CSC358 *Intro. to Computer Networks*

Lecture 4: *FTP App, DNS App, P2P App, Introduction to Transport Layer*

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Review

- Many applications run on Internet application layer
  1. some have open protocols, such as HTTP, DNS, etc., many others have proprietary protocols.
  2. use some underlying protocols as a black-box
  3. architecture: C/S, P2P, Hybrid
- HTTP
- Cookies provide user-server state
- Non-persistent vs persistent HTTP connections

Architecture examples

myApp
HTTP
TCP
….

myApp	
HTTP	DNS
TCP	TCP,UDP
….	

myApp	
HTTP	DNS
TLS	
TCP	TCP,UDP
….	

myApp	
HTTP	Skype
TCP	TCP,UDP
….	

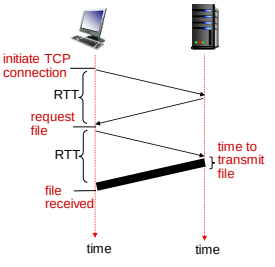
myApp
TCP or UDP or (TCP,UDP) or DCCP
….

Non-persistent HTTP: response time

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

HTTP response time:

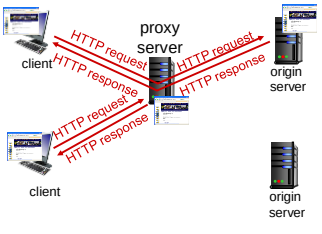
- one RTT to initiate TCP connection
- one RTT for HTTP request and first few bytes of HTTP response to return
- file transmission time
- non-persistent HTTP response time = $2RTT + t_f$



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



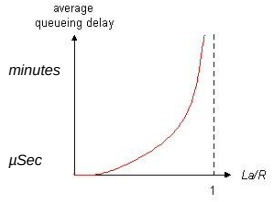
More about Web caching

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

why Web caching?

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

Utilization



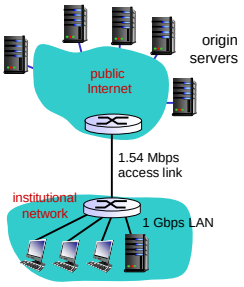
Caching example:

assumptions:

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

consequences:

- LAN utilization: ?
- access link utilization = ? *problem!*
- total delay = $LAN_{outbound}$ delay+ $access_{outbound}$ delay + Internet delay + $access_{inbound}$ delay + $LAN_{inbound}$ delay = ?



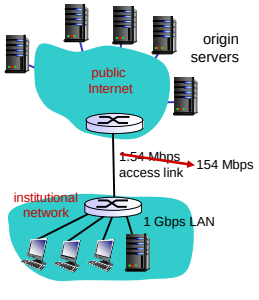
Caching example: fatter access link

assumptions:

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

consequences:

- LAN utilization: ?
- access link utilization = ? → ?
- total delay =
  = 2 sec + minutes + μsecs → msecs



Cost: increased access link speed (not cheap!)

Caching example: install local cache

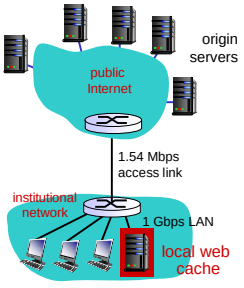
assumptions:

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

consequences:

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

How to compute link utilization, delay?

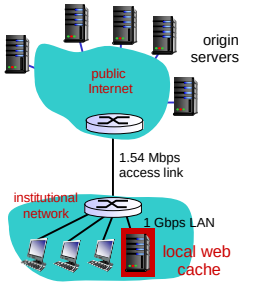


Cost: web cache (cheap!)

