

# **COMPUTER NETWORKS & INTERNET PROTOCOLS NOTES**

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## INTRODUCTION TO COMPUTER NETWORKS

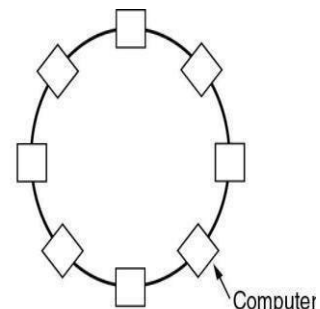
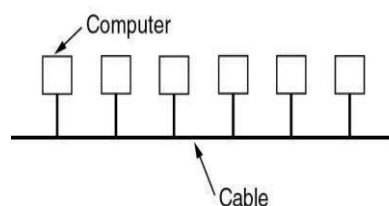
### Computer Networks:

- ✓ A network consists of two or more computers that are linked in order to share resources exchange files, or allow electronic communications.
- ✓ The computers on a network may be linked through cables, telephone lines, radio waves, satellites, or infrared light beams.
- ✓ In network design two dimensions stand out as important: **transmission technology and scale**.
- ✓ There are two types of transmission technology that are in widespread use: **broadcast links and point-to-point links**.
  - **Point-to-point links:**
    - It connects individual pairs of machines. To go from the source to the destination on a network made up of point-to-point links, short messages, called packets in certain contexts, may have to first visit one or more intermediate machines. Point-to-point transmission with exactly one sender and exactly one receiver is sometimes called **unicasting**.
  - **Broadcast network:**
    - The communication channel is shared by all the machines on the network; packets sent by any machine are received by all the others. An address field within each packet specifies the intended recipient. Upon receiving a packet, a machine checks the address field. If the packet is intended for the receiving machine, that machine processes the packet; if the packet is intended for some other machine, it is just ignored.
    - Broadcast systems usually also allow the possibility of addressing a packet to all destinations by using a special code in the address field. When a packet with this code is transmitted, it is received and processed by every machine on the network. This mode of operation is called **broadcasting**. Some broadcast systems also support transmission to a subset of the machines, which known as **multicasting**.
- ✓ An alternative criterion for classifying networks is by **scale**.

Interprocessor distance	Processors located in same	Example
1m	Square meter	Personal area network
10m	Room	
100 m	Building	Local area network
1 km	Campus	
10km	City	Metropolitan area network
100 km	Country	
1000 km	Continent	Wide area network
10,000 km	Planet	The internet

## Network Hardware

- ✓ Different Types of Networks
  - Depending upon the geographical area covered by a network, it is classified as:
    - Personal Area Network (PAN)
    - Local Area Network (LAN)
    - Metropolitan Area Network (MAN)
    - Wide Area Network (WAN)
    - Internet networks
  - **Personal Area Network (PAN)**
    - A personal area network (PAN) is a computer network used for communication among computer devices, including telephones and personal digital assistants, in proximity to an individual's body.
    - The devices may or may not belong to the person in question. The reach of a PAN is typically a few meters.
  - **Local Area Network (LAN)**
    - A LAN is a network that is used for communicating among computer devices, usually within an office building or home.
    - LAN's enable the sharing of resources such as files or hardware devices that may be needed by multiple users.
    - It is limited in size, typically spanning a few hundred meters, and no more than a mile.
    - It is fast, with speeds from 10 Mbps to 10 Gbps.
    - Requires little wiring, typically using a single cable connecting to each device.
    - LAN's can be either wired or wireless. Twisted pair, coax or fiber optic cable can be used in wired LAN's.
    - Every LAN uses a protocol – a set of rules that govern how packets are configured and transmitted.
    - It has lower cost compared to MAN's or WAN's
    - Nodes in a LAN are linked together with a certain topology. These topologies include: Bus, Ring, Star.
    - Requires little wiring, typically using a single cable connecting to each device.
    - Types of LANs: The three most common types of LAN are:
      - Cable based LAN
      - Private Branch Exchange (PBX)
      - Hierarchical networks

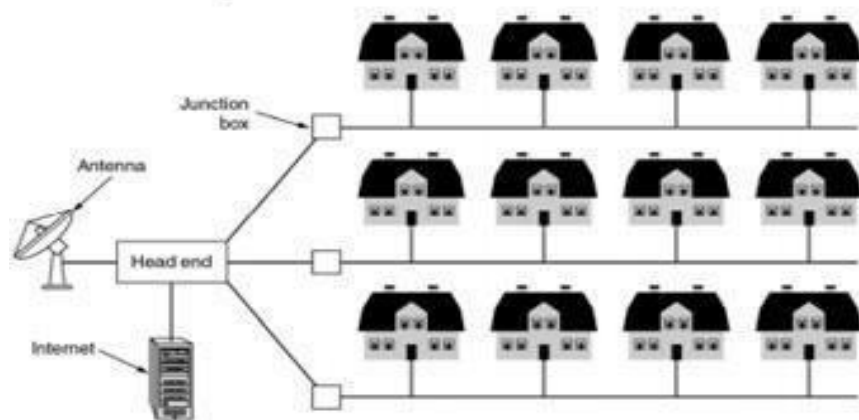


- Advantages of LAN

- Speed
- Security
- ResourceSharing
- DisadvantagesofLAN
  - ExpensiveTo Install
  - RequiresAdministrativeTime
  - FileServerMayFail
  - CablesMayBreak

○ **MetropolitanAreaNetwork(MAN)**

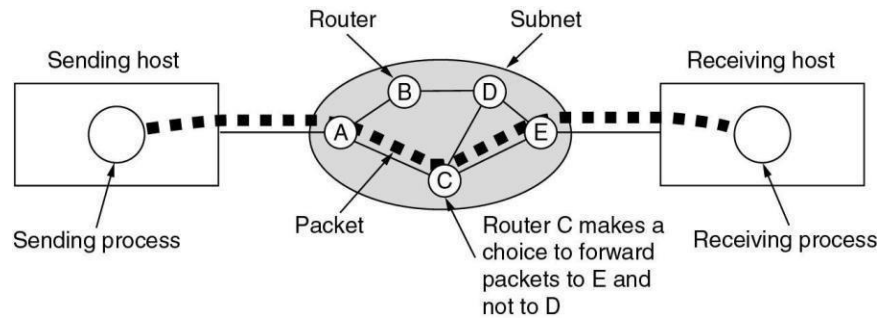
- The area that is covered by this network is larger than that in LAN but smaller than that in WAN, i.e it covers the entire city.
- Itusessimilartechnologyas LAN.
- It can be a single network such as cable TV network, or a measure of connecting a number of LAN's o a large network so that resources can be shared LAN to LAN as well as device to device.
- Itmayhaveahighdata transfer rate,100 Mbits/Secormore.



- Advantages:
  - Fast&efficientindatatransmission.
  - Possibilitytoconnectcomputersinonecity.
- Disadvantages:
  - Rarelyused.
  - Difficultyin maintainingMANduetoits largesize.

○ **WideAreaNetwork(WAN)**

- When network spans over a large distance or when the computers to be connected to each other are at widely separated locations a local area network cannot be used.
- The communication between different users of WAN is established using leased telephone lines, satellite links and similar channels.
- Itis cheaperand moreefficient tousethephonenetworkforthe link.
- Most WAN networks are used to transfer large blocks of data between its users.



- Advantages:
  - The speed of WAN can be very slow and this can be a major source of frustration.
  - The cost of setting up WAN especially in remote areas can be extremely high.
  - Possibility to connect thousands of computers.
  - Possibility to connect different LANs owned by different organizations.
- Disadvantages:
  - Requires expensive hardware & software.
  - Hard to operate
  - Requires special kind of programs.

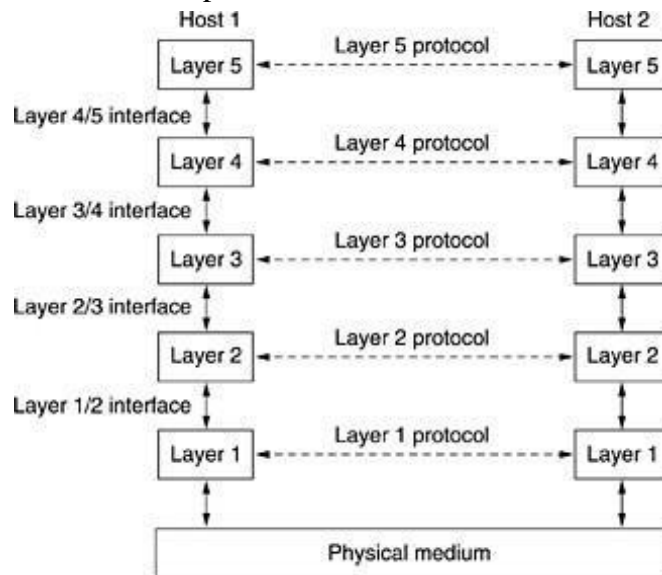
#### ○ Internetworks

- Many networks exist in the world, often with different hardware and software. People connected to one network often want to communicate with people attached to a different one. The fulfillment of this desire requires that different, and frequently incompatible networks, be connected, sometimes by means of machines called gateways to make the connection and provide the necessary translation, both in terms of hardware and software.
- A collection of interconnected networks is called an internetwork or internet. These terms will be used in a generic sense, in contrast to the worldwide Internet, which we will always capitalize.
- An internetwork is formed when distinct networks are interconnected. In our view, connecting a LAN and a WAN or connecting two LANs forms an internetwork, but there is little agreement in the industry over terminology in this area.
- One rule of thumb is that if different organizations paid to construct different parts of the network and each maintains its part, we have an internetwork rather than a single network. Also, if the underlying technology is different in different parts (e.g., broadcast versus point-to-point), we probably have two networks.

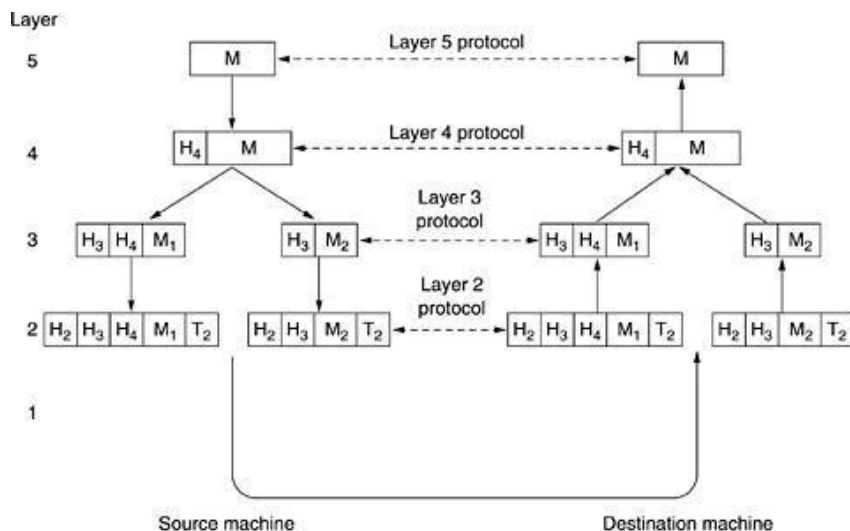
## Network Software

### ✓ Protocol Hierarchies

- To reduce their design complexity, most networks are organized as a stack of layers or levels, each one built upon the one below it.
- The purpose of each layer is to offer certain services to the higher layers, shielding those layers from the details of how the offered services are actually implemented.
- A protocol is an agreement between the communicating parties on how communication is to proceed.



- Interface: Between each pair of adjacent layers is an interface.
- Network architecture: A set of layers and protocols is called a network architecture.
- Protocol stack: A list of protocols used by a certain system, one protocol per layer, is called a protocol stack.
- An example network protocol stack



- Message is generated by the application of the source machine.
- Message will be sent from the source to the destination.
- Message “M” is transferred from layer 5 to layer 4, with a header containing control information, such as sequence numbers, which helps layer 4 maintain the message order.
- Layer 3 breaks the message from layer 4 into two pieces to fit the transmission restrictions, while adding another header to tell layer 2 where the destination is.
- Layer 2 adds the messages from layer 3 with another header, telling the actual (physical) address of the destination, and a trailer, which is the checksum of the message for correction assertion.
- At the receiving machine the message moves upward, from layer to layer, with headers being stripped off as it progresses. Message is sent to the destination machine.
- Design Issues for the Layers
  - Every layer needs some mechanism for identifying senders and receivers.
  - The protocol must also determine how many logical channels the connection corresponds to and what their priorities are. (simplex or duplex? single or multiple channel?)
  - Error control is an important issue because physical communication circuits are not perfect.
  - Message ordering is important ‘cause Not all communication channels preserve the order of messages sent on them.
  - An issue that occurs at every level is how to keep a fast sender from swamping a slow receiver with data.
  - Inability of all processes to accept arbitrarily long messages. (fragmentation and reassembling the messages)
- Connection-Oriented and Connectionless Services
  - Connection-Oriented Service: the service user first establishes a connection, uses the connection, and then releases the connection. (e.g., the telephone, tube)
  - Connectionless Service: Each message carries the full destination address, and each one is routed through the system independent of all the others. (e.g., the postal system) Usually, connectionless service cannot guarantee the order of messages.
  - In order to enhance the reliability of transmission of connection-oriented service, acknowledge each received message is helpful. For example, the files transfer.
  - However, some applications prefer fast speed than the reliability. For example, the digitized voice traffic, video conference.
- Service Primitives

Primitive	Meaning
LISTEN	Block waiting for an incoming connection
CONNECT	Establish a connection with a waiting peer
RECEIVE	Block waiting for an incoming message
SEND	Send a message to the peer
DISCONNECT	Terminate a connection

## OSI Reference model

- ✓ This model is developed by the International Standards Organization (ISO) as the first step toward international standardization of the protocols used in the various layers. The model is called the ISO-OSI (Open System Interconnection) Reference Model because it deals with connecting open systems- that is, systems that are open for communication with other systems.
- ✓ The OSI model has seven layers. In layers the principal ideas are as follows.
  1. A layer should be created where a different level of abstraction is needed.
  2. Each layer should perform a well-defined function.
  3. The function of each layer should be defined international standardized protocols.
  4. The layer boundaries should be chosen to minimize the information flow across the interfaces.
  5. The number of layers should be large enough that distinct functions need not be thrown together in the same layer out of necessity, and small enough that the architecture does not become unwieldy.

