg. request rate from institution’s browsers to origin servers = 15/sec
- delay from institutional router to any origin server and back to router = 2 sec

Consequences
- utilization on LAN = 15%
- utilization on access link = 100%
- total delay = Internet delay + access delay + LAN delay
  = 2 sec + minutes + milliseconds
Caching example (cont)

possible solution
- increase bandwidth of access link to, say, 10 Mbps

consequence
- utilization on LAN = 15%
- utilization on access link = 15%
- Total delay = Internet delay + access delay + LAN delay
  = 2 sec + msecs + msecs
- often a costly upgrade
possible solution: install cache

- suppose hit rate is 0.4

consequence

- 40% requests will be satisfied almost immediately
- 60% requests satisfied by origin server
- utilization of access link reduced to 60%, resulting in negligible delays (say 10 msec)
- total avg delay = Internet delay + access delay + LAN delay = 0.6*(2.01) secs + 0.4*milliseconds < 1.4 secs
Conditional GET

- **Goal:** don’t send object if cache has up-to-date cached version
- cache: specify date of cached copy in HTTP request
  - If-modified-since: <date>
- server: response contains no object if cached copy is up-to-date:
  - HTTP/1.0 304 Not Modified

```
HTTP request msg
If-modified-since: <date>
```

```
HTTP response
HTTP/1.0
304 Not Modified
```

```
HTTP request msg
If-modified-since: <date>
```

```
HTTP response
HTTP/1.0
200 OK
<data>
```

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FTP: the file transfer protocol

- transfer file to/from remote host
- client/server model
  - *client*: side that initiates transfer (either to/from remote)
  - *server*: remote host
- ftp: RFC 959
- ftp server: port 21
FTP: separate control, data connections

- FTP client contacts FTP server at port 21, TCP is transport protocol
- Client authorized over control connection
- Client browses remote directory by sending commands over control connection.
- When server receives file transfer command, server opens 2nd TCP connection (for file) to client
- After transferring one file, server closes data connection.

- Server opens another TCP data connection to transfer another file.
- Control connection: “out of band”
- FTP server maintains “state”: current directory, earlier authentication
FTP commands, responses

Sample commands:
- sent as ASCII text over control channel
- USER username
- PASS password
- LIST return list of file in current directory
- RETR filename retrieves (gets) file
- STOR filename stores (puts) file onto remote host

Sample return codes
- status code and phrase (as in HTTP)
- 331 Username OK, password required
- 125 data connection already open; transfer starting
- 425 Can’t open data connection
- 452 Error writing file
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Electronic Mail

Three major components:

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

User Agent

- a.k.a. “mail reader“
- composing, editing, reading mail messages
- e.g., Eudora, Outlook, elm, Mozilla Thunderbird
- outgoing, incoming messages stored on server
Electronic Mail: mail servers

Mail Servers
- mailbox contains incoming messages for user
- message queue of outgoing (to be sent) mail messages
- SMTP protocol between mail servers to send email messages
  - client: sending mail server
  - “server”: receiving mail server
Electronic Mail: SMTP [RFC 2821]

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

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

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

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

Above lets you send email without using email client (reader)
SMTP: final words

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

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

SMTP: protocol for exchanging email msgs
RFC 822: standard for text message format:
- header lines, e.g.,
  - To:
  - From:
  - Subject:
    different from SMTP commands!
- body
  - the “message”, ASCII characters only
Mail access protocols

- **SMTP**: delivery/storage to receiver’s server
- **Mail access protocol**: retrieval from server
  - **POP**: Post Office Protocol [RFC 1939]
    - authorization (agent <-->server) and download
  - **IMAP**: Internet Mail Access Protocol [RFC 1730]
    - more features (more complex)
    - manipulation of stored msgs on server
  - **HTTP**: gmail, Hotmail, Yahoo! Mail, etc.
**POP3 protocol**

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

**transaction phase, client:**
- `list`: list message numbers
- `retr`: retrieve message by number
- `dele`: delete
- `quit`