Caching example: install local cache

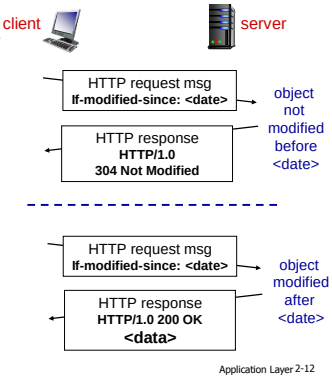
Calculating access link utilization, delay with cache:

- suppose cache hit rate is 0.4
  - 40% requests satisfied at cache, 60% requests satisfied at origin
- access link utilization:
  - 60% of requests use access link
- data rate to browsers over access link = 0.6*1.50 Mbps = .9 Mbps
  - utilization = 0.9/1.54 = .58
- total delay
  - = 0.6 * (delay from origin servers) +0.4 * (delay when satisfied at cache)
  - = 0.6 * (2.01) + 0.4 * (~μsecs)
  - = ~ 1.2 secs
  - less than with 154 Mbps link (and cheaper too!)

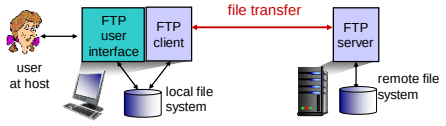


Conditional GET

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



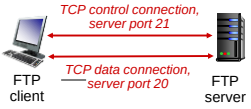
FTP: the file transfer protocol



- 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, using TCP
- client authorized over control connection
- client browses remote directory, sends commands over control connection
- when server receives file transfer command, *server* opens 2nd TCP data 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`**

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

Domain Name System:

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

DNS: services, structure

DNS services

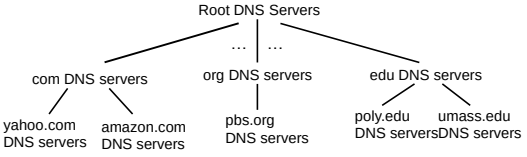
- hostname to IP address translation
- host aliasing
  - canonical, alias names
- mail server aliasing
- load distribution
  - replicated Web servers: many IP addresses correspond to one name

why not centralize DNS?

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

A: doesn't scale!

DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database

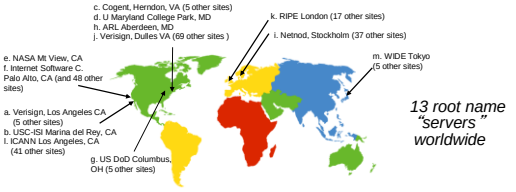


client wants IP for www.amazon.com; 1st approx:

- 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

- 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

TLD, authoritative servers

top-level domain (TLD) servers:

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

authoritative DNS servers:

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

Local DNS name server

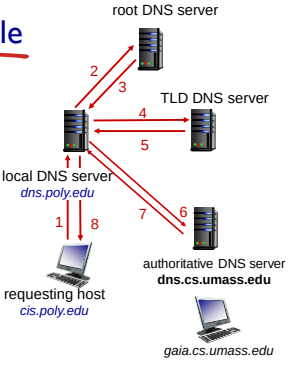
- does not strictly belong to hierarchy
- each ISP (residential ISP, company, university) has one
  - also called "default name server"
- when host makes DNS query, query is sent to its local DNS server
  - has local cache of recent name-to-address translation pairs (but may be out of date!)
  - acts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

DNS name resolution example

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

iterated query:

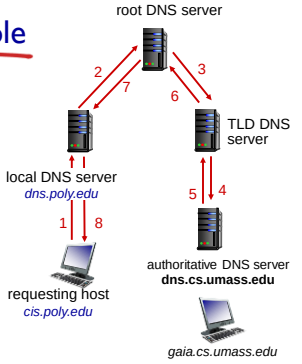
- contacted server replies with name of server to contact
- "I don't know this name, but ask this server"



DNS name resolution example

recursive query:

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



DNS: caching, updating records

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

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

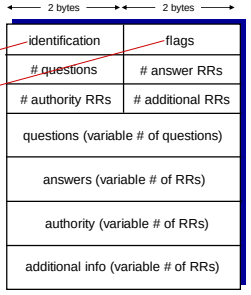
type=CNAME
- **name** is alias name for some "canonical" (the real) name
- **www.ibm.com** is really **servereast.backup2.ibm.com**
- **value** is canonical name