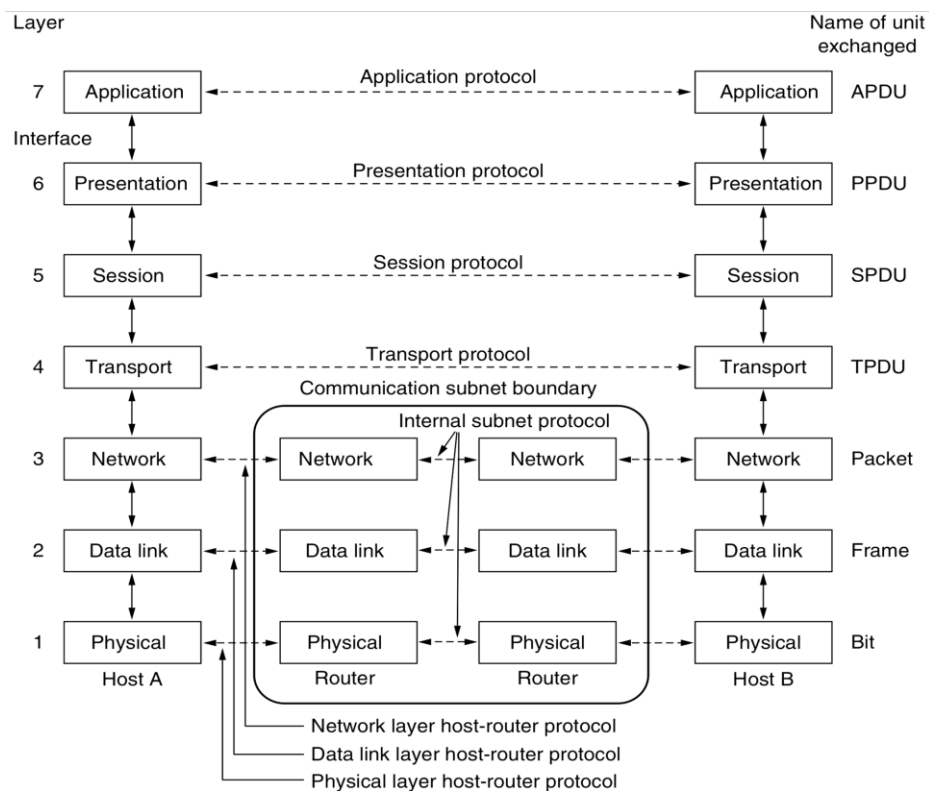
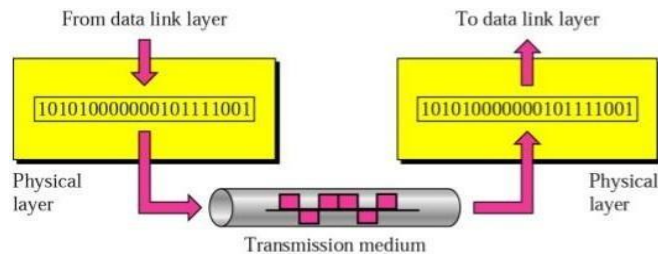


Figure: The OSI reference model

- ✓ **The Physical Layer**
  - The Physical layer is concerned with transmitting raw bit over a communication channel.
  - The design issues here largely deal with mechanical, electrical, and procedural interfaces, and the physical transmission medium, which lies below the physical layer.
  - Physical Layer receives data from the upper layer called the data link layer. It converts the received data into a bit stream. The data is then transmitted through

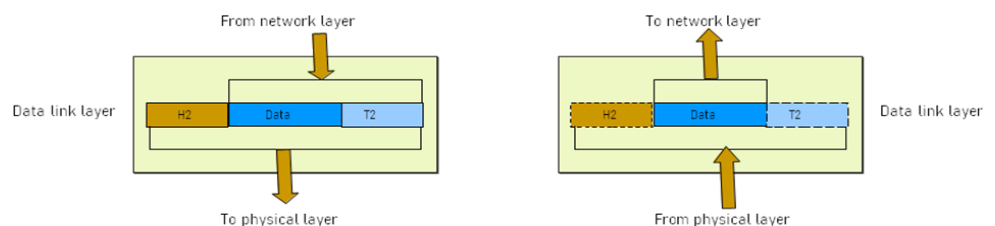
the medium to the receiver. At the receiving end, Physical Layer receives the data in bit format. It forwards the data to the Data Link Layer. This functioning of the physical layer is shown in Figure.



- Responsibilities of the Physical Layer are:
  - Characteristics of media:- Defines the characteristics of the interface which is used for connecting the devices. It also defines the type of the transmission media such as copper wires or fiber optic cables.
  - Encoding:- Defines the encoding type. Encoding means changing bit stream (0s and 1s) into signal. Before transmission, Physical Layer encodes the signal into electrical or optical form depending upon the media.
  - Transmission Rate:- Defines the transmission rate of bits. This provides number of bits transmitted per second. It defines how long will the duration of a bit be.
  - Transmission mode:- Defines the transmission mode between two devices. Transmission mode specifies the direction of signal flow. The different types of transmission modes are:
    - Simplex
    - Half-Duplex
    - Full-Duplex

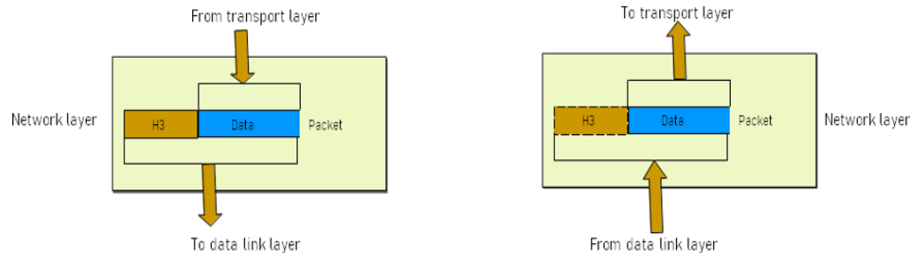
✓ **Data Link Layer**

- Responsible for delivery of data between two systems on the same network
- Main functions of this layer are:
  - Framing—divides the stream of bits received from network layer into manageable data units called frames.
  - Physical Addressing—Add a header to the frame to define the physical address of the source and the destination machines.
  - Flow control—control rate at which data is transmitted so as not to flood the receiver
  - Error Control—Add mechanisms to detect and retransmit damaged or lost frames. This is achieved by adding a trailer to the end of a frame



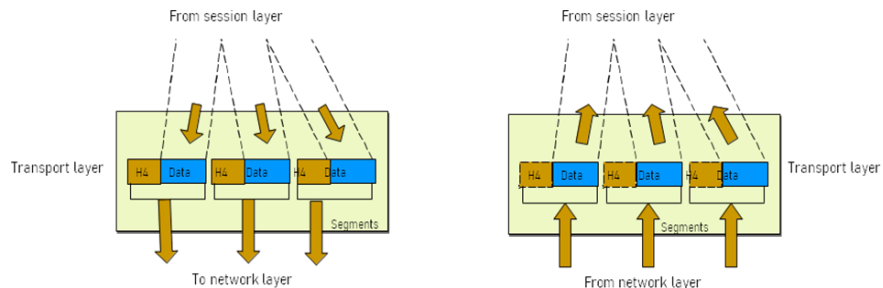
### ✓ Network Layer

- The network layer is responsible for the delivery of individual packets from the source host to the destination host.
- Main functions of this layer are:
  - Responsible for delivery of packets across multiple networks
  - Routing—Provide mechanisms to transmit data over independent networks that are linked together.
  - Network layer is responsible only for delivery of individual packets and it does not recognize any relationship between those packets.



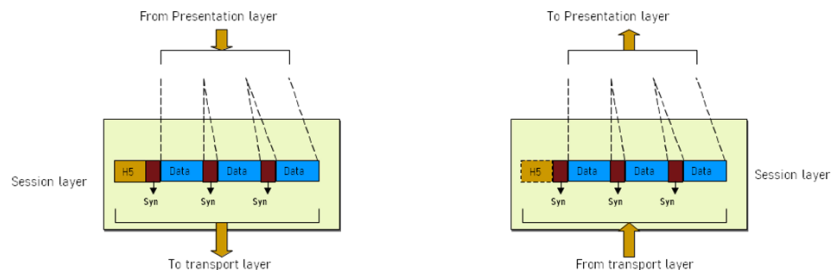
### ✓ Transport Layer

- The transport layer is responsible for the delivery of a message from one process to another
- Main functions of this layer are:
  - Responsible for source-to-destination delivery of the entire message
  - Segmentation and reassembly – divide message into smaller segments, number them and transmit. Reassemble these messages at the receiving end.
  - Error control – makes sure that the entire message arrives without errors – else retransmit.



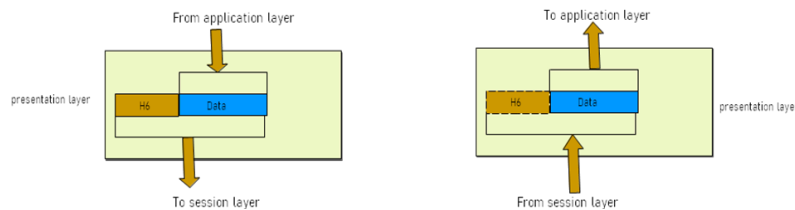
### ✓ Session Layer

- The session layer is responsible for dialog control and synchronization.
- Session layer provides mechanism for controlling the dialogue between the two end systems. It defines how to start, control and end conversations (called sessions) between applications.
- This layer requests for a logical connection to be established on an end-user's request.
- Any necessary log-on or password validation is also handled by this layer.
- Session layer is also responsible for terminating the connection.
- Main functions of this layer are:
  - Dialog control—allow two systems to enter into a dialog, keep track of whose turn it is to transmit.
  - Synchronization—add checkpoints (synchronization points).



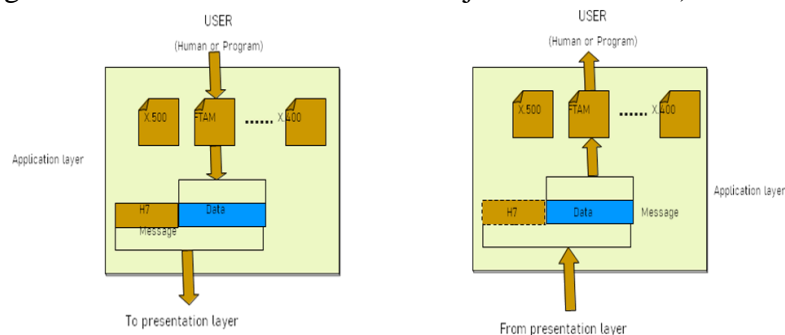
### ✓ Presentation Layer

- The presentation layer is responsible for translation, compression and encryption
- Responsibilities of this layer are:
  - Translation
    - Different computers use different encoding systems (bit order translation)
    - Convert data into a common format before transmitting.
    - Syntax represents info such as character codes - how many bits to represent data – 8 or 7 bits.
  - Compression – reduce number of bits to be transmitted into stream of data.
  - Encryption and Decryption – transform data into an unintelligible format at the sending end for data security and Decryption at the receiving end.



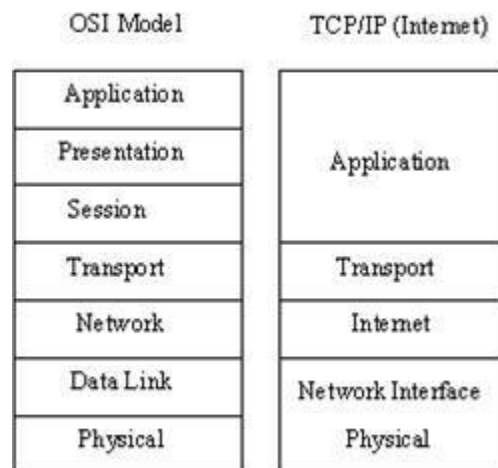
### ✓ Application Layer

- The application layer is responsible for providing services to the user
- Responsibilities of this layer are:
  - Network virtual terminal (Software)
  - File transfer, access and management
  - Mail services
  - Directory services (access to distributed database sources for global information about various objects and services).



## TCP/IP Reference model

- ✓ It was first described by Cerf and Kahn (1974), and later refined and defined as a standard in the Internet community (Braden, 1989).
- ✓ A majority of the internet uses a protocol suite called the Internet Protocol Suite also known as the TCP/IP protocol suite.
- ✓ This suite is a combination of protocols which encompasses a number of different protocols for different purpose and need. Because the two major protocols in these suites are TCP (Transmission Control Protocol) and IP (Internet Protocol), this is commonly termed as TCP/IP Protocol suite.
- ✓ This protocolsuite hasits ownreferencemodelwhich itfollows overthe internet.
- ✓ Incontrast withthe OSImodel, this modelof protocolscontains lesslayers.



- ✓ **Layer1:Host-to-networkLayer(Link Layer)**
  - Lowestlayeroftheall.
  - Protocolisused toconnect tothe host,sothat thepackets canbesentoverit.
  - Variesfromhost tohostand networkto network.
- ✓ **Layer2:Internet layer**
  - Selectionofapacketswitchingnetworkwhichisbasedonaconnectionless internetwork layer is called a internet layer.
  - Ithelpsthepacketto travelindependentlytothedestination.
  - Orderinwhich packetsarereceived isdifferent fromtheway theyaresent.
  - The internet layer defines an official packet format and protocol called IP (Internet Protocol), plus a companion protocol called ICMP (Internet Control Message Protocol) that helps it function.
  - IP(InternetProtocol)isusedinthislayer.
  - Thevariousfunctionsperformedbythe InternetLayerare:
    - DeliveringIPpackets
    - Performingrouting
    - Avoiding congestion
- ✓ **Layer3:Transport Layer**
  - Itdecidesif datatransmission shouldbeon parallelpath orsinglepath.
  - Functionssuchasmultiplexing,segmentingorsplittingonthedataisdoneby transport layer.
  - Theapplicationscan readand writeto thetransportlayer.
  - Transportlayeraddsheaderinformationtothedata.

