Application Layer

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Lecturer: Prof. Xiaoming Fu Assistants: Yachao Shao (MSc), Fabian Wölk (MSc)



Chapter 2: The Application Layer

Our goals:

- Conceptual aspects of network application protocols
 - client-server paradigm
 - peer-to-peer paradigm
- learn about protocols by examining popular application-level protocols
 - HTTP
 - SMTP, IMAP
 - DNS



Application Layer

- 2.1 Principles of network applications
- 2.2 Web and HTTP
- 2.3 E-mail, SMTP,
 IMAP
- 2.4 The Domain Name System DNS
- 2.5 P2P applications



Some network apps

- o e-mail
- o web
- text messaging
- o remote login
- P2P file sharing
- multi-user network games
- streaming stored
 video (YouTube,
 Hulu, Netflix)

- voice over IP (e.g., Skype)
- real-time video conferencing
- \circ social networking
- Internet search
- 0 ...
- 0 ...



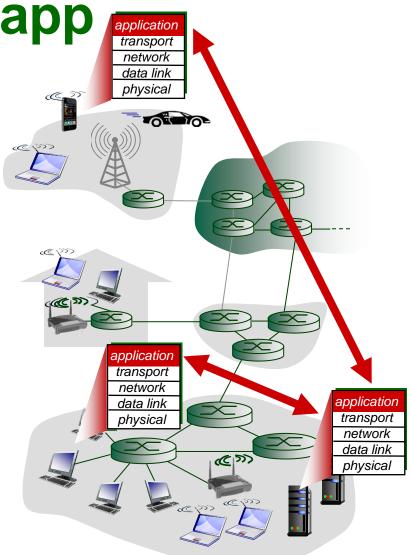
Creating a network app

write programs that:

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

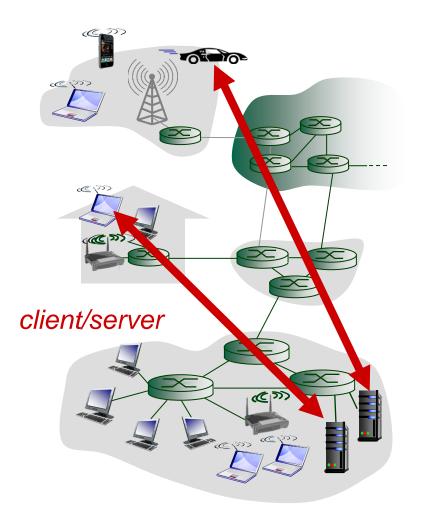
no need to write software for network-core devices

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





Client-server architecture



server:

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

clients:

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



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 via sockets (later in transport layer)

- clients, servers

- *client process:* process that initiates communication
- server process: process that waits to be contacted
- aside: applications with P2P architectures have client processes & server processes



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?
 - <u>A</u>: 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

open protocols:

- defined in RFCs
- allows for interoperability
- e.g., HTTP, SMTPproprietary protocols:
- o e.g., Skype



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Web and HTTP

First, a review...

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

www.someschool.edu/someDept/pic.gif

host name

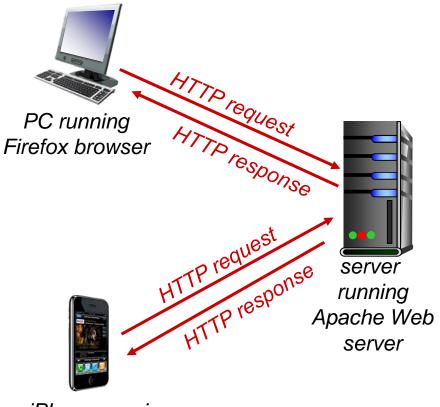
path name



HTTP overview

HTTP: hypertext transfer protocol

- Web's application layer protocol
- client/server model
 - client: browser that requests, receives, (using HTTP protocol) and "displays" Web objects
 - server: Web server sends (using HTTP protocol) objects in response to requests



iPhone running Safari browser



HTTP overview (continued)

uses TCP:

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

HTTP is "stateless"

 server maintains no information about past client requests

aside-

protocols that maintain "state" are complex!

- past history (state) must be maintained
- if server/client crashes, their views of "state" may be inconsistent, must be reconciled



HTTP connections: two types

non-persistent HTTP

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

downloading multiple objects required multiple connections

persistent HTTP

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

• TCP connection closed



Non-persistent HTTP

suppose user enters URL:

www.someSchool.edu/someDepartment/home.index

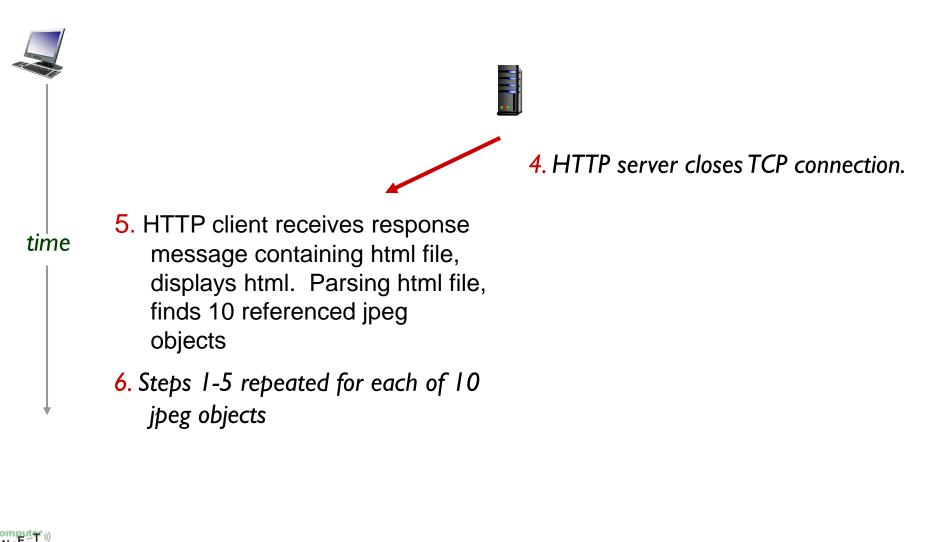
- 1a. HTTP client initiates TCP connection to HTTP server (process) at www.someSchool.edu on port 80
- 2. HTTP client sends HTTP request message (containing URL) into TCP connection socket. Message indicates that client wants object someDepartment/home.index