- **server responses**
  - `+OK POP3 server ready`
  - `user bob`
  - `+OK`
  - `pass hungry`
  - `+OK user successfully logged on`
  - `list`
  - `1 498`
  - `2 912`
  - `.`
  - `retr 1`
  - `<message 1 contents>`
  - `.`
  - `dele 1`
  - `retr 2`
  - `<message 1 contents>`
  - `.`
  - `dele 2`
  - `quit`
  - `+OK POP3 server signing off`
POP3 (more) and IMAP

More about POP3
- Previous example uses “download and delete” mode.
- Bob cannot re-read e-mail if he changes client
- “Download-and-keep”: copies of messages on different clients
- POP3 is stateless across sessions

IMAP
- Keep all messages in one place: the server
- Allows user to organize messages in folders
- IMAP keeps user state across sessions:
  - names of folders and mappings between message IDs and folder name
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DNS: Domain Name System

People: many identifiers:
- SSN, name, passport #

Internet hosts, routers:
- IP address (32 bit) - used for addressing datagrams
- “name”, e.g., www.yahoo.com - used by humans

Q: map between IP addresses and name?

Domain Name System:
- distributed database implemented in hierarchy of many name servers
- application-layer protocol host, routers, name servers to communicate to resolve names (address/name translation)
  - note: core Internet function, implemented as application-layer protocol
  - complexity at network’s “edge”
DNS

DNS services
- hostname to IP address translation
- host aliasing
  - Canonical, alias names
- mail server aliasing
- load distribution
  - replicated Web servers: set of IP addresses for one canonical name

Why not centralize DNS?
- single point of failure
- traffic volume
- distant centralized database
- maintenance

doesn’t scale!
Distributed, Hierarchical Database

Client wants IP for www.amazon.com; 1st approx:
- client queries a 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

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

13 root name servers worldwide

2: Application Layer
TLD and Authoritative Servers

- **Top-level domain (TLD) servers:**
  - responsible for com, org, net, edu, etc, and all top-level country domains uk, fr, ca, jp.
  - Network Solutions maintains servers for com TLD
  - Educause for edu TLD

- **Authoritative DNS servers:**
  - organization’s DNS servers, providing authoritative hostname to IP mappings for organization’s servers (e.g., Web, mail).
  - can be maintained by organization or service provider
Local Name Server

- does not strictly belong to hierarchy
- each ISP (residential ISP, company, university) has one.
  - also called “default name server”
- when host makes DNS query, query is sent to its local DNS server
  - acts as proxy, forwards query into hierarchy
DNS name resolution example

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

**iterated query:**
- contacted server replies with name of server to contact
- “I don’t know this name, but ask this server”
DNS name resolution example

recursive query:
- puts burden of name resolution on contacted name server
- heavy load?
DNS: caching and updating records

- once (any) name server learns mapping, it caches mapping
  - cache entries timeout (disappear) after some time
  - TLD servers typically cached in local name servers
    - Thus root name servers not often visited
- update/notify mechanisms under design by IETF
  - RFC 2136
**DNS records**

**DNS:** distributed db storing resource records (RR)

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

- **Type=A**
  - name is hostname
  - value is IP address

- **Type=NS**
  - name is domain (e.g. foo.com)
  - value is hostname of authoritative name server for this domain

- **Type=CNAME**
  - name is alias name for some “canonical” (the real) name
  - value is canonical name

- **Type=MX**
  - value is name of mailserver associated with name

---

2: Application Layer
DNS protocol, messages

**DNS protocol**: *query* and *reply* messages, both with same *message format*

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>identification</th>
<th>flags</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>number of questions</td>
<td>number of answer RRs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number of authority RRs</td>
<td>number of additional RRs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>questions (variable number of questions)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>answers (variable number of resource records)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>authority (variable number of resource records)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>additional information (variable number of resource records)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DNS protocol, messages

- Name, type fields for a query
- RRs in response to query
- Records for authoritative servers
- Additional "helpful" info that may be used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identification</th>
<th>Flags</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>number of questions</td>
<td>number of answer RRs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number of authority RRs</td>
<td>number of additional RRs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 bytes

12 bytes
Inserting records into DNS

- example: new startup “Network Utopia”
- register name networkuptopia.com at DNS registrar (e.g., Network Solutions)
  - provide names, IP addresses of authoritative name server (primary and secondary)
  - registrar inserts two RRs into com TLD server:

  (networkutopia.com, dns1.networkutopia.com, NS)
  (dns1.networkutopia.com, 212.212.212.1, A)