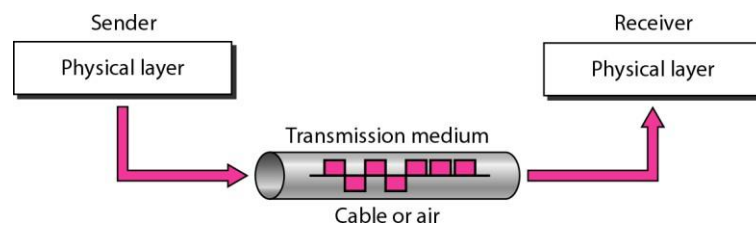
- Transport layer breaks the message (data) into small units so that they are handled more efficiently by the network layer.
- Transport layer also arranges the packets to be sent, in sequence.
- It defines two end-to-end protocols: TCP and UDP
  - TCP (Transmission Control Protocol): It is a reliable connection-oriented protocol which handles byte-stream from source to destination without error and flow control.
  - UDP (User-Datagram Protocol): It is an unreliable connection-less protocol that does not want TCPs, sequencing and flow control. Eg: One-shot request-reply kind of service.

✓ **Layer 4: Application Layer**

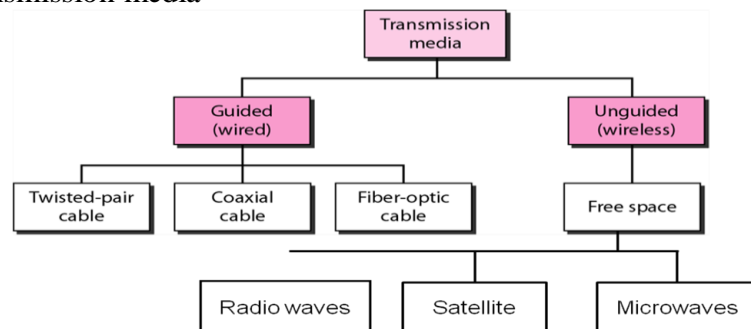
- The TCP/IP specifications described a lot of applications that were at the top of the protocol stack.
- TELNET is a two-way communication protocol which allows connecting to a remote machine and running applications on it.
- FTP (File Transfer Protocol) is a protocol, that allows file transfer amongst computer users connected over a network. It is reliable, simple and efficient.
- SMTP (Simple Mail Transport Protocol) is a protocol, which is used to transport electronic mail between a source and destination, directed via a route.
- DNS (Domain Name Server) resolves an IP address into a textual address for hosts connected over a network.
- It allows peer entities to carry conversation.

**Transmission Media**

- ✓ The purpose of the physical layer is to transport bits from one machine to another through transmission medium.
- ✓ Transmission media are located below the physical layer.
- ✓ Computers use signals to represent data.
- ✓ Signals are retransmitted in the form of electromagnetic energy.
- ✓ Various physical media can be used for the actual transmission.



✓ **Classes of transmission media**



✓ **Design Factors**

- Bandwidth
  - Higher bandwidth gives higher data rate
- Transmission impairments
  - Attenuation
- Interference
- Number of receivers
  - In guided media
  - More receivers (multi-point) introduce more attenuation (need more amplifiers or repeaters)

## Guided Transmission media

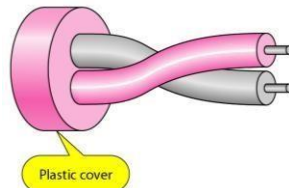
- ✓ Guided media, which are those that provide a channel from one device to another, include twisted-pair cable, coaxial cable, and fiber-optic cable.

- ✓ **Twisted-Pair Cable**



- A transmission medium consisting of a pair of twisted copper wires arranged in a regular spiral pattern.
- To minimize the electromagnetic interference between adjacent pairs.
- One wire is used to carry signals to the receiver
- Second wire is used as a ground reference
- For twisting, after receiving the signal remains the same.
- Therefore, the number of twists per unit length determines the quality of the cable.
- Low frequency transmission medium
- We can transmit 1 Mbps over short distances (less than 100m).
- They are mainly used to transmit analog signals, but they can be used for digital signals.
- Applications
  - Most common medium
  - Telephone network
  - Between house and local exchange (subscriber loop)
  - Within buildings
  - To private branch exchange (PBX)
  - For local area networks (LAN)
  - 10 Mbps or 100 Mbps
- Advantages
  - Inexpensive and readily available
  - Flexible and lightweight
  - Easy to work with and install
- Disadvantages:
  - Low data rate (Relatively low bandwidth (3000 Hz))
  - Short range (less than 100m).
  - Attenuation problem
  - For analog, repeaters needed every 5-6 km
  - For digital, repeaters needed every 2-3 km

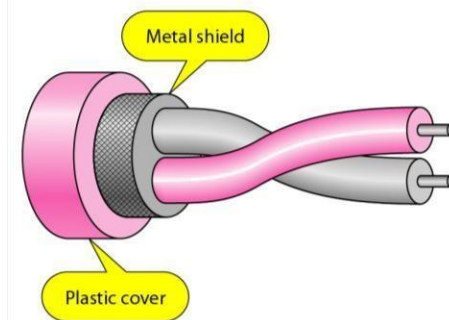
- There are two types of Twisted cable
  - Unshielded Twisted Pair (UTP)
    - Ordinary telephone wire
    - Cheapest
    - Easiest to install
    - Suffers from external EM interference



- Categories of unshielded twisted-pair cables

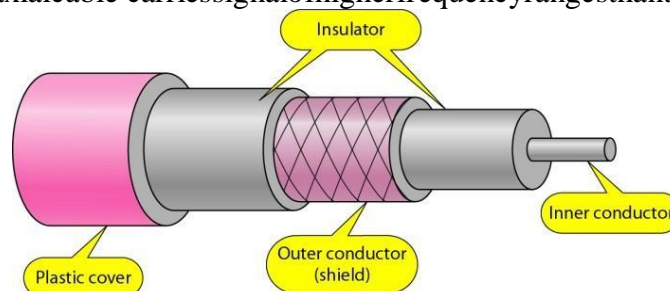
Category	Specification	Data Rate (Mbps)	Use
1	Unshielded twisted-pair used in telephone	< 0.1	Telephone
2	Unshielded twisted-pair originally used in T-lines	2	T-1 lines
3	Improved CAT 2 used in LANs	10	LANs
4	Improved CAT 3 used in Token Ring networks	20	LANs
5	Cable wire is normally 24 AWG with a jacket and outside sheath	100	LANs
5E	An extension to category 5 that includes extra features to minimize the crosstalk and electromagnetic interference	125	LANs
6	A new category with matched components coming from the same manufacturer. The cable must be tested at a 200-Mbps data rate.	200	LANs
7	Sometimes called SSTP (shielded screen twisted-pair). Each pair is individually wrapped in a helical metallic foil followed by a metallic foil shield in addition to the outside sheath. The shield decreases the effect of crosstalk and increases the data rate.	600	LANs

- Shielded Twisted Pair (STP)
  - Metal braid or sheathing that reduces interference
  - More expensive
  - Harder to handle (thick, heavy)
  - Higher transmission rates over longer distances.



✓ Coaxial cable

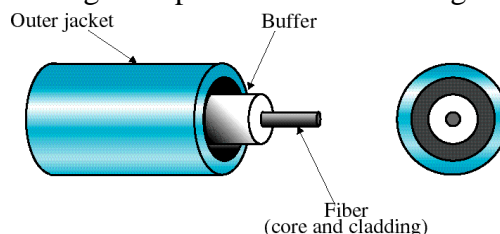
- Co-axial cable carries signal of higher frequency range than twisted pair cable



- Inner conductor is a solid wire
- Outer conductor serves as a shield against noise and a second conductor.
- Two kinds of coaxial cable are widely used.
  - One kind, 50-ohm cable, is commonly used when it is intended for digital transmission from the start.
  - The other kind, 75-ohm cable, is commonly used for analog transmission and cable television.
- Transmission Characteristics
  - Analog
    - Amplifier every few km
    - Closer if higher frequency
    - Up to 500 MHz
  - Digital
    - Repeater every 1 km
    - Closer for higher data rates
- Applications
  - Most versatile medium
  - Television distribution
    - Aerial to TV
    - Cable TV
  - Long distance telephone transmission
    - Can carry 10,000 voice calls simultaneously
    - Being replaced by fiber optic
  - Short distance computer systems links
  - Local area networks
- Advantages
  - Easy to wire
  - Easy to expand
  - Moderate level of ElectroMagnetic Interference
- Disadvantages
  - Single cable failure can take down an entire network
  - Cost of installation of a coaxial cable is high due to its thickness and stiffness
  - Cost of maintenance is also high

✓ **Fiber-Optic Cable**

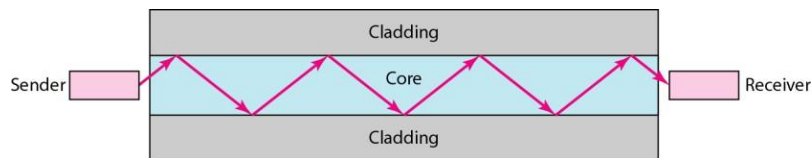
- A fiber optic cable is made of glass or plastic and transmits signals in the form of light.



- **Nature of light:**
  - Light travels in a straight line

- If light goes from one substance to another then the ray of light changes Direction
- Ray of light changes direction when it goes from more dense to a less dense substance

○ Structure of Fiberoptic cable:

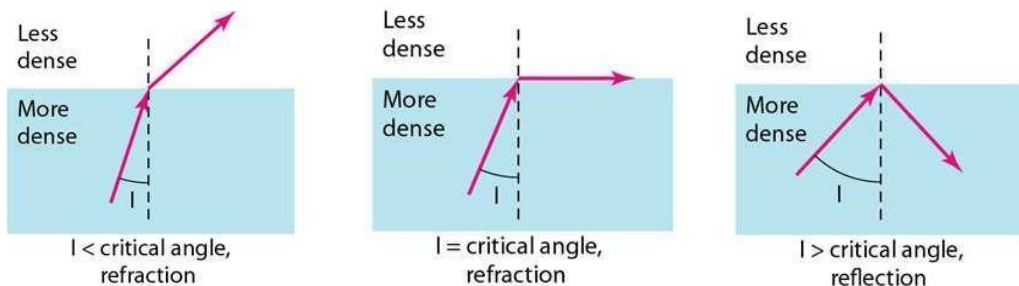


- Require a light source within injection laser diode (ILD) or emitting diodes (LED) light
- Optical fiber consists of a glass core, surrounded by a glass cladding with slightly lower refractive index.

○ Transmission Characteristics

- Acts as a waveguide for 10<sup>14</sup> to 10<sup>15</sup> Hz
  - Portions of infrared and visible spectrum
- Light Emitting Diode (LED)
  - Cheaper
  - Wider operating temperature range
  - Last longer
- Injection Laser Diode (ILD)
  - More efficient
  - Greater data rate

○ Bending of light ray



- The above figures show how a ray of light changes direction when going from a more dense to a less dense substance.
- Angle of Incidence ( $I$ ): the angle the ray makes with the line perpendicular to the interface between the two substances
- Critical Angle: the angle of incidence which provides an angle of refraction of 90-degrees.

○ Advantages

- Greater capacity
  - Example: Data rates at 100 Gbps
- Smaller size & lightweight
- Lower attenuation
- Electromagnetic isolation

- Moreresistanceto corrosivematerials
- Greaterrepeaterspacingfacility
  - Example:After every10sofkmatleast
- Disadvantages
  - Installationandmaintenanceneed expertise
  - OnlyUnidirectionallightpropagation
  - Muchmoreexpensive
  - Application
- AreasofApplication
  - Telecommunications
  - LocalAreaNetworks
  - CableTV
  - CCTV
  - MedicalEducation

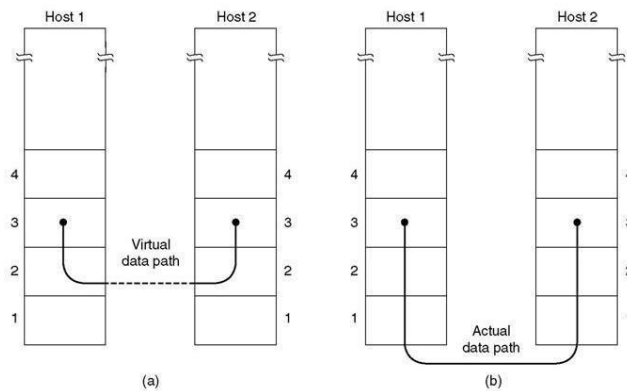
**Reference Book: Computer Networks, Andrew Tanenbaum, 6<sup>th</sup> Edition.**

## **UNIT-II**

### **THE DATA LINK LAYER**

#### **Design Issues in Data Link Layer**

- ✓ The data link layer uses the services of the physical layer to send and receive bits over communication channels. It has a number of functions, including:
  - Providing a well-defined service interface to the network layer.
  - Dealing with transmission errors.
  - Regulating the flow of data so that slow receivers are not swamped by fast senders.
- ✓ The main job of the data link layer is to make the communication on the physical link reliable & efficient.
- ✓ Issues,
  - Services Provided to the Network Layer
  - Framing
  - Flow Control
  - Error Control
  - Synchronization
- ✓ **Services Provided to the Network Layer**
  - The function of the data link layer is to provide services to the network layer.
  - The principal service is transferring data from the network layer on the source machine to the network layer on the destination machine. On the source machine is an entity, called a process, in the network layer that hands some bits to the data link layer for transmission to the destination.
  - The job of the data link layer is to transmit the bits to the destination machine so they can be handed over to the network layer there, as shown in Fig.(a). The actual transmission follows the path of Fig. (b).



- The data link layer can be designed to offer various services. The actual services that are offered vary from protocol to protocol. Three reasonable possibilities that we will consider in turn are:
  1. Unacknowledged connectionless service:
    - Unacknowledged connectionless service consists of having the source machine send independent frames to the destination machine without having the destination machine acknowledge them.
    - Ethernet is a good example of a data link layer that provides this class of service.
  2. Acknowledged connectionless service:
    - The next step up in terms of reliability is acknowledged connectionless service. When this service is offered, there are still no logical connections used, but each frame sent is individually acknowledged. In this way, the sender knows whether a frame has arrived correctly or been lost. If it has not arrived within a specified time interval, it can be sent again. This service is useful over unreliable channels, such as wireless systems.
    - 802.11(WiFi) is a good example of this class of service.
  3. Acknowledged connection-oriented service:
    - The most sophisticated service the data link layer can provide to the network layer is connection-oriented service. With this service, the source and destination machines establish a connection before any data are transferred. Each frame sent over the connection is numbered, and the data link layer guarantees that each frame sent is indeed received.