time

(contains text, references to 10 jpeg images)

- Ib. HTTP server at host
 www.someSchool.edu waiting for
 TCP connection at port 80.
 "accepts " connection, notifying client
- 3. HTTP server receives request message, forms response message containing requested object, and sends message into its socket

Non-persistent HTTP



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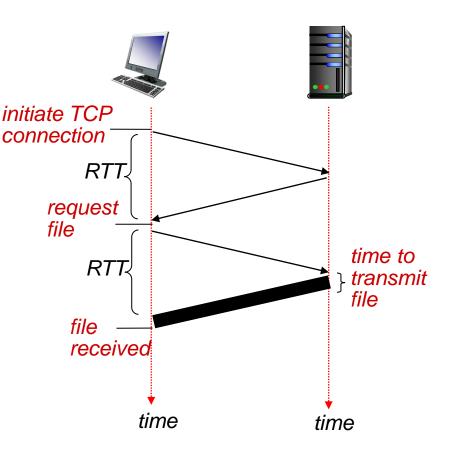
Non-persistent HTTP: response time

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
- o file transmission time
- non-persistent HTTP response time =

2RTT+ file transmission time





Persistent HTTP

non-persistent HTTP issues:

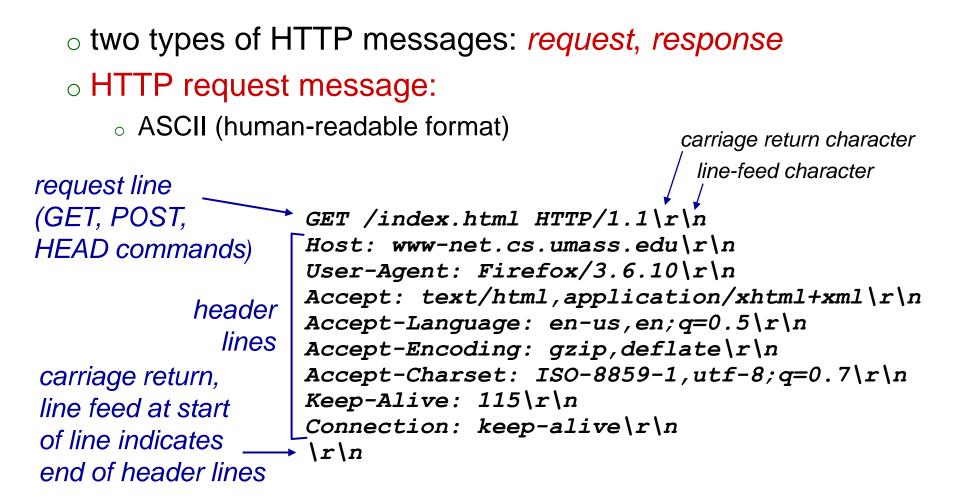
- requires 2 RTTs per object
- OS overhead for *each* TCP connection
- browsers often open multiple parallel TCP connections to fetch referenced objects in parallel

persistent HTTP (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)



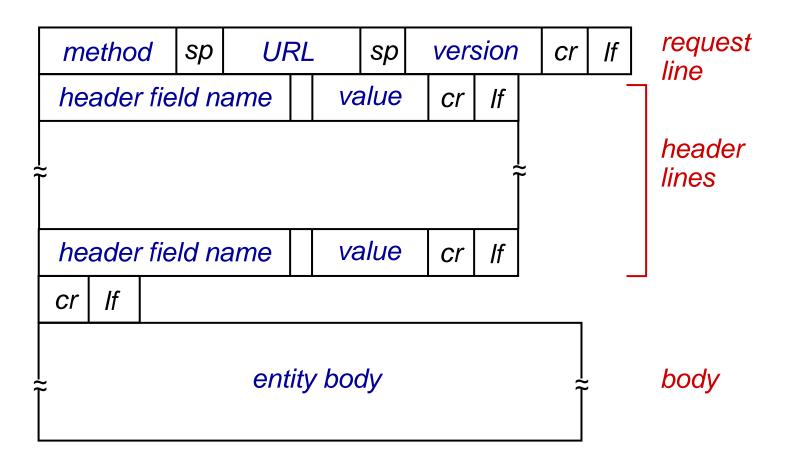
HTTP request message





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

HTTP request message: general format





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:

- 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
 - requests headers

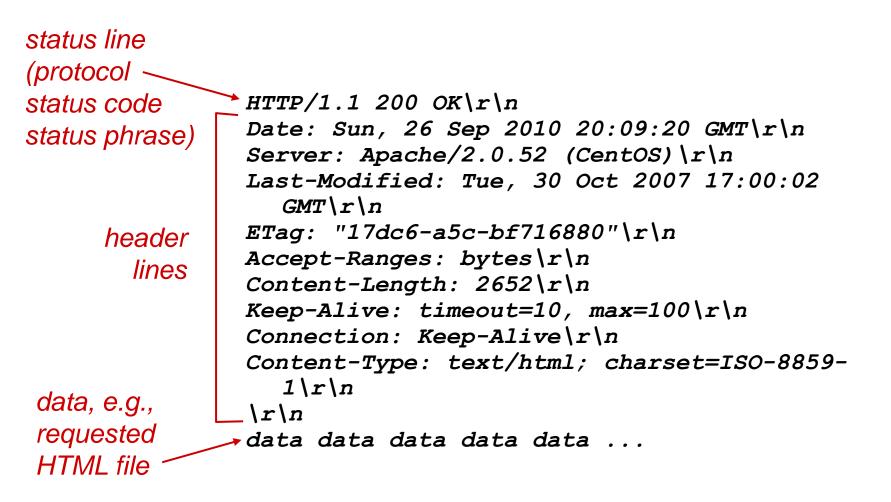
 (only) that would be
 returned *if* specified
 URL were requested
 with an HTTP GET
 method.

HTTP/1.1:

- GET, POST, HEAD
- o PUT
 - uploads new file (object) to server
 - completely replaces file that exists at specified URL with content in entity body of POST HTTP request message
- DELETE
 - deletes file specified in the URL field



HTTP response message



HTTP response status codes

- status code appears in 1st line in server-toclient response message.
- o some sample codes:

200 OK

 $_{\circ}$ request succeeded, requested object later in this msg

301 Moved Permanently

 requested object moved, new location specified later in this msg (Location:)

400 Bad Request

request msg not understood by server

404 Not Found

 $_{\circ}$ $\,$ requested document not found on this server $\,$

505 HTTP Version Not Supported

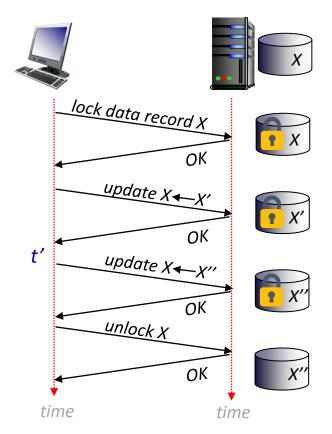


User-server state: cookies

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-nevercompletely-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'?

Application Layer

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User-server state: cookies

many Web sites use cookies

four components:

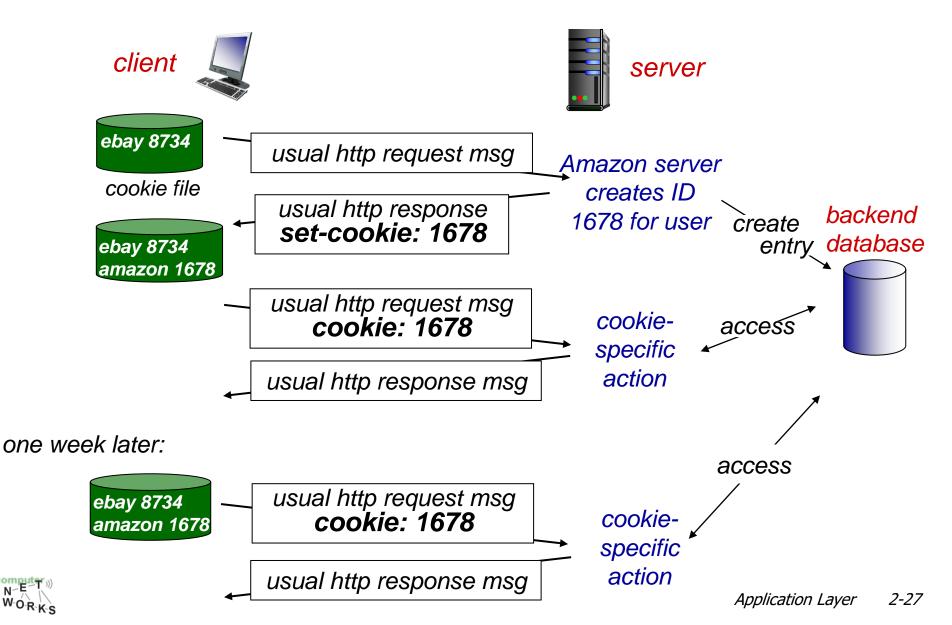
- 1) cookie header line of HTTP *response* message
- 2) cookie header line in next HTTP *request* message
- cookie file kept on user's host, managed by user's browser
- 4) back-end database at Web site

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



Cookies: keeping "state" (cont.)



Cookies (continued)

what cookies can be used for:

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

how to keep "state":

 at protocol endpoints: maintain state at sender/receiver over multiple transactions

 in messages: cookies in HTTP messages carry state cookies and privacy:

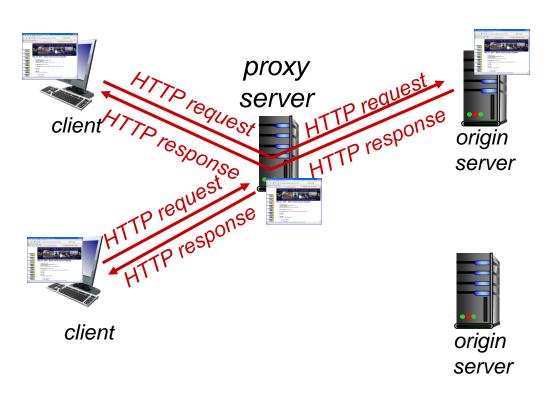
- cookies permit sites to learn a lot about you on their site.
- third party persistent cookies (tracking cookies) allow common identity (cookie value) to be tracked across multiple web sites



Web caches (proxy server)

goal: satisfy client request 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





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)
- server tells cache about object's allowable caching in response header:

Cache-Control: max-age=<seconds>

why Web caching?