- create authoritative server Type A record for www.networkuptopia.com; Type MX record for networkutopia.com
- How do people get IP address of your Web site?
Chapter 2: Application layer

- 2.1 Principles of network applications
  - app architectures
  - app requirements
- 2.2 Web and HTTP
- 2.4 Electronic Mail
  - SMTP, POP3, IMAP
- 2.5 DNS
- 2.6 P2P applications
- 2.7 Socket programming with TCP
- 2.8 Socket programming with UDP
Pure P2P architecture

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

- **Three topics:**
  - File distribution
  - Searching for information
  - Case Study: Skype

2: Application Layer
**File Distribution: Server-Client vs P2P**

**Question**: How much time to distribute file from one server to $N$ peers?

- $u_s$: server upload bandwidth
- $u_i$: peer $i$ upload bandwidth
- $d_i$: peer $i$ download bandwidth

File, size $F$

Network (with abundant bandwidth)
File distribution time: server-client

- server sequentially sends $N$ copies:
  - $NF/u_s$ time
- client $i$ takes $F/d_i$ time to download

$ Talent to distribute $F$
to $N$ clients using $d_{cs} = \max \{ NF/u_s, F/\min(d_i) \}$

increases linearly in $N$
(for large $N$)
File distribution time: P2P

- server must send one copy: \( F/u_s \) time
- client \( i \) takes \( F/d_i \) time to download
- NF bits must be downloaded (aggregate)
  - fastest possible upload rate: \( u_s + \sum u_i \)

\[
d_{P2P} = \max \{ F/u_s, \ F/min(d_i), \ NF/(u_s + \sum u_i) \}
\]
Server-client vs. P2P: example

Client upload rate = $u$, $F/u = 1$ hour, $u_s = 10u$, $d_{min} \geq u_s$
File distribution: BitTorrent

- P2P file distribution

  **tracker:** tracks peers participating in torrent

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

  obtain list of peers

  trading chunks

  peer

2: Application Layer
BitTorrent (1)

- file divided into 256KB *chunks*.
- peer joining torrent:
  - has no chunks, but will accumulate them over time
  - registers with tracker to get list of peers, connects to subset of peers (“neighbors”)
- while downloading, peer uploads chunks to other peers.
- peers may come and go
- once peer has entire file, it may (selfishly) leave or (altruistically) remain
BitTorrent (2)

Pulling Chunks
- at any given time, different peers have different subsets of file chunks
- periodically, a peer (Alice) asks each neighbor for list of chunks that they have.
- Alice sends requests for her missing chunks
  - rarest first

Sending Chunks: tit-for-tat
- Alice sends chunks to four neighbors currently sending her chunks at the highest rate
  - re-evaluate top 4 every 10 secs
- every 30 secs: randomly select another peer, starts sending chunks
  - newly chosen peer may join top 4
  - “optimistically unchoke”
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

With higher upload rate, can find better trading partners & get file faster!
Distributed Hash Table (DHT)

- DHT = distributed P2P database
- Database has \((key, value)\) pairs:
  - key: ss number; value: human name
  - key: content type; value: IP address
- Peers query DB with key
  - DB returns values that match the key
- Peers can also insert \((key, value)\) peers
DHT Identifiers

- Assign integer identifier to each peer in range $[0,2^n-1]$.
  - Each identifier can be represented by n bits.
- Require each key to be an integer in same range.
- To get integer keys, hash original key.
  - eg, key = $h(\text{"Led Zeppelin IV"})$
  - This is why they call it a distributed “hash” table
How to assign keys to peers?

- **Central issue:**
  - Assigning (key, value) pairs to peers.

- **Rule:** assign key to the peer that has the closest ID.

- **Convention in lecture:** closest is the immediate successor of the key.

- **Ex:** $n=4$; peers: 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 12, 14;
  - key = 13, then successor peer = 14
  - key = 15, then successor peer = 1
Circular DHT (1)

- Each peer only aware of immediate successor and predecessor.
- “Overlay network”
Circle DHT (2)

O(N) messages on avg to resolve query, when there are N peers

Who's resp for key 1110?