### ✓ Framing

- Data-link layer takes packets from Network Layer and encapsulates them into Frames. Then, it sends each frame bit-by-bit on the hardware. At receiver's end, data link layer picks up signals from hardware and assembles them into frames.
- The usual approach is for the data link layer to break up the bit stream into discrete frames, compute a short token called a checksum for each frame, and include the checksum in the frame when it is transmitted. When a frame arrives at the destination, the checksum is recomputed. If the newly computed

checksum is different from the one contained in the frame, the data link layer knows that an error has occurred and takes steps to deal with it.

- Breaking up the bit stream into frames is more difficult than it at first appears. A good design must make it easy for a receiver to find the start of new frames while using little of the channel bandwidth. We will look at four methods:
  1. Bytecount:
    - This method uses a field in the header to specify the number of bytes in the frame.
  2. Flagbyteswithbytestuffing:
    - This method gets around the problem of resynchronization after an error by having each frame start and end with special bytes. Often the **same** byte, called a flag byte, is used as both the starting and ending delimiter. Two consecutive flag bytes indicate the end of one frame and the start of the next.
    - This method insert a special escape byte (ESC) just before each “accidental” flag byte in the data. Thus, a framing flag byte can be distinguished from one in the data by the absence or presence of an escape byte before it. The data link layer on the receiving end removes the escape bytes before giving the datato the network layer. This technique is called byte stuffing.
  3. Flagbitswith bitstuffing:
    - In this method each frame begins and ends with a special bit pattern, 01111110 or 0x7E in hexadecimal. This pattern is aflag byte. Whenever the sender’s data link layer encounters five consecutive 1s in the data, it automatically stuffsa 0 bit into the outgoing bit stream.
  4. Physicallayercodingviolations:
    - The final framing method is physical layer coding violationsand is applicable to networks in which the encoding on the physical medium contains some redundancy. In such cases normally, a 1 bit is a high-low pair and a 0 bit is a low-highpair. The combinations of low-low and high-high which are not used for data may be used for marking frame boundaries.

✓ **FlowControl**

- Stations on same link may have different speed or capacity. Data-link layer ensures flow control that enables both machines to exchange data on same speed.

✓ **ErrorControl**

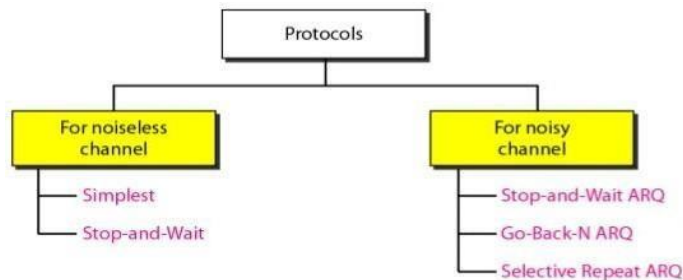
- Sometimessignalsmayhaveencounteredproblem intransitionandthebitsare flipped. These errors are detected and attempted to recover actual data bits. It also provides error reporting mechanism to the sender.

✓ **Synchronization**

- When data frames are sent on the link, both machines must be synchronized in order to transfer to take place.

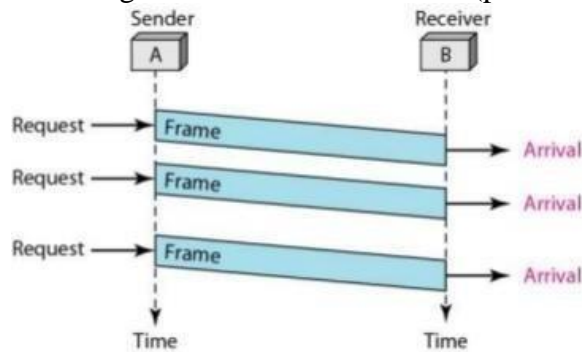
## Elementary Data Link Protocols

- ✓ The protocols are normally implemented in software by using one of the common programming languages.
  - An Unrestricted Simplex Protocol
  - A Simplex Stop-and-Wait Protocol
  - A Simplex Protocol for a Noisy Channel



### ✓ An Unrestricted Simplex Protocol

- In order to appreciate the step by step development of efficient and complex protocols we will begin with a simple but unrealistic protocol. In this protocol: Data are transmitted in one direction only
- The transmitting (Tx) and receiving (Rx) hosts are always ready
- Processing time can be ignored
- Infinite buffer space is available
- No errors occur; i.e. no damaged frames and no lost frames (perfect channel)



- The protocol consists of two procedures, a sender and receiver as depicted below:

```
/*protocol 1 */
```

```
Sender()
{
  forever
  {
    from_host(buffer);
    S.info = buffer;
    sendf(S);
  }
}
```

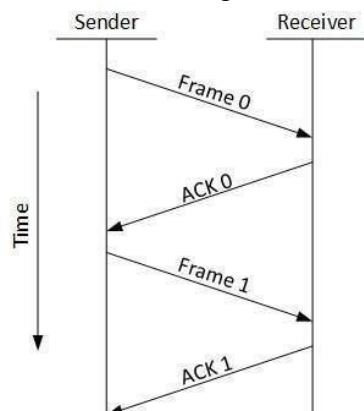
```

Receiver()
{
    forever
    {
        wait(event);
        getf(R);
        to_host(R.info);
    }
}

```

## Simple Stop&Wait Protocol

- ✓ This flow control mechanism forces the sender after transmitting a data frame to stop and wait until the acknowledgement of the data-frame sent is received.



- ✓ In this method of flow control, the sender sends a single frame to receiver & waits for an acknowledgment.
- ✓ The next frame is sent by sender only when acknowledgment of previous frame is received.
- ✓ This process of sending a frame & waiting for an acknowledgment continues as long as the sender has data to send.
- ✓ To end up the transmission sender transmits end of transmission (EOT) frame.
- ✓ Advantage:
  - It is accurate.
  - There is no chance of frame being lost.
- ✓ Disadvantage:
  - It is inefficient.
  - It makes the transmission process slow
  - A lot of time is wasted waiting for ACKs that lead to an increase in total transmission

- ✓ Algorithm for Stop-and- Wait Protocol

```

typedef enum { framearrival } eventtype; #include
"protocol.h"
void sender(void)
{
    frame s;           /* buffer for an outbound frame */
    packet buffer;    /* buffer for an outbound packet */
    event type event; /* framearrival is the only possibility */
}

```

```

while(true){
from network layer(&buffer);      /* go get something to send */
s.info = buffer;                  /* copy it into s for transmission */
to physical layer(&s);            /* bye-bye little frame */
waitforevent(&event);            /* do not proceed until given the go ahead */

}
}

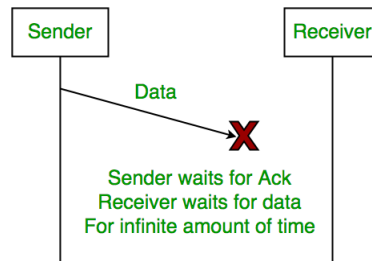
void receiver(void)
{
framer,s;                         /* buffers for frames */
event type event;                 /* frame arrival is the only possibility */
while (true) {
wait for event(&event);          /* only possibility is frame arrival */
from physical layer(&r);         /* go get the inbound frame */
to network layer(&r.info);      /* pass the data to the network layer */
physical layer(&s);             /* send a dummy frame to awaken sender */

}
}

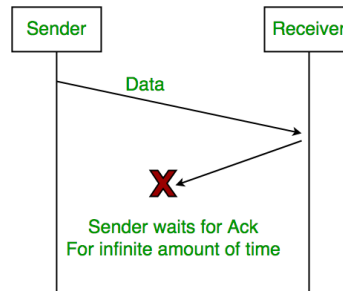
```

✓ Problems in Simple Stop and Wait Protocol

1. Lost Data:



2. Lost Acknowledgement:

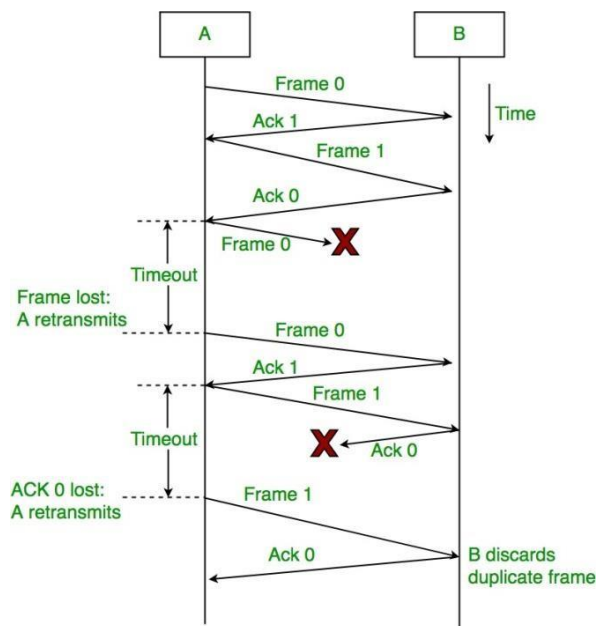


3. Delayed Acknowledgement/Data:

- After timeout on sender side, a long delayed acknowledgement might be wrongly considered as acknowledgement of some other recent packet.

## Stop&WaitProtocolwithARQ

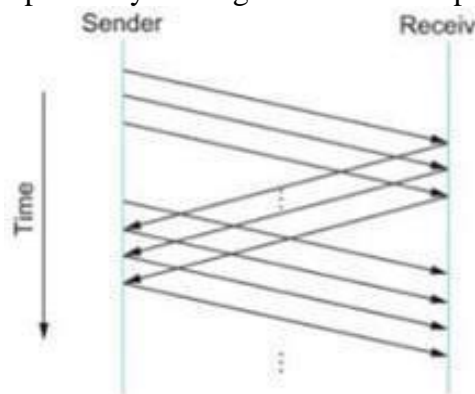
- ✓ Automatic Repeat reQuest (ARQ), an error control method, is incorporated with stop and wait flow control protocol
  - If error is detected by receiver, it discards the frame and send a negative ACK (NAK), causing sender to re-send the frame
  - In case a frame never got to receiver, sender has a timer: each time a frame is sent, timer is set
    - If no ACK or NAK is received during timeout period, it re-sends the frame
  - Timer introduces a problem: Suppose timeout and sender retransmits a frame but receiver actually received the previous transmission → receiver has duplicated copies
  - To avoid receiving and accepting two copies of same frame, frames and ACKs are alternatively labeled 0 or 1
    - ACK0: frame 1 is received, waiting for next (frame 0)
    - ACK1: frame 0 is received, waiting for next (frame 1)



- Sender A sends a data frame or packet with sequence number 0.
- Receiver B, after receiving data frame, sends an acknowledgement with sequence number 1 (sequence number of next expected data frame or packet)
- There is only one bit sequence number that implies that both sender and receiver have buffer for one frame or packet only.
- **Characteristics of Stop and Wait ARQ:**
  - It uses link between sender and receiver as half duplex link
  - $\text{Throughput} = 1 \text{ Data packet} / \text{frame per RTT}$
  - If  $\text{Bandwidth} * \text{Delay}$  product is very high, then stop and wait protocol is not so useful. The sender has to keep waiting for acknowledgements before sending the processed next packet.
  - It is a special category of SWP where its window size is 1
  - Irrespective of number of packets sender is having stop and wait protocol requires only 2 sequence numbers 0 and 1.

## Sliding Window Protocol

- ✓ In Stop and Wait protocol, only 1 packet is transmitted onto the link and then sender waits for acknowledgement from the receiver. The problem in this setup is that efficiency is very less
- ✓ Sliding window algorithms are a method of flow control for network data transfers.
- ✓ Data Link Layer uses a sliding window algorithm, which allows a sender to have more than one unacknowledged packet "in flight" at a time, which improves network throughput.
- ✓ It is based on the concept of pipelining.
- ✓ **Concepts of the Sliding Window**
  - Both the sender and receiver maintain a finite size buffer to hold outgoing and incoming packets from the other side.
  - Every packet sent by the sender, must be acknowledged by the receiver. The sender maintains a timer for every packet sent, and any packet unacknowledged in a certain time, is resent.
  - The sender may send a whole window of packets before receiving an acknowledgement for the first packet in the window. This results in higher transfer rates, as the sender may send multiple packets without waiting for each packet's acknowledgement.
  - The Receiver advertises a window size that tells the sender how much data it can receive, in order for the sender not to fill up the receiver's buffers.
  - Efficiency can also be improved by making use of the full-duplex line.

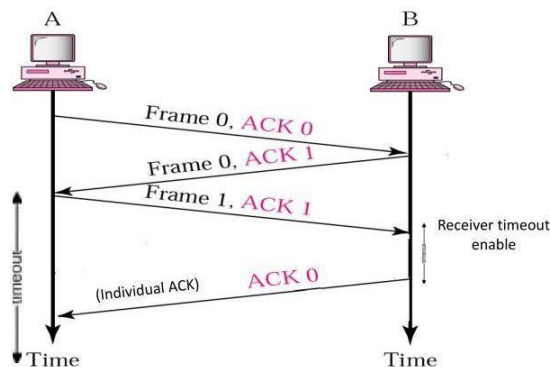


- ✓ **Sender Side**
  - To keep track of the frames, sender stations send sequentially numbered frames.
  - Since these sequence numbers to be used occupies a field in the frame, it should be limited size.
  - If the header of the frame allows  $n$  bits, these sequence numbers range from 0 to  $2^n - 1$ .
  - Sender maintains a list of sequence numbers that it is allowed to send (sender window).
  - The size of the sender's window is at most  $2^n - 1$ .
    - Eg:-if frame allows 3 bits, then the size of the window is  $2^3 - 1 = 7$
  - The sender is provided with a buffer equal to the window size.
- ✓ **Receiver Side**
  - Receiver always maintains window size as 1.
  - The receiver acknowledges a frame by sending an ACK frame that includes the sequence number of the next frame expected.