- reduce response time for client request
 - cache is closer to client
- 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)
- Faster and cheaper as buying faster access links!



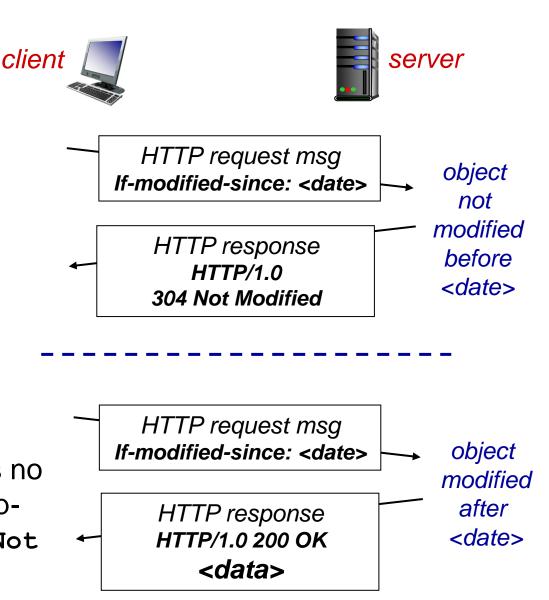
Cache-Control: no-cache

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 upto-date: HTTP/1.0 304 Not Modified







Key goal: decreased delay in multi-object HTTP requests

<u>HTTP1.1:</u> 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





Key goal: decreased delay in multi-object HTTP requests

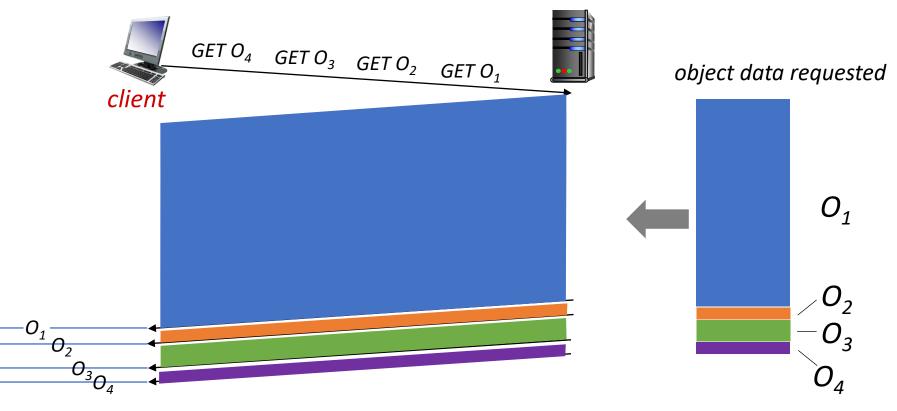
<u>HTTP/2:</u> [RFC 7540, 2015] increased flexibility at server in sending objects to client:

- 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)
- o push unrequested objects to client
- divide objects into frames, schedule frames to mitigate HOL blocking



HTTP/2: mitigating HOL blocking

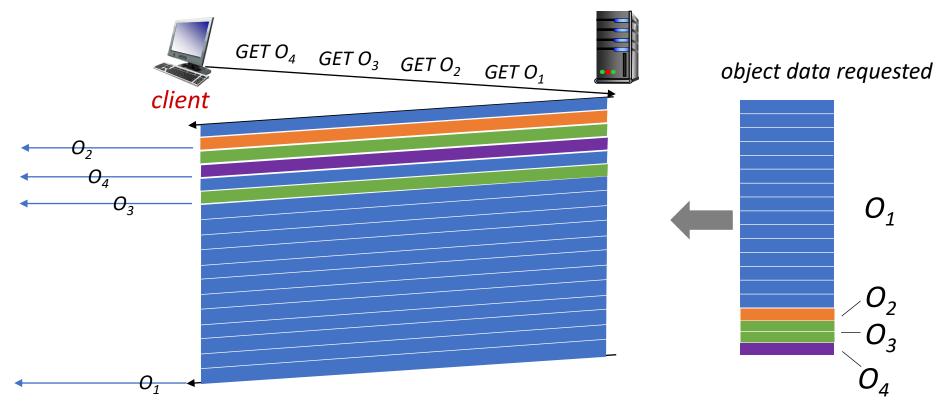
HTTP 1.1: client requests 1 large object (e.g., video file) and 3 smaller objects



objects delivered in order requested: O_2 , O_3 , O_4 wait behind O_1 Application Layer 2-34

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

HTTP/2 over single TCP connection means:

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



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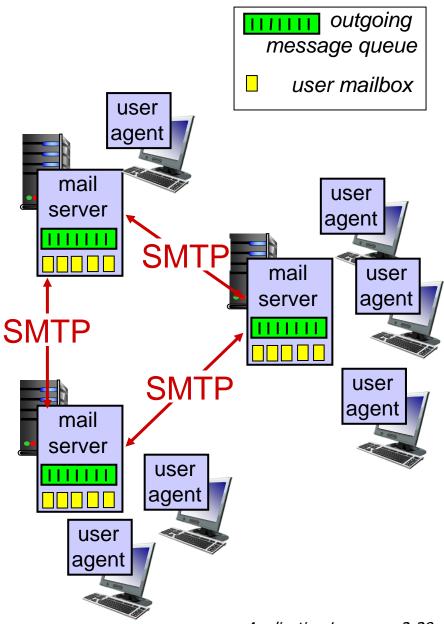
Electronic mail