Define closest as closest successor
Circular DHT with Shortcuts

- Each peer keeps track of IP addresses of predecessor, successor, short cuts.
- Reduced from 6 to 2 messages.
- Possible to design shortcuts so $O(\log N)$ neighbors, $O(\log N)$ messages in query.

Who’s resp for key 1110?
Peer Churn

- To handle peer churn, require each peer to know the IP address of its two successors.
- Each peer periodically pings its two successors to see if they are still alive.

- Peer 5 abruptly leaves
- Peer 4 detects; makes 8 its immediate successor; asks 8 who its immediate successor is; makes 8's immediate successor its second successor.
- What if peer 13 wants to join?
P2P Case study: Skype

- inherently P2P: pairs of users communicate.
- proprietary application-layer protocol (inferred via reverse engineering)
- hierarchical overlay with SNs
- Index maps usernames to IP addresses; distributed over SNs
Peers as relays

- Problem when both Alice and Bob are behind “NATs”.
  - NAT prevents an outside peer from initiating a call to insider peer

- Solution:
  - Using Alice’s and Bob’s SNs, Relay is chosen
  - Each peer initiates session with relay.
  - Peers can now communicate through NATs via relay
Chapter 2: Application layer

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Socket programming

**Goal:** learn how to build client/server application that communicate using sockets

**Socket API**
- introduced in BSD4.1 UNIX, 1981
- explicitly created, used, released by apps
- client/server paradigm
- two types of transport service via socket API:
  - unreliable datagram
  - reliable, byte stream-oriented

socket

a host-local, application-created, OS-controlled interface (a “door”) into which application process can both send and receive messages to/from another application process

2: Application Layer
Socket-programming using TCP

**Socket**: a door between application process and end-end-transport protocol (UCP or TCP)

**TCP service**: reliable transfer of **bytes** from one process to another
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 client-local 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 client
  - allows server to talk with multiple clients
  - source port numbers used to distinguish clients *(more in Chap 3)*

---

**application viewpoint**

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

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2: Application Layer 97
Client/server socket interaction: TCP

Server (running on hostid)

create socket, port=x, for incoming request:
welcomeSocket = ServerSocket()

wait for incoming connection request
connectionSocket = welcomeSocket.accept()

read request from connectionSocket
write reply to connectionSocket
close connectionSocket

Client

create socket, connect to hostid, port=x
clientSocket = Socket()

send request using clientSocket
read reply from clientSocket
write reply to connectionSocket
close clientSocket

TCP connection setup

2: Application Layer
Stream jargon

- A stream is a sequence of characters that flow into or out of a process.
- An input stream is attached to some input source for the process, e.g., keyboard or socket.
- An output stream is attached to an output source, e.g., monitor or socket.
Socket programming with TCP

Example client-server app:
1) client reads line from standard input (inFromUser stream), sends to server via socket (outToServer stream)
2) server reads line from socket
3) server converts line to uppercase, sends back to client
4) client reads, prints modified line from socket (inFromServer stream)
Example: Java client (TCP)

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;

class TCPClient {
    public static void main(String argv[]) throws Exception {
        String sentence;
        String modifiedSentence;

        BufferedReader inFromUser =
            new BufferedReader(new InputStreamReader(System.in));

        Socket clientSocket =
            new Socket("hostname", 6789);

        DataOutputStream outToServer =
            new DataOutputStream(clientSocket.getOutputStream());
    }
}
```
Example: Java client (TCP), cont.

```java
Create input stream
attached to socket

BufferedReader inFromServer =
    new BufferedReader(new
                  InputStreamReader(clientSocket.getInputStream()));

sentence = inFromUser.readLine();

Send line to server

outToServer.writeBytes(sentence + '\n');

Read line from server

modifiedSentence = inFromServer.readLine();

System.out.println("FROM SERVER: " + modifiedSentence);

clientSocket.close();
```

2: Application Layer
Example: Java server (TCP)

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;

class TCPServer {
    public static void main(String argv[]) throws Exception {
        String clientSentence;
        String capitalizedSentence;
        ServerSocket welcomeSocket = new ServerSocket(6789);
        while(true) {
            Socket connectionSocket = welcomeSocket.accept();
            BufferedReader inFromClient = new BufferedReader(new InputStreamReader(connectionSocket.getInputStream()));
        }
    }
}
```
Example: Java server (TCP), cont