- This also explicitly announces that it is prepared to receive the next N frames, beginning with the number specified.
- This scheme can be used to acknowledge multiple frames.
- It could receive frames 2,3,4 but withhold ACK until frame 4 has arrived. By returning an ACK with sequence number 5, it acknowledges frames 2, 3, 4 at one time.

✓ **Piggybacking**

- When a data frame arrives, instead of immediately sending a separate control frame, the receiver restrains itself and waits until the network layer passes it to the next packet.
- The acknowledgement is attached to the outgoing data frame (using the ack field in the frame header).
- The acknowledgement gets a freeride on the next outgoing data frame.
- The technique of temporarily delaying outgoing acknowledgements so they can be hooked onto the next outgoing data frame is piggybacking.
- Better use of bandwidth. Ack is only a few bits.
- If no data frame going out after timeout, just send ack frame on its own.



✓ **Merits**

- Multiple packets can be transmitted without waiting for acknowledgements. (not like stop & wait)
- Piggybacking (using full-duplex lines)

✓ **Demerits**

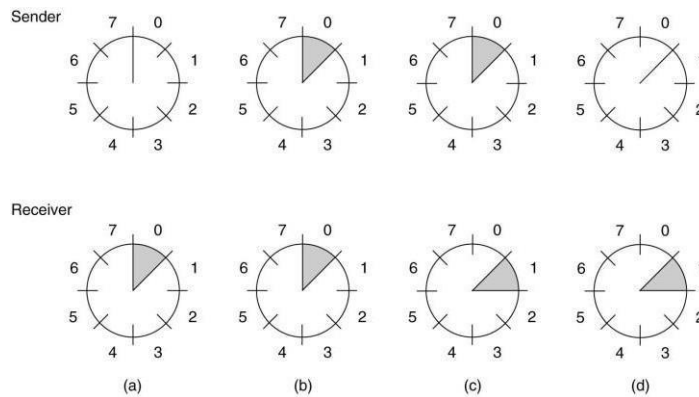
- No limit of the size or sequence number that can be required in this protocol.
- The bandwidth may be wasted in some special situations.

✓ **The sliding window ARQ technique has two categories, namely,**

1. **Onebit Sliding Window**
2. **Go-Back-N**
3. **Selective Repeat**

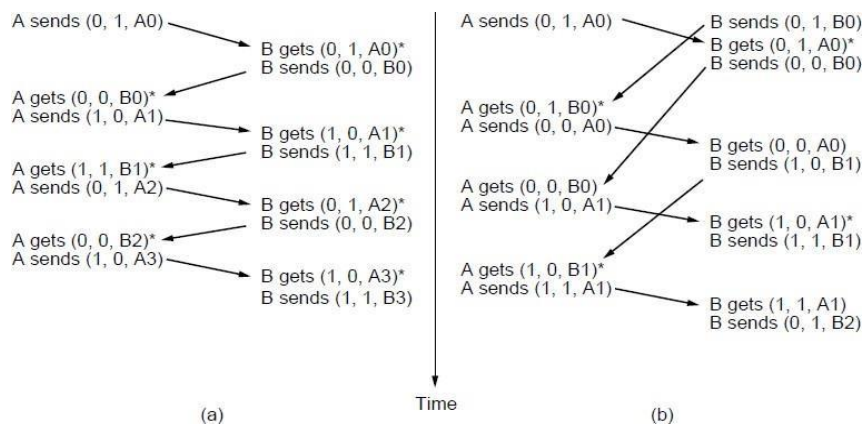
✓ **Onebit Sliding Window**

- Here window size  $K=1$  at the sender's side.
- Then the size of the sender's window is,  $2^k - 1$   
 $K=1$   
 $2^1 - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1$
- This is same as the stop and waits protocol.



○ In above figures shows a sliding window of size 1, with a 3-bit sequence number-

- (a) Initially.
- (b) After the first frame has been sent.
- (c) After the first frame has been received.
- (d) After the first acknowledgement has been received.

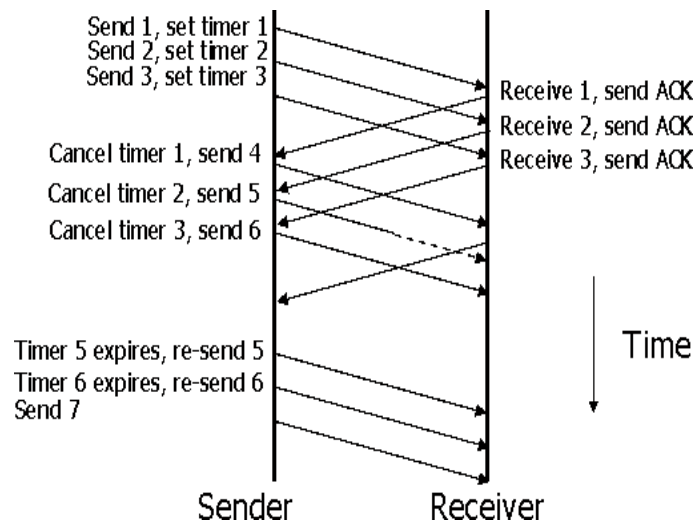


\*The notation is (seq, ack, packet number).

- In above figure Part (a): If B waits for A's first frame before sending one of its own. Each frame arrival brings a new packet for the network layer; there are no duplicates.
- In above figure Part (b): If A and B simultaneously initiate communication, their first frames cross, and the data link layers get into a situation. Half of the frames contain duplicates, even though there are no transmission errors.

✓ **Go-Back-N**

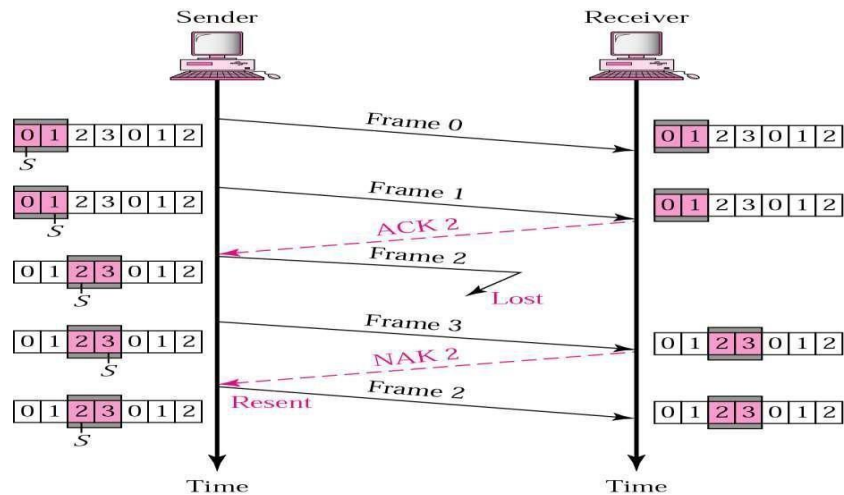
- In Go-Back-NARQ method, both sender and receiver maintain a window.
- In this protocol we can send several frames before receiving acknowledgments; we keep a copy of these frames until the acknowledgments arrive.
- This procedure requires additional features to be added to Stop-and-WaitARQ.



- In above, example
  - It can be seen in figure that error occurs in Frame 5. Hence the receiver sends negative acknowledgment of Frame 5 to the sender.
  - In such a case, the sender needs to retransmit Frame 5 and all the succeeding frames (Frame 6 and Frame 7)
- The sending-window size enables the sender to send multiple frames without receiving the acknowledgement of the previous ones. The receiving-window enables the receiver to receive multiple frames and acknowledge them. The receiver keeps track of incoming frame's sequence number.
- When the sender sends all the frames in window, it checks up to what sequence number it has received positive acknowledgement. If all frames are positively acknowledged, the sender sends next set of frames. If sender finds that it has received NACK or has not received any ACK for a particular frame, it retransmits all the frames after which it does not receive any positive ACK.

✓ **Selective-Retry ARQ**

- In selective-retry ARQ error control, the only frames retransmitted are those receive a NAK or which time out.
- Go-Back-N ARQ simplifies the process at the receiver site. Receiver only keeps track of only one variable, and there is no need to buffer out-of-order frames, they are simply discarded.
- However, Go-Back-N ARQ protocol is inefficient for noisy link. It bandwidth inefficient and slows down the transmission.
- In Selective Repeat ARQ, only the damaged frame is resent. More bandwidth efficient but more complex processing at receiver.
- It defines a negative ACK(NAK) to report the sequence number of a damaged frame before the timer expires.



- Frames 0 and 1 are accepted when received because they are in the range specified by the receiver window. Same for frame 3.
- Receiver sends a NAK2 to show that frame 2 has not been received and then sender resends only frame 2 and it is accepted as it is in the range of the window.
- Size of the sender and receiver windows must be at most one-half of  $2^m$ . If  $m = 2$ , window size should be  $2^m / 2 = 2$ . Fig compares a window size of 2 with a window size of 3. Window size is 3 and all ACKs are lost, sender sends duplicate of frame 0, window of the receiver expects to receive frame 0 (part of the window), so accepts frame 0, as the 1st frame of the next cycle – an **error**.
- Efficiency of Selective Repeat Protocol (SRP) is same as GO-Back-N's efficiency :
  - Efficiency =  $N / (1 + 2a)$
  - Where  $a = \text{Propagation delay} / \text{Transmission delay}$
  - Buffers =  $N + N$
  - Sequence number =  $N(\text{sender side}) + N(\text{Receiver Side})$ .

## Medium Access Control Sublayer:

### Channel allocation problem:

- ✓ To allocate a single broadcast channel among competing users. The channel might be a portion of the wireless spectrum in a geographic region, or a single wire or optical fiber to which multiple nodes are connected.
- ✓ There are two types of channel allocation: **Static Channel Allocation and Dynamic Channel Allocation.**
  - **Static Channel Allocation:**
    - If there are N users, the bandwidth is divided into N equal sized portions, with each user being assigned one portion. Since each user has a private frequency band, there is no interference among users.
    - When there is only a small and constant number of a user, each of which has a steady stream or a heavy load of traffic, this division is a simple and efficient allocation mechanism.
    - A wireless example is FM radio stations. Each station gets a portion of the FM band and uses it most of the time to broadcast its signal. When the number of senders is large and varying or the traffic is suddenly changing (burst of data), FDM presents some problems.
    - If the spectrum is cut up into N regions and fewer than N users are currently interested in communicating, a large piece of valuable spectrum will be wasted. And if more than N users want to communicate, some of them will be denied permission for lack of bandwidth, even if some of the users who have been assigned a frequency band hardly ever transmit or receive anything.
    - A static allocation is a poor fit to most computer systems, in which data traffic is extremely burst, often with peak traffic to mean traffic ratios of 1000:1. Consequently, most of the channels will be idle most of the time.
    - The poor performance of static FDM can easily be seen with a simple queuing theory calculation. Let us start by finding the mean time delay, T, to send a frame onto a channel of capacity C bps.
    - We assume that the frames arrive randomly with an average arrival rate of  $\lambda$  frames/sec, and that the frames vary in length with an average length of  $1/\mu$  bits. With these parameters, the service rate of the channel is  $\mu C$  frames/sec.
    - A standard queuing theory result is  $T = \frac{1}{\mu C - \lambda}$
    - Now let us divide the single channel into N independent subchannels, each with capacity  $C/N$  bps. The mean input rate on each of the subchannels will now be  $\lambda/N$ . Recomputing T, we get
$$T_N = \frac{1}{(\mu(C/N) - (\lambda/N))} = N / (\mu C - \lambda) = NT$$

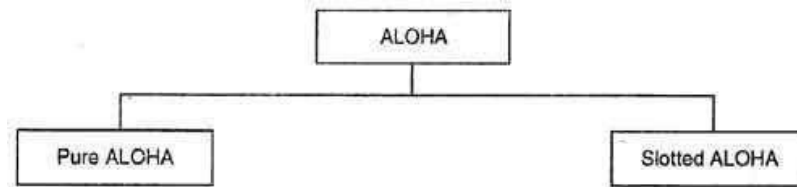
- Eg: if C is 100 Mbps, the mean frame length,  $1/\mu$ , is 10,000 bits, and the frame arrival rate,  $\lambda$ , is 5000 frames/sec, then
- $T = 1/(\mu C - \lambda) \approx 200 \mu\text{sec}$ .
- Now if 100-Mbps network with 10 networks of 10 Mbps each and statically allocate each user to one of them, the mean delay would jump from 200  $\mu\text{sec}$  to 2 msec.
- The mean delay for the divided channel is N times worse than that of without dividing. ( $T_N = NT$ )
- This same result says that a bank lobby full of ATM machines is better off having a single queue feeding all the machines than a separate queue in front of each machine
- **Assumptions for Dynamic Channel Allocation:**
  - Underlying all the work done in this area are the following five key assumptions:
  - Independent
    - The model consists of N independent stations each with a program or user that generates frames for transmission. Once a frame has been generated, the station is blocked and does nothing until the frame has been successfully transmitted.
  - Traffic Single Channel
    - A single channel is available for all communication. All stations can transmit on it and all can receive from it.
  - Observable Collisions
    - All stations can detect that a collision has occurred. A collided frame must be transmitted again later.
  - Continuous or Slotted Time
    - Time may be assumed continuous; frame transmission can begin at any instant. Alternatively, time may be slotted or divided into discrete intervals (called slots). Frame transmissions must then begin at the start of a slot.
  - Carrier Sense or No Carrier Sense
    - With the carrier sense assumption, stations can tell if the channel is in use before trying to use it. Station will transmit only when channel is free.

## Multiple access protocols

### ✓ ALOHA

- It was developed at the University of Hawaii in the early 1970s to connect computers situated on different Hawaiian islands. The computers of the ALOHA network transmit on the same radio channel whenever they have a packet to transmit. From time-to-time packet transmission will collide, but these can be treated as transmission errors, and recovery can take place by retransmission. When traffic is very light, the probability of collision is very small, and so retransmissions need to be carried out infrequently.
- ALOHA scheme requires stations to use a random retransmission time. ALOHA is the father of multiple access protocols.