Three major components:

- o 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

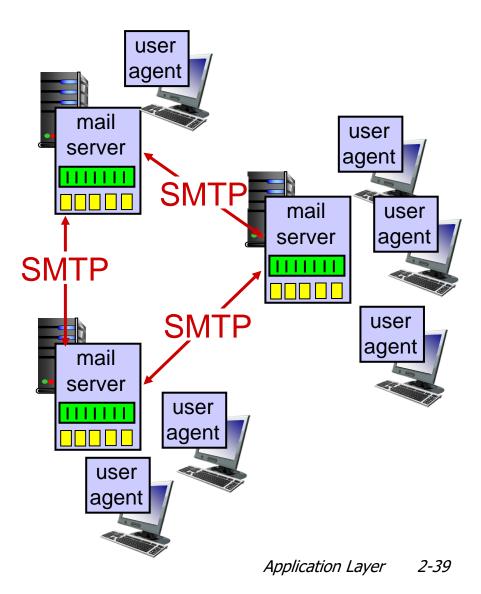




Electronic mail: mail servers

mail servers:

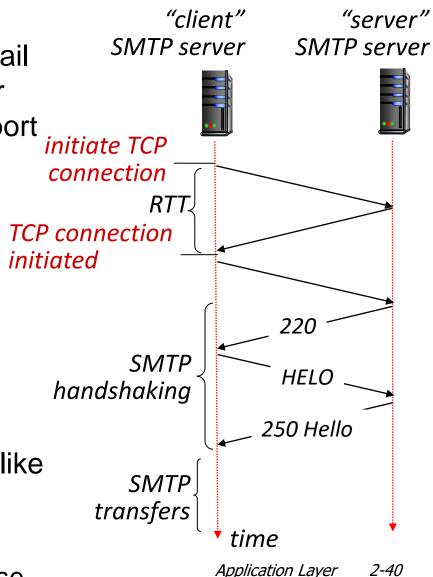
- *mailbox* contains incoming messages for user
- message queue of outgoing (to be sent) mail messages
- SMTP protocol between mail servers to send email messages
 - client: sending mail server
 - "server": receiving mail server





Electronic Mail: SMTP [RFC 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



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:

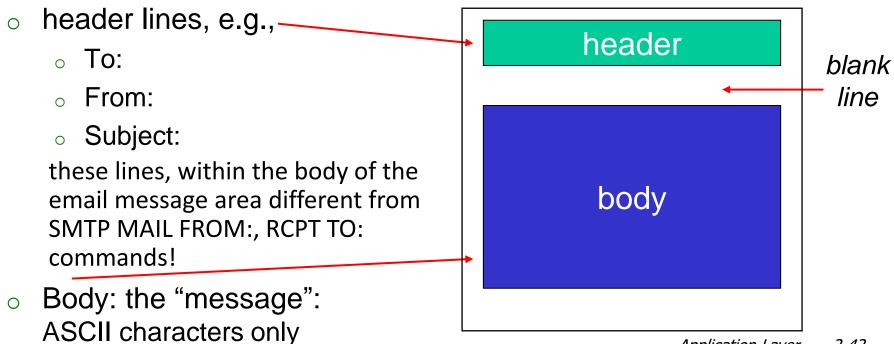
- HTTP: client pull
- SMTP: client push
- both have ASCII
 command/response
 interaction, status codes
- HTTP: each object encapsulated in its own response message
- SMTP: multiple objects sent in multipart message



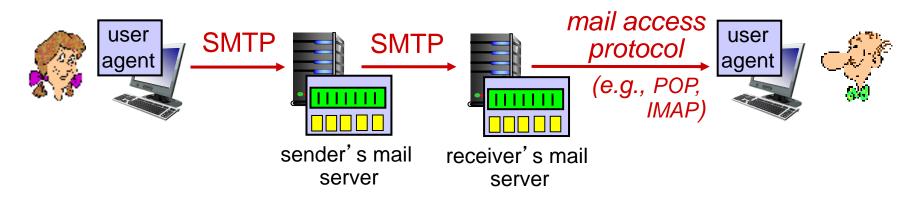
Mail message format

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)



Mail access protocols



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



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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: 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 applicationlayer protocol
 - complexity at network's "edge"



DNS: services, structure

DNS services

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

Q: why not centralize DNS?

- single point of failure
- traffic volume
- distant centralized database
- \circ 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:



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

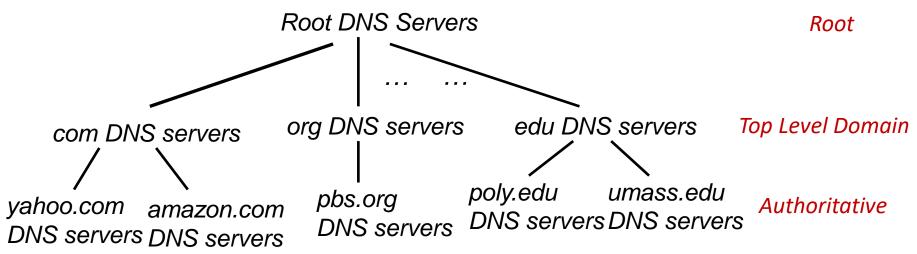
organizationally, physically decentralized:

 millions of different organizations responsible for their records

"bulletproof": reliability, security



DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database



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

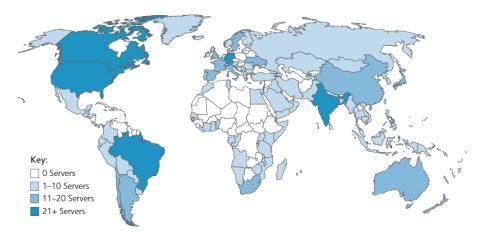
- client queries root server to find com DNS server
- client queries .com DNS server to get amazon.com DNS server
- client queries amazon.com DNS server to get IP address for www.amazon.com