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

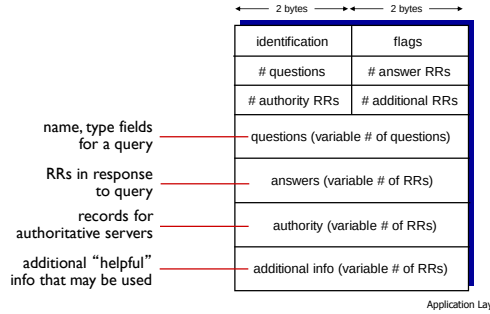
DNS protocol, messages

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

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



DNS protocol, messages



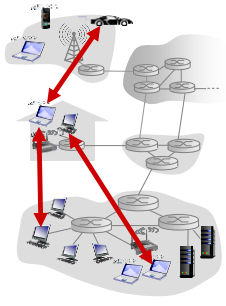
Inserting records into DNS

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

Pure P2P architecture

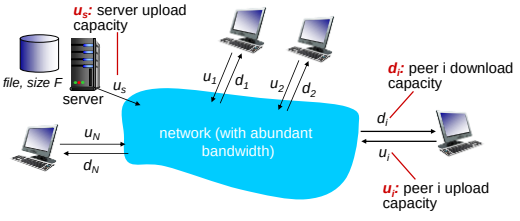
- *no* always-on server
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- peers are intermittently connected and change IP addresses

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



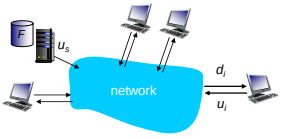
File distribution: client-server vs P2P

Question: how much time to distribute file (size *F*) from one server to *N* peers?
- peer upload/download capacity is limited resource



File distribution time: client-server

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

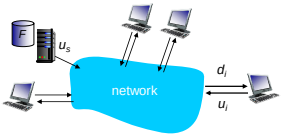


time to distribute F to N clients using client-server approach $D_{c\text{-}s} \geq max\{NF/u_s, F/d_{min}\}$

increases linearly in N

File distribution time: P2P

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



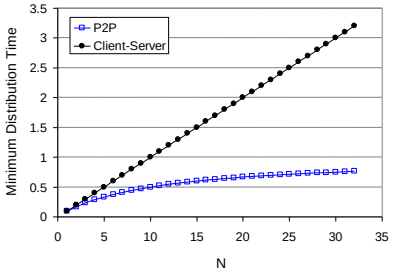
time to distribute F to N clients using P2P approach $D_{P2P} \geq max\{F/u_s, F/d_{min}, NF/(u_s + \Sigma u_i)\}$

increases linearly in *N* …

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

Client-server vs. P2P: example

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

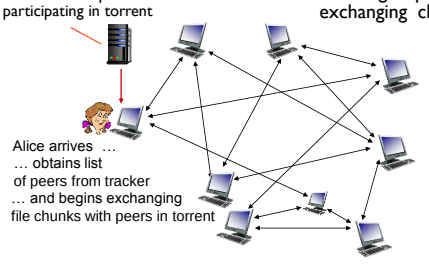


P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

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

tracker: tracks peers participating in torrent

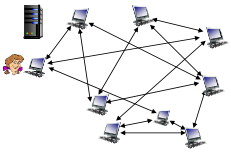
torrent: group of peers exchanging chunks of a file



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

P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

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

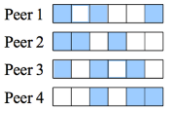


- while downloading, peer uploads chunks to other peers
- peer may change peers with whom it exchanges chunks
- *churn:* peers may come and go
- once peer has entire file, it may (selfishly) leave or (altruistically) remain in torrent

BitTorrent: requesting, sending file chunks

requesting chunks:

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

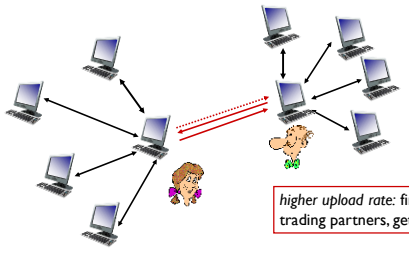


sending chunks: tit-for-tat

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

BitTorrent: tit-for-tat

(1) Alice "optimistically unchokes" Bob
(2) Alice becomes one of Bob's top-four providers; Bob reciprocates
(3) Bob becomes one of Alice's top-four providers



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

Distributed Hash Table (DHT)

- Hash table
- DHT paradigm
- Circular DHT and overlay networks
- Peer churn

Simple Database

Simple database with(key, value) pairs:

- key: human name; value: social security #

Key	Value
John Washington	132-54-3570
Diana Louise Jones	761-55-3791
Xiaoming Liu	385-41-0902
Rakesh Gopal	441-89-1956
Linda Cohen	217-66-5609
.....	.....
Lisa Kobayashi	177-23-0199

- key: movie title; value: IP address

Hash Table

- More convenient to store and search on numerical representation of key
- key = hash(original key)

Original Key	Key	Value
John Washington	8962458	132-54-3570
Diana Louise Jones	7800356	761-55-3791
Xiaoming Liu	1567109	385-41-0902
Rakesh Gopal	2360012	441-89-1956
Linda Cohen	5430938	217-66-5609
.....		.....
Lisa Kobayashi	9290124	177-23-0199

Distributed Hash Table (DHT)

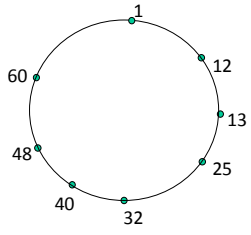
- Distribute (key, value) pairs over millions of peers
  - pairs are evenly distributed over peers
- Any peer can query database with a key
  - database returns value for the key
  - To resolve query, small number of messages exchanged among peers
- Each peer only knows about a small number of other peers
- Robust to peers coming and going (churn)

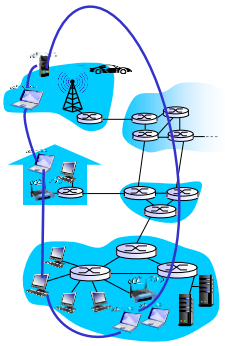
Assign key-value pairs to peers

- rule: assign key-value pair to the peer that has the *closest* ID.
- convention: closest is the *immediate successor* of the key.
- e.g., ID space {0,1,2,3,…,63}
- suppose 8 peers: 1,12,13,25,32,40,48,60
  - If key = 51, then assigned to peer 60
  - If key = 60, then assigned to peer 60
  - If key = 61, then assigned to peer 1

Circular DHT

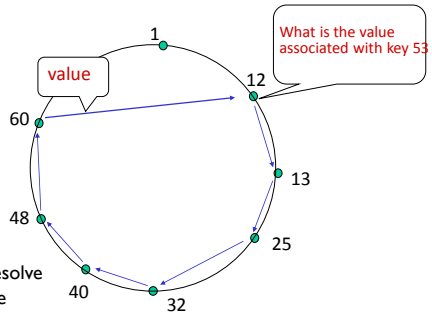
- each peer *only* aware of immediate successor and predecessor.