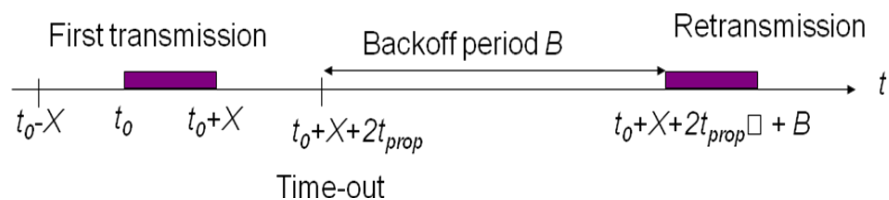
- Abramson's work, called the ALOHA system, used ground based radio broadcasting. The basic idea is applicable to any system in which uncoordinated users are competing for the use of a single shared channel.
- Two versions of ALOHA: pure and slotted. They differ with respect to whether time is continuous, as in the pure version, or divided into discrete slots into which all frames must fit. (slotted aloha)



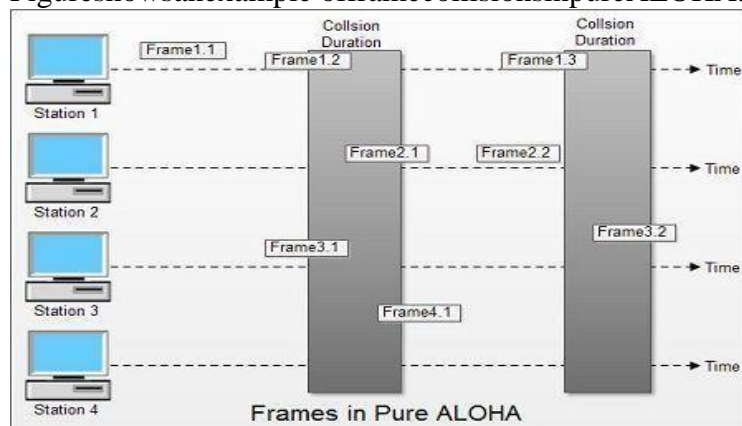
Types of ALOHA

- **Pure ALOHA (unslotted ALOHA):**

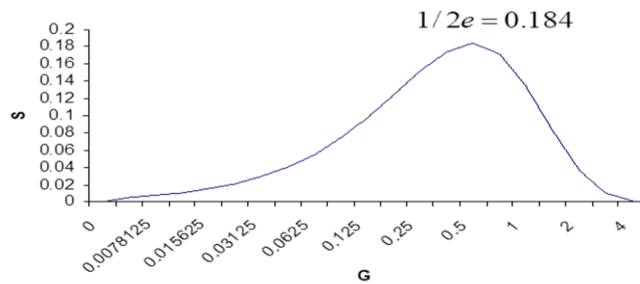
- In pure ALOHA, the stations transmit frames whenever they have data to send.
- In pure ALOHA, whenever any station transmits a frame, it expects the acknowledgement from the receiver.
- If acknowledgement is not received within specified time, the station assumes that the frame (or acknowledgement) has been destroyed.
- If the frame is destroyed because of collision the station waits for a random amount of time and sends it again. This waiting time must be random otherwise same frames will collide again and again.
- Systems in which multiple users share a common channel in a way that can lead to conflicts are known as contention systems
- Therefore pure ALOHA dictates that when time-out period passes, each station must wait for a random amount of time before resending its frame. This randomness will help avoid more collisions.



- Figure shows an example of frame collisions in pure ALOHA.



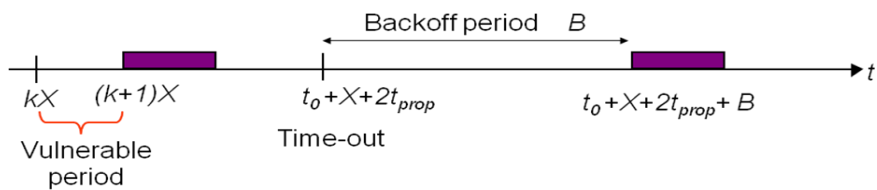
- In figtherearefourstationsthat.contendedwith oneanotherforaccess to shared channel. All these stations are transmitting frames. Some of these frames collide because multiple frames are in contention for the shared channel. Only two frames, frame 1.1 and frame 2.2 survive. All other frames are destroyed.
- Whenever two frames try to occupy the channel at the same time, there will be a collision and both will be damaged. If first bit of a new frame overlaps with just the last bit of a frame almost finished, both frames will be totally destroyed and both will have to be retransmitted.
- Performancegraph:



Throughput S versus load G for pure ALOHA

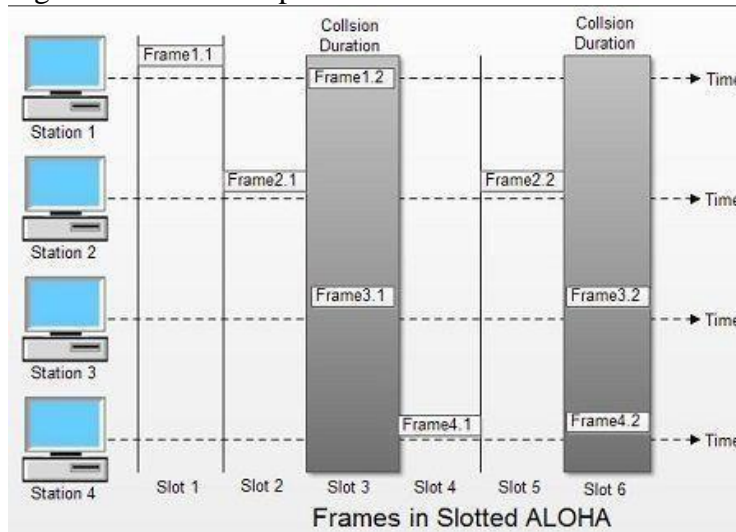
○ **SlottedALOHA**

- SlottedALOHAwasinventedtoimprovetheefficiencyofpure ALOHA as chances of collision in pureALOHA areveryhigh.
- InslottedALOHA,thetimeofthesharedchannelisdividedinto discrete intervals called slots.
- Thestationscansendaframeonlyatthebeginningoftheslotandonly one frame is sent in each slot.

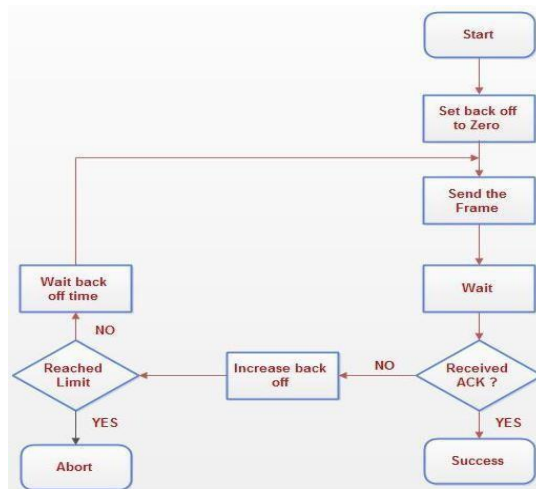


Only packets that arrive during prior X seconds collide.

- Figureshows anexampleofframecollisionsinslottedALOHA.

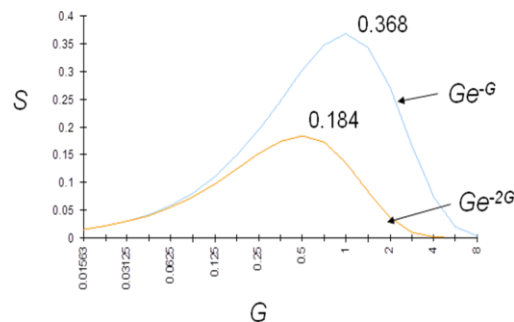


- In slotted ALOHA, if any station is notable to place the frame onto the channel at the beginning of the slot i.e. it misses the time slot then the station has to wait until the beginning of the next time slot.
- In slotted ALOHA, there is still a possibility of collision if two stations try to send at the beginning of the same time slot as shown in fig.
- Slotted ALOHA still has an edge over pure ALOHA as chances of collision are reduced to one-half.
- Flowchartfor ALOHA:

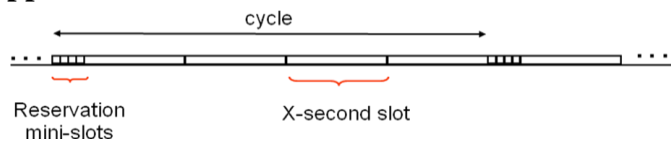


- ThroughputofSlottedALOHA

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= GP[\text{nocollision}] = GP[\text{noarrivalsinXseconds}] \\
 &= G \cdot \frac{(G)^0}{0!} e^{-G} = G \cdot e^{-G}
 \end{aligned}$$



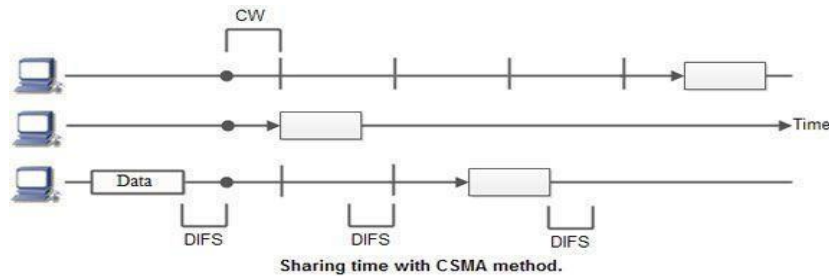
### ○ ApplicationofSlottedALOHA



- Reservationprotocolallowsalargenumberofstationswithinfrequent traffic to reserve slots to transmit their packets in future cycles
- Eachcyclehasmini-slotsallocatedformakingreservations
- StationsuseslottedALOHA during mini-slotsto requestslots

✓ **Carrier Sensing Multiple Access (CSMA) Protocols**

- CSMA is a network access method used on shared network topologies such as Ethernet to control access to the network.
- MA (Multiple Access) indicates that many devices can connect to and share the same network. All devices have equal access to use the network when it is clear.
- A station senses the channel before it starts transmission
  - If busy, either wait or schedule backoff (different options)
  - If idle, start transmission
  - A station that wants to communicate "listen" first on the media communication and awaits a "silence" of a preset time (called the Distributed Inter Frame Space or DIFS). After this compulsory period, the station starts a countdown for a random period considered. The maximum duration of this countdown is called the collision window (Window Collision, CW). If no equipment speaks before the end of the countdown, the station simply delivers its package. However, if it is overtaken by another station, it stops immediately its countdown and waits for the next silence.

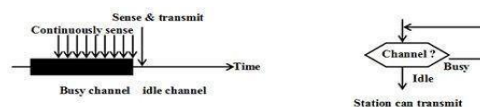


- CSMA protocol was developed to overcome the problem found in ALOHA i.e. to minimize the chances of collision, so as to improve the performance.
- CSMA protocol is based on the principle of 'carrier sense'. The station senses the carrier or channel before transmitting a frame. It means the station checks the state of channel, whether it is idle or busy. The chances of collision still exist because of propagation delay. The frame transmitted by one station takes some time to reach other stations. In the meantime, other stations may sense the channel to be idle and transmit their frames. This results in the collision.

○ **There are Three Different Type of CSMA Protocols**

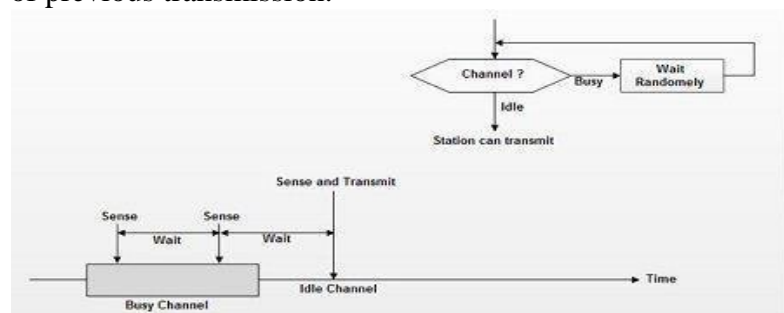
▪ **1-persistent CSMA**

- In this method, station that wants to transmit data continuously senses the channel to check whether the channel is idle or busy.
- If the channel is busy, the station waits until it becomes idle.
- When the station detects an idle-channel, it immediately transmits the frame with probability 1. Hence it is called 1-persistent CSMA.
- This method has the highest chance of collision because two or more stations may find channel to be idle at the same time and transmit their frames. When the collision occurs, the stations wait a random amount of time and start all over again.



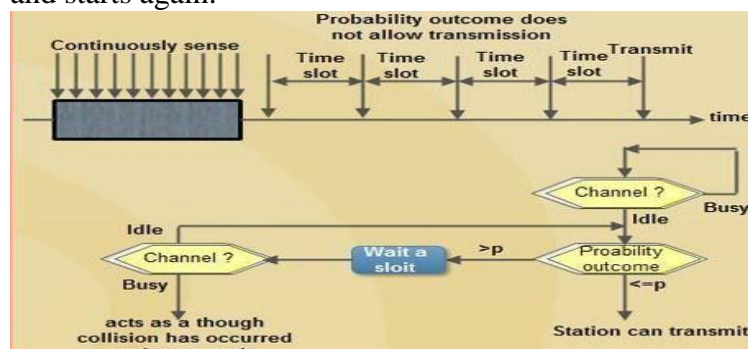
▪ **Non-persistent CSMA**

- In this scheme, if a station wants to transmit a frame and it finds that the channel is busy (some other station is transmitting) then it will wait for a fixed interval of time.
- After this time, it again checks the status of the channel and if the channel is free it will transmit.
- A station that has a frame to send senses the channel.
- If the channel is idle, it sends immediately.
- If the channel is busy, it waits a random amount of time and then senses the channel again.
- In non-persistent CSMA, the station does not continuously sense the channel for the purpose of capturing it when it detects the end of previous transmission.