DNS: root name servers

- official, contact-of-lastresort 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)





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 authoritative registry for .com, .net 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
 - Local DNS server returns reply, answering:
 - from its local cache of recent name-to-address translation pairs (but may be out of date!)
 - acts as proxy, forwards query into DNS hierarchy for resolution

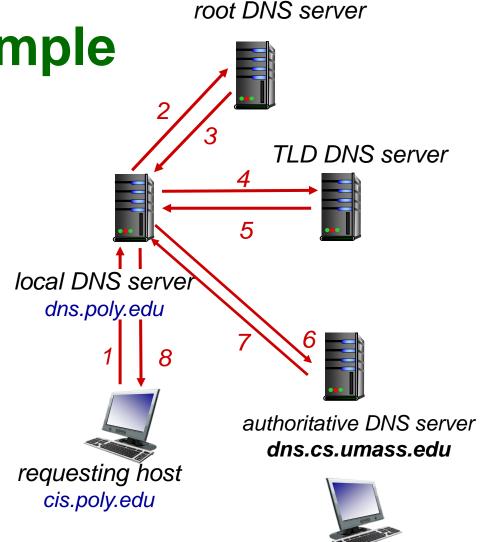


DNS name resolution example

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"



gaia.cs.umass.edu

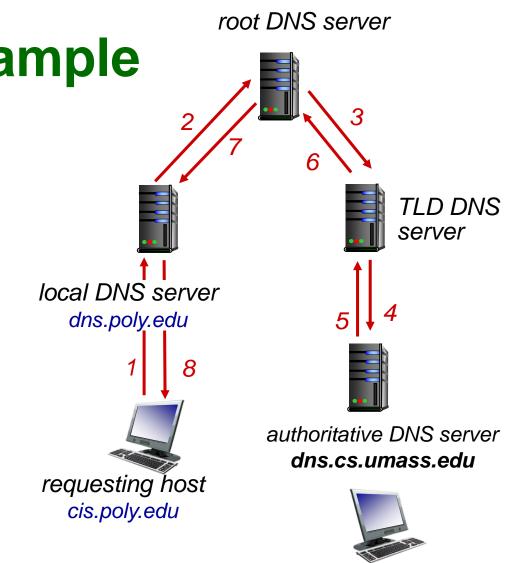


DNS name resolution example

host at cis.poly.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?







DNS: caching, updating records

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



DNS records

DNS: distributed database storing resource records

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

<u>type=A</u>

(RR

- 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

<u>type=CNAME</u>

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

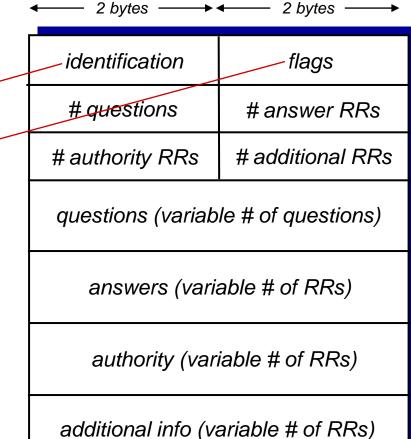
<u>type=MX</u>

 value is name of mailserver associated with name



DNS protocol, messages

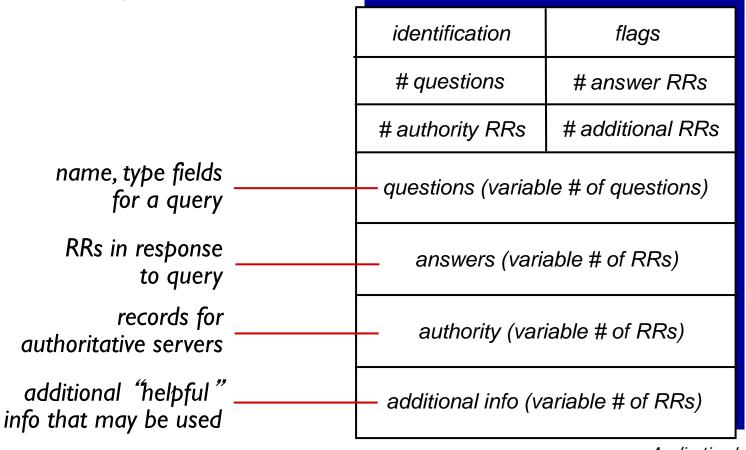
- query and reply messages, both with same message format
 2 bytes 2 by
- flags:
 - query or reply
 - recursion desired
 - recursion available
 - reply is authoritative





DNS protocol, messages

query and reply messages, both with same
 message format
 2 bytes - 2 bytes - 2 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 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



Attacking DNS

DDoS attacks

- bombard root servers with traffic
 - not successful to date
 - o 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



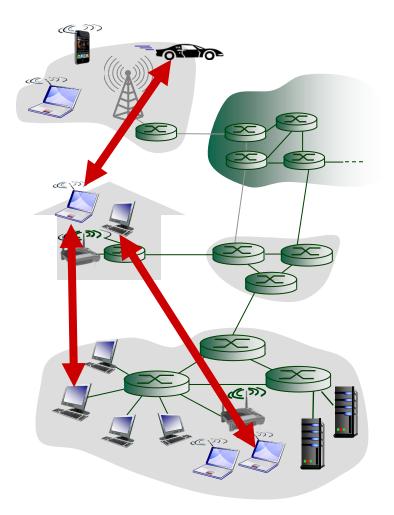
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Pure P2P architecture