Create output stream, attached to socket

DataOutputStream outToClient =
    new DataOutputStream(connectionSocket.getOutputStream());

Read in line from socket

clientSentence = inFromClient.readLine();

capitalizedSentence = clientSentence.toUpperCase() + '\n';

Write out line to socket

outToClient.writeBytes(capitalizedSentence);

End of while loop, loop back and wait for another client connection

2: Application Layer
Chapter 2: Application layer

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Socket programming with UDP

UDP: no “connection” between client and server
- no handshaking
- sender explicitly attaches IP address and port of destination to each packet
- server must extract IP address, port of sender from received packet

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

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

application viewpoint
Client/server socket interaction: UDP

Server (running on hostid)  

create socket, 
port= x.  
serverSocket = DatagramSocket()  
read datagram from serverSocket  
write reply to serverSocket specifying client address, port number

Client

create socket, 
clientSocket = DatagramSocket()  
Create datagram with server IP and port=x; send datagram via clientSocket  
read datagram from clientSocket specifying client address, port number  
write reply to serverSocket  
close clientSocket
Example: Java client (UDP)

Input: receives packet (recall that TCP received “byte stream”)

Output: sends packet (recall that TCP sent “byte stream”)

Client process

client UDP socket

to network from network

keyboard

input stream

From User

Process

Input: receives packet (recall that TCP received “byte stream”)

Output: sends packet (recall that TCP sent “byte stream”)

Client process

client UDP socket

to network from network

keyboard

input stream

From User

Process
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;

class UDPClient {
    public static void main(String args[]) throws Exception {
        BufferedReader inFromUser =
            new BufferedReader(new InputStreamReader(System.in));
        DatagramSocket clientSocket = new DatagramSocket();
        InetAddress IPAddress = InetAddress.getByName("hostname");
        byte[] sendData = new byte[1024];
        byte[] receiveData = new byte[1024];
        String sentence = inFromUser.readLine();
        sendData = sentence.getBytes();
Example: Java client (UDP), cont.

Create datagram with data-to-send, length, IP addr, port

DatagramPacket sendPacket =
new DatagramPacket(sendData, sendData.length, IPAddress, 9876);

Send datagram to server

clientSocket.send(sendPacket);

DatagramPacket receivePacket =
new DatagramPacket(receiveData, receiveData.length);

Read datagram from server

clientSocket.receive(receivePacket);

String modifiedSentence =
new String(receivePacket.getData());

System.out.println("FROM SERVER:" + modifiedSentence);
clientSocket.close();
} }
Example: Java server (UDP)

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;

class UDPServer {
    public static void main(String args[]) throws Exception {
        DatagramSocket serverSocket = new DatagramSocket(9876);

        byte[] receiveData = new byte[1024];
        byte[] sendData = new byte[1024];

        while (true) {
            DatagramPacket receivePacket =
                new DatagramPacket(receiveData, receiveData.length);
            serverSocket.receive(receivePacket);
        }
    }
}
```

Create datagram socket at port 9876

Create space for received datagram

Receive datagram
Example: Java server (UDP), cont

```java
String sentence = new String(receivePacket.getData());
InetAddress IPAddress = receivePacket.getAddress();
int port = receivePacket.getPort();

String capitalizedSentence = sentence.toUpperCase();

sendData = capitalizedSentence.getBytes();
DatagramPacket sendPacket = new DatagramPacket(sendData, sendData.length, IPAddress, port);
serverSocket.send(sendPacket);
```

End of while loop, loop back and wait for another datagram.
Chapter 2: Summary

our study of network apps now complete!

- application architectures
  - client-server
  - P2P
  - hybrid

- application service requirements:
  - reliability, bandwidth, delay

- Internet transport service model
  - connection-oriented, reliable: TCP
  - unreliable, datagrams: UDP

- specific protocols:
  - HTTP
  - FTP
  - SMTP, POP, IMAP
  - DNS
  - P2P: BitTorrent, Skype

- socket programming
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 being communicated

Important themes:
- control vs. data msgs
  - in-band, out-of-band
- centralized vs. decentralized
- stateless vs. stateful
- reliable vs. unreliable msg transfer
- “complexity at network edge”