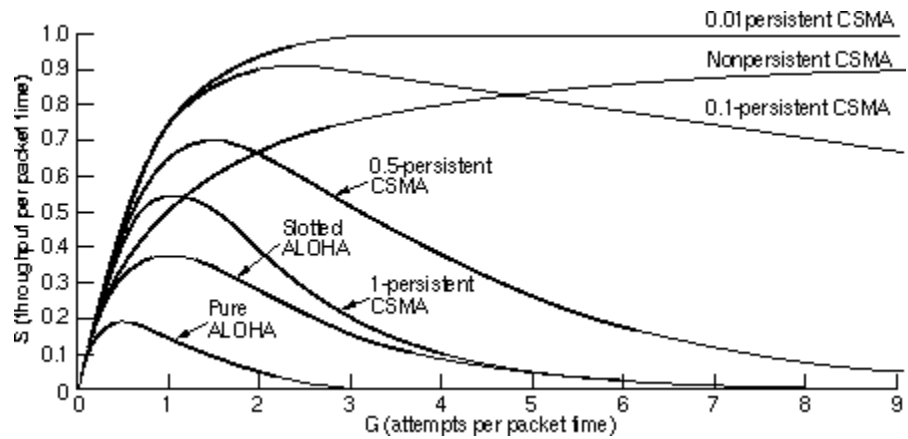


▪ **p-persistent CSMA**

- This method is used when channel has time slots such that the time slot duration is equal to or greater than the maximum propagation delay time.
- Whenever a station becomes ready to send, it senses the channel.
- If channel is busy, station waits until next slot.
- If channel is idle, it transmits with a probability  $p$ .
- With the probability  $q=1-p$ , the station then waits for the beginning of the next time slot.
- If the next slot is also idle, it either transmits or waits again with probabilities  $p$  and  $q$ .
- This process is repeated till either frame has been transmitted or another station has begun transmitting.
- In case of the transmission by another station, the station acts as though a collision has occurred and it waits a random amount of time and starts again.

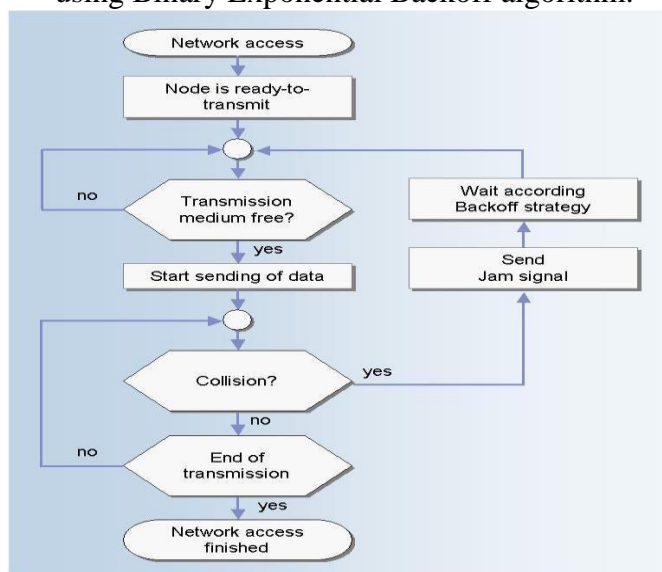


- Comparison of the channel utilization versus load for various random access protocols.



✓ **Carrier Sensing Multiple Access with collision detection Protocols CSMA/CD**

- CSMA/CD (carrier sense multiple access with collision detection) media access protocol is used.
  - Data is transmitted in the form of packets.
  - Sense channel prior to actual packet transmission.
  - Transmit packet only if channel is sensed idle; else, defer the transmission until channel becomes idle.
  - After packet transmission is started, the node monitors its own transmission to see if the packet has experienced a collision.
  - The jam signal is a signal that carries a 32-bit binary pattern sent by a data station to inform the other stations that they must not transmit.
  - If the packet is observed to be undergoing a collision, the transmission is aborted and the packet is retransmitted after a random interval of time using Binary Exponential Backoff algorithm.



## Ethernet

- ✓ Ethernet (pronounced "eethernet") is a computer network technology which is used in different area networks like LAN, MAN, WAN.
- ✓ Ethernet connecting computers together with cables so the computers can share information.
- ✓ Within each main branch of the network, "Ethernet" can connect up to 1,024 personal computers and workstations.
- ✓ Ethernet provides services on the Physical (Layers 1) and Data Link Layer (Layers 2) of OSI reference model.
- ✓ The Data Link Layer is further divided into two sub layers that are Logical Link Control (LLC) and Media Access Control (MAC), these sub layers can be used to establish the transmission paths and format data before transmitting on the same network segment.
- ✓ **History of Ethernet**
  - Ethernet was developed at Xerox PARC between 1973 and 1974. It was inspired by ALOHANet, which Robert Metcalfe had studied as part of his PhD dissertation. The idea was first documented in a memo that Metcalfe wrote on May 22, 1973, where he named it after the luminiferous aether once postulated to exist as an omnipresent, completely-passive medium for the propagation of electromagnetic waves. In 1975, Xerox filed a patent application listing Metcalfe, David Boggs, Chuck Thacker, and Butler Lampson as inventors. In 1976, after the system was deployed at PARC, Metcalfe and Boggs published a seminal paper. That same year, Ron Crane, Bob Garner, and Roy Ogus facilitated the upgrade from the original 2.94 Mbit/s protocol to the 10 Mbit/s protocol which was released to the market in 1980.
  - Metcalfe left Xerox in June 1979 to form 3Com. He convinced Digital Equipment Corporation (DEC), Intel, and Xerox to work together to promote Ethernet as a standard. The so-called "DIX" standard, for "Digital/Intel/Xerox", specified 10 Mbit/s Ethernet, with 48-bit destination and source addresses and a global 16-bit Ethertype-type field. It was published on September 30, 1980 as "The Ethernet, A Local Area Network. Data Link Layer and Physical Layer Specifications". Version 2 was published in November, 1982 and defines what has become known as Ethernet II. Formal standardization efforts proceeded at the same time and resulted in the publication of IEEE 802.3 on June 23, 1983.

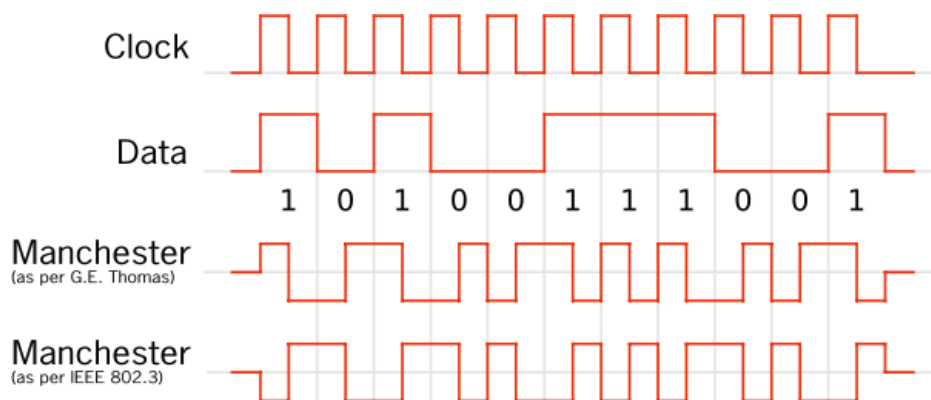
## Ethernet cabling

Name	IEEE Standard	Data Rate	Media Type	Maximum Distance
Ethernet	802.3	10 Mbps	10Base-T	100 meters
Fast Ethernet/ 100Base-T	802.3u	100 Mbps	100Base-TX 100Base-FX	100 meters 2000 meters
Gigabit	802.3z	1000	1000Base-T	100 meters

Ethernet/ GigE		Mbps	1000Base-SX 1000Base-LX	275/550 meters 550/5000meters
10Gigabit Ethernet	IEEE 802.3ae	10 Gbps	10GBase-SR 10GBase-LX4 10GBase- LR/ER 10GBase- SW/LW/EW	300 meters 300mMMF/10km SMF 10km/40km 300m/10km/40km

## Manchester encoding

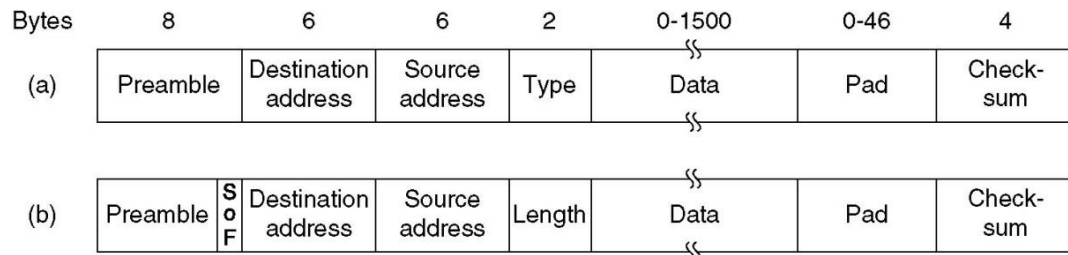
- ✓ Manchester code (also known as phase encoding, or PE) is a line code in which the encoding of each data bit is either low then high, or high then low, for equal time. It is a self-clocking signal with no DC component.
- ✓ Manchester code was used in early Ethernet physical layer standards and is still used in consumer IR protocols, RFID and near-field communication.
- ✓ Manchester coding is a special case of binary phase-shift keying (BPSK), where the data controls the phase of a square wave carrier whose frequency is the data rate. Manchester code ensures frequent line voltage transitions, directly proportional to the clock rate; this helps clock recovery.



- ✓ Manchester code always has a transition at the middle of each bit period and may (depending on the information to be transmitted) have a transition at the start of the period also. The direction of the mid-bit transition indicates the data. Transitions at the period boundaries do not carry information. They exist only to place the signal in the correct state to allow the mid-bit transition.

## The Ethernet MAC sublayer protocol

- ✓ In Standard Ethernet, the MAC sublayer governs the operation of the access method. It also frames data received from the upper layer and passes them to the physical layer.



Figure(a) DIX Frame Format (b) IEEE 802.3 Frame Format

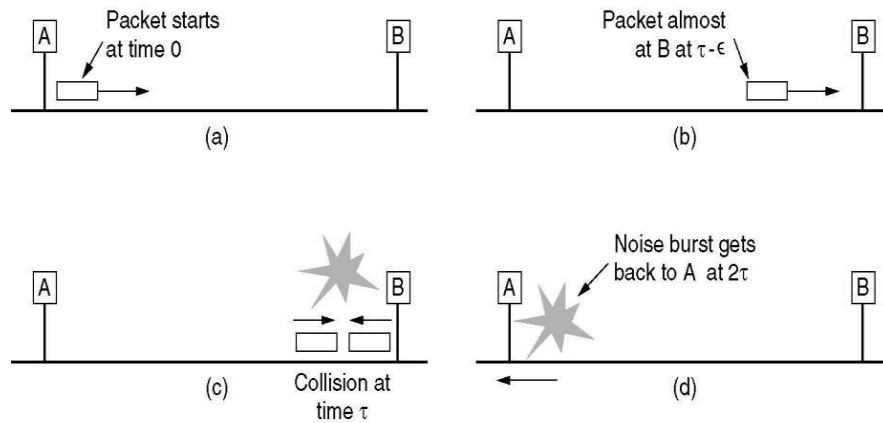
- ✓ **PREAMBLE**
  - It contains 7 bytes of alternating 0's and 1's that alert the receiving system to the coming frame and enables it to synchronize its input timing
  - It provides only an alert and the pattern allows the station to miss some bytes at the beginning of the frame.
  - It is actually added at the physical layer.
- ✓ **START FRAME DELIMITER (SFD)**
  - Signals the beginning of the frame
  - Warns the stations that this is the last chance for synchronization
  - The last 2 bits are 11 and alert the receiver that the next field is the destination address
- ✓ **DESTINATION ADDRESS (DA)**
  - Size of the Destination address is 6 bytes
  - Contains the physical address of the destination station to receive the packet
- ✓ **SOURCE ADDRESS (SA)**
  - Size of the Source address is 6 bytes
  - Contains physical address of the sender of the packet.
  - **ADDRESSING**
    - Each station on an Ethernet network has its own *network interface card* (NIC)
    - It provides the station with a 6-byte physical address, normally written in a hexadecimal notation, with a colon between the bytes, for eg.  
**06: 01 : 02: 2C: 4B :7C**
- ✓ **LENGTH**
  - Used as a length field to define the number of bytes in the data field
- ✓ **DATA**
  - Carries the data encapsulated from the upper layer protocols
  - Minimum 46 bytes
  - Maximum 1500 bytes
- ✓ **Checksum (CRC)**
  - This field contains error detection information
- ✓ **TYPE**
  - Unicast: one-to-one
  - Multicast: one-to-many

- Broadcast: recipients are all the stations on the LAN
- If the least significant bit of the 1st byte in a destination address is 0, the address is unicast; otherwise it is a multicast

✓ **FRAME LENGTH**

- Minimum length of data from upper layer is 46 bytes
- If the data is less than 46 bytes, padding is added to make up the difference
- Maximum length of data from upper layer is 1500 bytes
- Memory was very expensive when Ethernet was designed, maximum length restriction helped to reduce the size of the buffer
- Maximum length restriction prevents one station from monopolizing the shared medium, blocking other stations that have data to send

✓ **Collision Detection**



- Collision detection can take as long as  $2\tau$ .
- The reason for having a minimum length frame is to prevent a station from completing the transmission of a short frame before the first bit has even reached the far end of the cable, where it may collide with another frame.
- This problem is illustrated in Fig. At time 0, station A, at one end of the network, sends off a frame. Let us call the propagation time for this frame to reach the other end  $\tau$ . Just before the frame gets to the other end (i.e., at time  $\tau - \epsilon$ ), the most distant station, B, starts transmitting. When B detects that it is receiving more power than it is putting out, it knows that a collision has occurred, so it aborts its transmission and generates a 48-bit noise burst to warn all other stations. In other words, it jams the ether to make sure the sender does not miss the collision. At about time  $2\tau$ , the sender sees the noise burst and aborts its transmission, too. It then waits a random time before trying again.