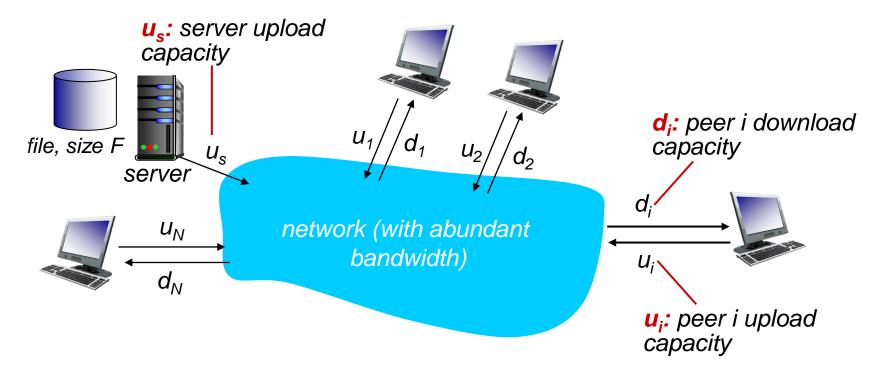
- o no always-on server
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- peers are intermittently connected and change IP addresses
- peers request service from other peers, provide service in return to other peers
 - self scalability new peers bring new service capacity, and new service demands
 - examples: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



File distribution: client-server vs P2P

<u>Question</u>: 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:
 - $_{\circ}$ 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

$$F$$

$$u_s$$

$$d_i$$

$$d_i$$

$$u_i$$

$$D_{c-s} \ge max\{NF/u_{s,}, F/d_{min}\}$$

increases linearly in N

Application Layer

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

increases linearly in N

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



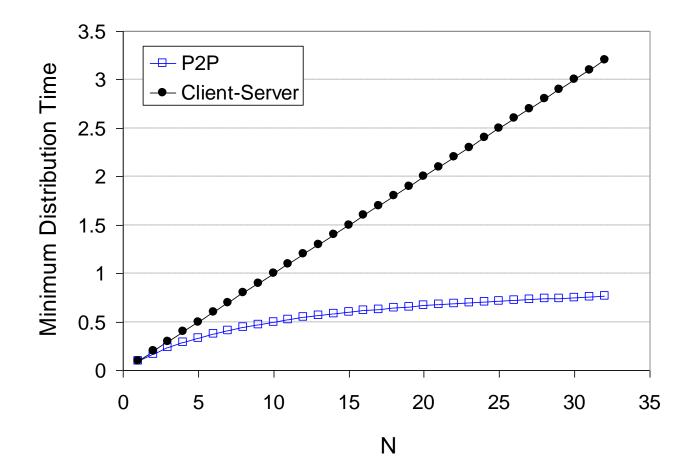
 d_i

U;

network

Client-server vs. P2P: example

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





Chapter 2: summary

our study of network apps now complete!

- application architectures
 - client-server
 - P2P

specific protocols:
HTTP
SMTP, IMAP
DNS



Chapter 2: summary

most importantly: learned about protocols!

- typical request/reply message exchange:
 - client requests info or service
 - server responds with data, status code
- message formats:
 - *headers*: fields giving info about data
 - *data:* info(payload)
 being communicated

important themes:

centralized vs.
 decentralized

o stateless vs. stateful



Additional slides



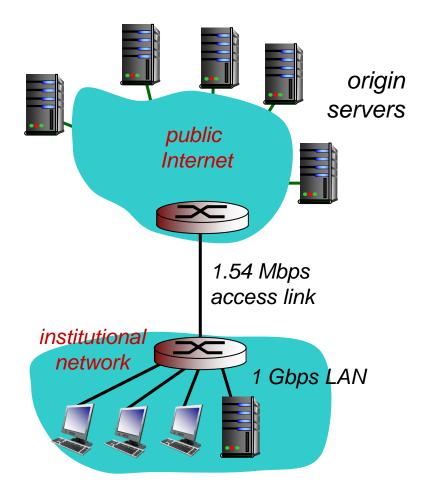
Caching example:

assumptions:

- o 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
- o access link rate: 1.54 Mbps

consequences:

- LAN utilization: 15%
- access link utilization = 99% problem!
- total delay = Internet delay + access delay
 + LAN delay
 - = 2 sec + minutes + usecs





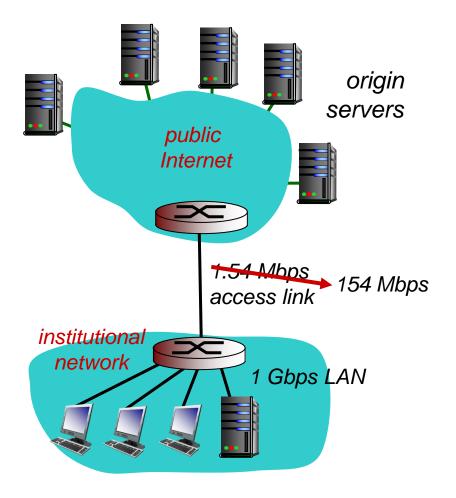
Caching example: fatter access link

assumptions:

- o 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
- o access link rate: 1.54 Mbps 154 Mbps

consequences:

- LAN utilization: 15%
- access link utilization = ??% 9.9%
- total delay = Internet delay + access delay
 + LAN delay
 - = 2 sec + minutes + usecs msecs



Cost: increased access link speed (not cheap!)