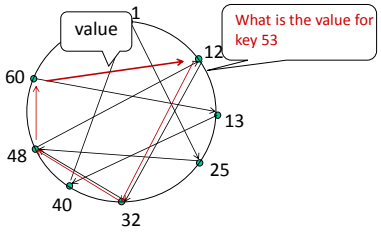
"overlay network"

Resolving a query



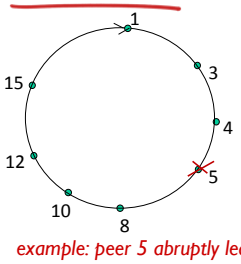
O(N) messages on avgerage to resolve query, when there are *N* peers

Circular DHT with shortcuts



- each peer keeps track of IP addresses of predecessor, successor, short cuts.
- reduced from 6 to 3 messages.
- possible to design shortcuts with *O(log N)* neighbors, *O(log N)* messages in query

Peer churn

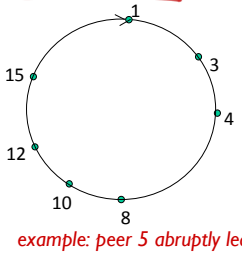


handling peer churn:

- peers may come and go (churn)
- each peer knows address of its two successors
- each peer periodically pings its two successors to check aliveness
- if immediate successor leaves, choose next successor as new immediate successor

example: peer 5 abruptly leaves

Peer churn



handling peer churn:

- peers may come and go (churn)
- each peer knows address of its two successors
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example: peer 5 abruptly leaves

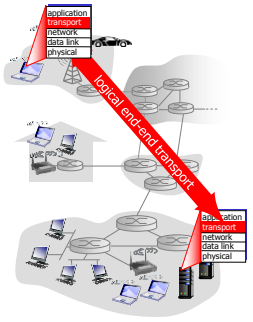
- peer 4 detects peer 5's departure; makes 8 its immediate successor
- 4 asks 8 who its immediate successor is; makes 8's immediate successor its second successor.

Let's move on to **Transport Layer**

- TCP, UDP
- principles, services
- multiplexing, demultiplexing
- reliable data transfer
- flow control
- congestion control

Transport services and protocols

- provide *logical communication* between app processes running on different hosts
- transport protocols run in end systems
  - send side: breaks app messages into *segments*, passes to network layer
  - rcv side: reassembles segments into messages, passes to app layer
- more than one transport protocol available to apps
  - E.g.: TCP and UDP



Transport vs. network layer

- *network layer:* logical communication between hosts
- *transport layer:* logical communication between processes
  - relies on, enhances, network layer services

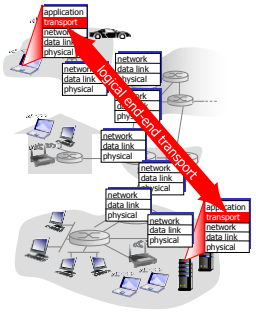
household analogy:

12 kids in Ann's house sending letters to 12 kids in Bill's house:

- hosts = houses
- processes = kids
- app messages = (long) letters
- segments= letters in envelopes
- transport protocol = Ann and Bill who demux to in-house siblings
- network-layer protocol = postal service

Internet transport-layer protocols

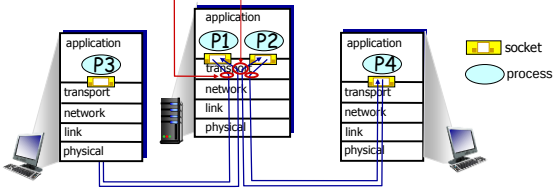
- reliable, in-order delivery (TCP)
  - congestion control
  - flow control
  - connection setup
- unreliable, unordered delivery: UDP
  - no-frills extension of "best-effort" IP
- services not available:
  - delay guarantees
  - bandwidth guarantees



Multiplexing/demultiplexing

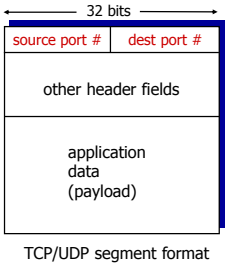
multiplexing at sender: handle data from multiple sockets, add transport header (later used for demultiplexing)

demultiplexing at receiver: use header info to deliver received segments to correct socket



How demultiplexing works

- host receives IP datagrams
  - each datagram has source IP address, destination IP address
  - each datagram carries one transport-layer segment
  - each segment has source, destination port number
- host uses *IP addresses & port numbers* to direct segment to appropriate socket