Caching example: install local cache

assumptions:

- avg object size: I 00K bits
- avg request rate from browsers to origin servers: I 5/sec
- o avg data rate to browsers: 1.50 Mbps
- RTT from institutional router to any origin server: 2 sec
- o access link rate: 1.54 Mbps

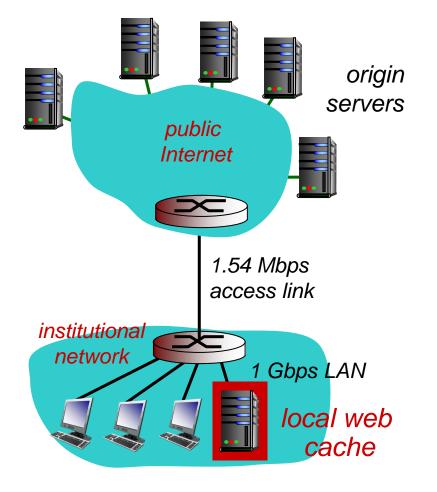
consequences:

- LAN utilization: 15%
- access link utilization = 1 ?
- \circ total delay = I ?

N-E-T» W-O-R-K-S

How to compute link utilization, delay?

Cost: web cache (cheap!)

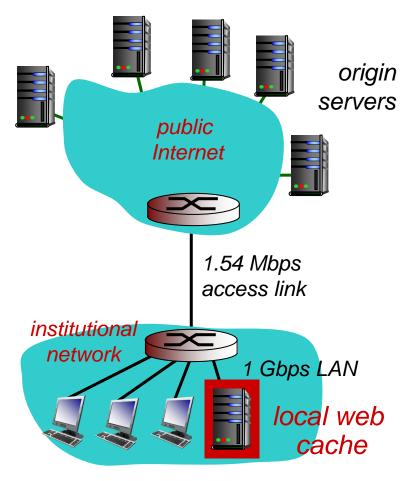


Caching example: install local cache

Calculating access link utilization, delay with cache:

suppose cache hit rate is 0.4

- 40% requests satisfied at cache,
 60% requests satisfied at origin
- o access link utilization:
 - o 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
- o total delay
 - = 0.6 * (delay from origin servers) +0.4 * (delay when satisfied at cache)
 - \circ = 0.6 (2.01) + 0.4 (~msecs) = ~ 1.2 secs
 - less than with 154 Mbps link (and cheaper too!)



Sample SMTP interaction

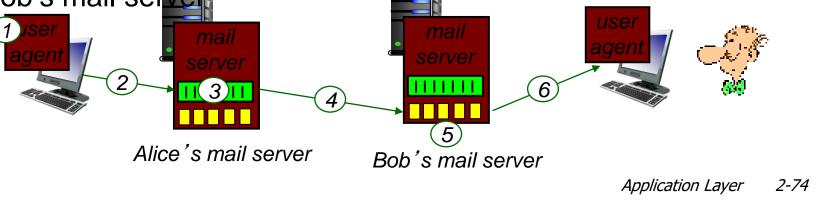
- S: 220 hamburger.edu
- C: HELO crepes.fr
- S: 250 Hello crepes.fr, pleased to meet you
- C: MAIL FROM: <alice@crepes.fr>
- S: 250 alice@crepes.fr... Sender ok
- C: RCPT TO: <bob@hamburger.edu>
- S: 250 bob@hamburger.edu ... Recipient ok
- C: DATA
- S: 354 Enter mail, end with "." on a line by itself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



Scenario: Alice sends message to Bob

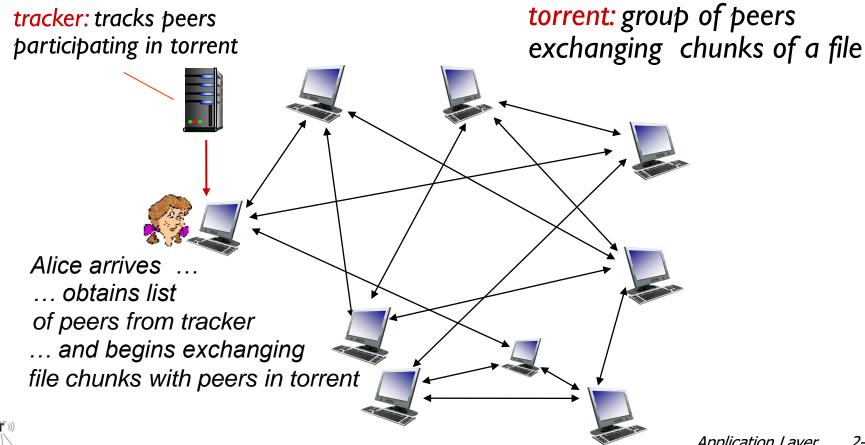
- 1) Alice uses UA to compose message "to" bob@someschool.edu
- Alice's UA sends message to her mail server; message placed in message queue
- 3) client side of SMTP opens TCP connection with Bob's mail server

- 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



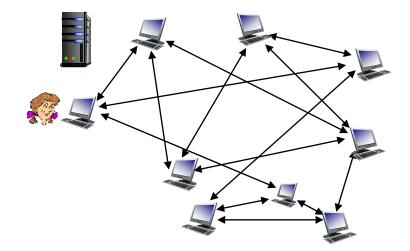
P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

- file divided into 256Kb chunks
- o 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
- o 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)
 - o 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