TCP/UDP segment format

Connectionless demultiplexing

- *recall:* created socket has host-local port #:

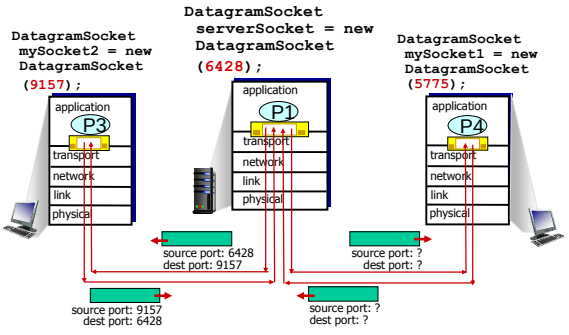
```
DatagramSocket mySocket1
= new DatagramSocket(12534);
```

- *recall:* when creating datagram to send into UDP socket, must specify
  - destination IP address
  - destination port #

- when host receives UDP segment:
  - checks destination port # in segment
  - directs UDP segment to socket with that port #

IP datagrams with *same dest. port #,* but different source IP addresses and/or source port numbers will be directed to *same socket* at dest

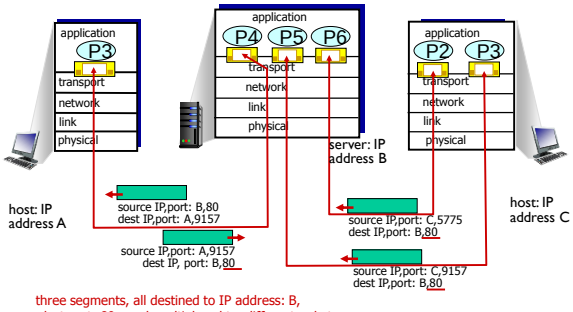
Connectionless demux: example



Connection-oriented demux

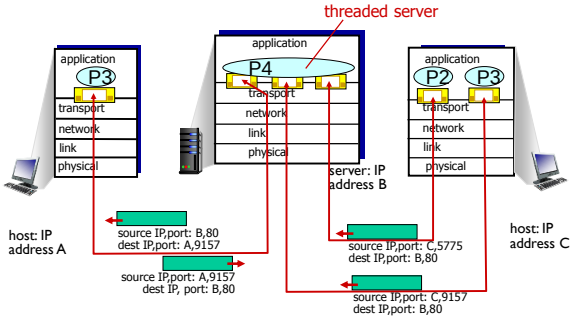
- TCP socket identified by 4-tuple:
  - source IP address
  - source port number
  - dest IP address
  - dest port number
- demux: receiver uses all four values to direct segment to appropriate socket
- server host may support many simultaneous TCP sockets:
  - each socket identified by its own 4-tuple
- web servers have different sockets for each connecting client
  - non-persistent HTTP will have different socket for each request

Connection-oriented demux: example

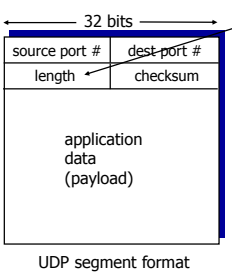


three segments, all destined to IP address: B, dest port: 80 are demultiplexed to *different* sockets

Connection-oriented demux: example



UDP: segment header



UDP segment format

length, in bytes of UDP segment, including header

why is there a UDP?

- no connection establishment (which can add delay)
- simple: no connection state at sender, receiver
- small header size
- no congestion control: UDP can blast away as fast as desired

UDP checksum

Goal: detect "errors" (e.g., flipped bits) in transmitted segment

sender:

- treat segment contents, including header fields, as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
  - NO - error detected
  - YES - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?* More later ….

Internet checksum: example

example: add two 16-bit integers

	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
wraparound	(1)	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
sum	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0
checksum	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1

Note: when adding numbers, a carryout from the most significant bit needs to be added to the result

Next weeks

- Reliable data transfer
- Connection-oriented transport
- TCP