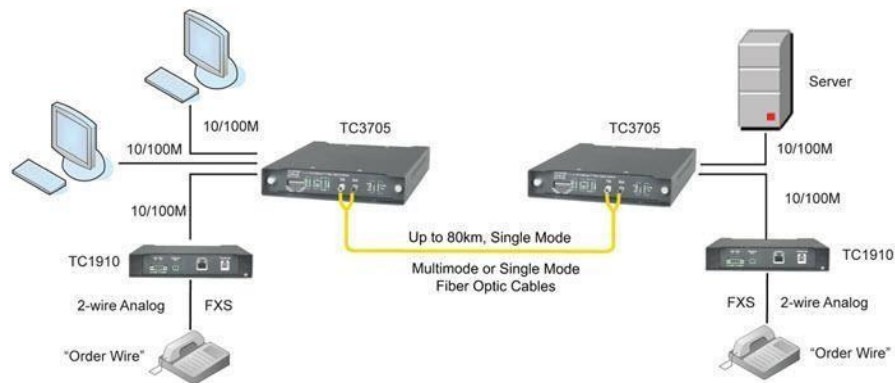
**The binary exponential backoff algorithm**

- ✓ After a collision the time is divided in discrete slots (equal to worst round trip propagation, which is 512 bits time or 51.2 us)
- ✓ After the first collision, each station waits 0 or 1 slot time before trying again
  - If two stations collide and they pick the same number, they will collide again
- ✓ After a second collision, each station waits 0, 1, 2 or 3 at random and waits that number of slot times.
- ✓ After a third collision will happen, the next number to pick is between 0 and  $2^3 - 1$  and that number of slots is skipped.
- ✓ After 10 collisions have been reached, the number interval is frozen at 0–1023.

- ✓ After 16 collisions, the station gives up to send the frame and reports the failure. Further recovery it is up to the higher.

## Switched ethernet

- ✓ Multiple network devices in a LAN require network equipments such as a network switch or hub. When using a network switch, a regular network cable is used instead of a crossover cable. The crossover cable consists of a transmission pair at one end and a receiving pair at the other end.
- ✓ The main function of a network switch is to forward data from one device to another device on the same network. Thus a network switch performs this task efficiently as the data is transferred from one device to another without affecting other devices on the same network.



- ✓ The network switch normally supports different data transfer rates. The most common data transfer rates include 10 Mbps – 100 Mbps for fast Ethernet, and 1000 Mbps – 10 Gbps for the latest Ethernet.
- ✓ Switch Ethernet uses star topology, which is organized around a switch. The switch in a network uses a filtering and switching mechanism similar to the one used by the gateways, in which these techniques have been in use for a long time.
- ✓ This type of Ethernet makes use of star topology.

## **Fast Ethernet**

- ✓ This type of Ethernet can transfer data at a rate of 100 Mbps. Fast Ethernet makes use of twisted pair cable or fiber optic cable for communication.
- ✓ Fast Ethernet is one of the versions of the Ethernet standard that enables the transmission of data over 100 megabits per second on local area networks (LAN).
- ✓ It was launched in 1995 and was the fastest network connection of its time.
- ✓ Fast Ethernet is also known as 100 Base X or 100 Mbps Ethernet, and is defined by the IEEE 802.3u protocol.
- ✓ It was initially designed for copper-based twisted pair cable networks and included the 100 Base-TX, 100 Base-T4 and 100 Base-T2 standards.
- ✓ The length of the cable in copper-based fast Ethernet was restricted to 100 meters.
- ✓ The fiber-based fast Ethernet standards 100 Base-FX, 100 Base-SX, 100 Base-BX and 100 Base-LX10 use one or more strands and modes of fiber optics to transmit data.
- ✓ The range of fast Ethernet for fiber mode can be from 400 yards to up to 25 miles.

**Reference Book: Computer Networks, Andrew Tanenbaum, 6<sup>th</sup> Edition.**

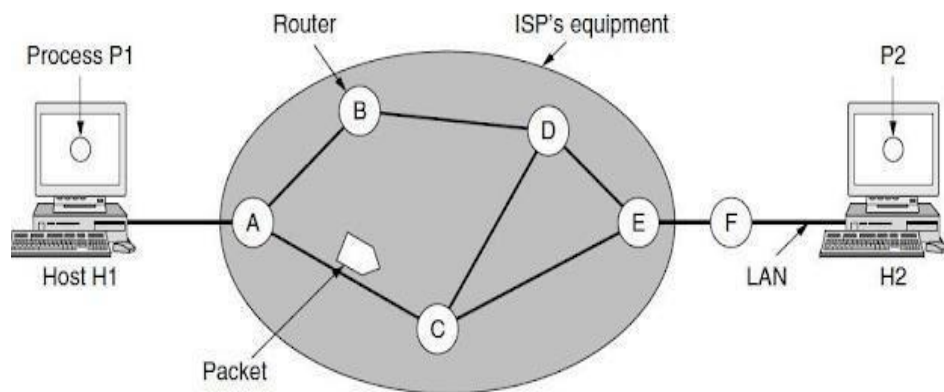
## UNIT-III THE NETWORK LAYER

### Functions of Network Layer

- ✓ Routing– find a path from one host to another host.
- ✓ Congestion control– mechanisms to prevent hosts from flooding the network.
- ✓ Quality of Service (QoS) - transmission rates, error rates, and other characteristics can be measured, improved, and, to some extent, guaranteed in advance.
- ✓ Internetworking provides translation between subnets using different protocols.

### Network layer design issues

- ✓ Store-and-Forward Packet Switching
- ✓ Services Provided to the Transport Layer
- ✓ Implementation of Connectionless Service
- ✓ Implementation of Connection-Oriented Service
  - **Store-and-Forward Packet Switching**



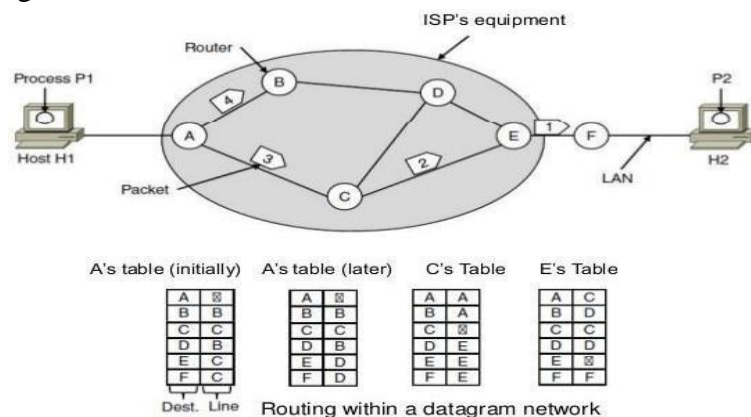
- The major components of the network are the carrier's equipment (routers connected by transmission lines), shown inside the shaded oval, and the
- Customers' equipment, shown outside the oval.
- Host H1 is directly connected to one of the carrier's routers, A, by a leased line. In contrast, H2 is on a LAN with a router, F, owned and operated by the customer. This router also has a leased line to the carrier's equipment.
- We have shown F as being outside the oval because it does not belong to the carrier, but in terms of construction, software, and protocols, it is probably no different from the carrier's routers.
- This equipment is used as follows. A host with a packet to send transmits it to the nearest router, either on its own LAN or over a point-to-point link to the carrier. The packet is stored there until it has fully arrived so the checksum can be verified.
- Then it is forwarded to the next router along the path until it reaches the destination host, where it is delivered. This mechanism is store-and-forward packet switching.

○ **Services Provided to the Transport Layer**

- The network layer provides services to the transport layer at the network layer/transport layer interface. An important question is what kind of services the network layer provides to the transport layer.
- The network layer services have been designed with the following goals in mind.
  - 1. These services should be independent of the router technology.
  - 2. The transport layer should be shielded from the number, type, and topology of the routers present.
  - 3. Network addresses available to transport layer should use be uniform, even across LANs and WANs.

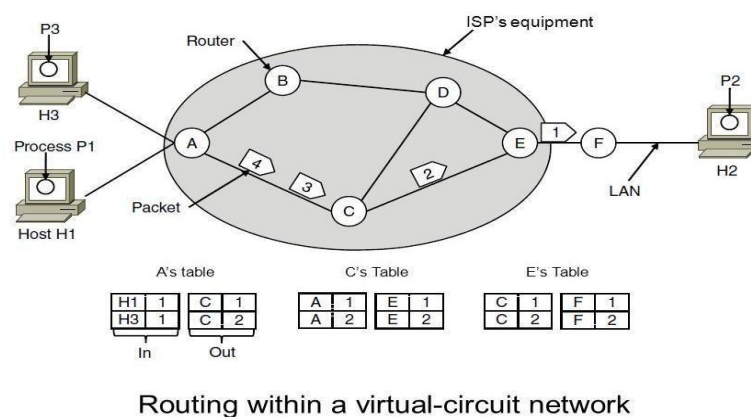
○ **Implementation of Connection less Service**

- No advance setup is needed.
- The packets are frequently called datagrams.
- The subnet is called a datagram network.
- The routing algorithm is the algorithm that manages the tables and makes the routing decision.



○ **Implementation of Connection-Oriented Service**

- A path from the source router to the destination router must be established before any data packets can be sent.
- The connection is called a VC (virtual circuit).
- The network is called a virtual-circuit network.
- To distinguish packets from different hosts, replacing connection identifiers in outgoing packets is called label switching.



✓ **Comparison of Virtual-Circuit and Datagram Network**

Issue	Datagram subnet	Virtual-circuit subnet
Circuit setup	Not needed	Required
Addressing	Each packet contains the full source and destination address	Each packet contains a short VC number
State information	Routers do not hold state information about connections	Each VC requires router table space per connection
Routing	Each packet is routed independently	Route chosen when VC is set up; all packets follow it
Effect of router failures	None, except for packets lost during the crash	All VCs that passed through the failed router are terminated
Quality of service	Difficult	Easy if enough resources can be allocated in advance for each VC
Congestion control	Difficult	Easy if enough resources can be allocated in advance for each VC

**Routing Algorithms**

- ✓ Routing is the process of moving packets from the source to a destination in internetworking.
- ✓ Routing protocols use a routing algorithm which is a mathematical formula to forward the packet to its destination.
- ✓ The main function of the network layer is routing packets from the source machine to the destination machine.
- ✓ In most networks, packets will require multiple hops to make the journey.
- ✓ More than one route is possible in every network; however the shortest route should be selected.
- ✓ The shortest route means, a route which passes through the least number of nodes to reach the destination.
- ✓ The routing algorithm is designed to find the shortest route and it is part of network software.
- ✓ Routing Table: To route IP packets, a host or a router has a routing table with entries for each destination or a combination of destinations.
  - A static routing table contains information, which is entered manually. The administrator enters the route for each destination into the table.
  - Dynamic routing table is updated periodically by using dynamic protocols like RIP, OSPF or BGP.
- ✓ **The routing algorithm can be classified into two types:**
  - **Static (non-adaptive) routing algorithms**
    - In this type, the network topology determines the final path. All the possible paths which are already calculated are loaded into the routing table.
    - Static routing is suitable for small networks.
    - The disadvantage of static routing is, inability to respond quickly in case of network failure.
  - **Dynamic (Adaptive) routing algorithms**
    - The dynamic routing algorithms can change their routing decision on the basis of some changes made in the topology.

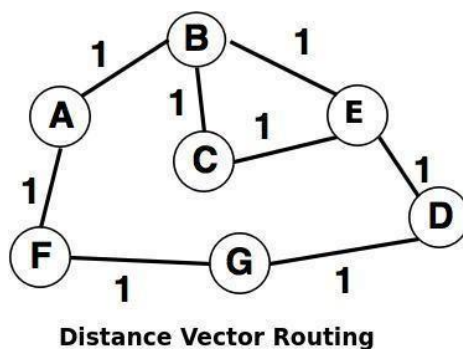
- Each router can check the network status by communicating with the neighbours. So, the changes in the topology are reflected to all routers.
- Finally, the router can calculate the suitable path to the final destination.
- The disadvantage of this type is complexity in the router.

✓ **Intra-domain Routing and Inter-domain Routing**

- An autonomous system is a group of the networks and the routers, which are operated by the network administrator. Internet can be divided into autonomous systems.
- Routing inside an autonomous system is referred to as intra-domain routing.
  - Protocols for Intra-domain routing are called as interior gateway protocols.
  - Distance vector and link state routing are the examples of Intra-domain routing.
    - Example: RIP and OSPF
- Routing between two or more autonomous systems can be referred to as inter-domain routing.
  - Protocols for Inter-domain routing are also called as exterior gateway protocols.
  - Path vector is an example of an inter-domain routing.
    - Example: BGP

**Distance Vector Routing**

- ✓ Distance vector routing is the dynamic routing algorithm and also known as **Bellman-Ford** routing algorithm and **Ford-Fulkerson** algorithm.
- ✓ It was designed for small network topologies.
- ✓ In this algorithm, node router constructs a table containing the distance (total cost of path) to all other nodes and distributes that vector to its immediate neighbors.
- ✓ For distance vector routing, it is assumed that each node knows the cost of the link to each of its directly connected neighbors.
- ✓ A link, which is 'down' is assigned as an infinite cost.
- ✓ Every node sends a message to its directly connected neighbors
  - **For example:** A sends its information to B and F.
- ✓ After communicating to each directly connected node the shortest path can be easily computed (as shown in above table).



Information at Node	Cost to Reach Node						
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
A	0	1	2	3	2	1	2
B	1	0	1	2	1	2	3
C	2	1	0	2	1	3	3
D	3	2	2	0	1	2	2
E	2	1	1	1	0	3	2
F	1	2	3	2	3	0	1
G	2	3	3	1	2	1	0

## Routing Information Protocol(RIP)

- ✓ RIP is a dynamic,distance vector routing protocol based around the Berkely BSD application *routerd* andwasdevelopedforsmaller IP based networks.RIP uses UDP port 520 for route updates. RIP calculates the best routebased on hopcount.Likeall distancevectorroutingprotocols,RIPtakesometime to converge. While RIP requires less CPU power and RAM than some other routing protocols, RIP does have some limitations:
  - Metric:Hop Count
    - SinceRIP calculates the best routeto a destination based solelyon how many hops it is to the destination network, RIP tends to be inefficientinnetwork usingmorethanoneLANprotocol,suchasFastEthernet and serial or Token Ring. This is because RIP prefers paths with the shortest hop count. The path with the shortest hop count might be over the slowest link in the network.
  - HopCountLimit
    - RIP cannot handle more than 15 hops. Anything more than 15 hops away is considered unreachable by RIP. This fact is used by RIP to prevent routing loops.
  - ClassfulRouting Only
    - RIP is a classfulrouting protocol. RIP cannot handle classless routing. RIP v1 advertises all networks it knows as classfulnetworks, so it is impossible to subnet a network properly via VLSM if you are running RIP v1, which
- ✓ However,itmustbepointedoutthatRIPistheonly routing protocolthat all routing devices and software support, so in a mixed equipment environment, RIP may be your only option for dynamic routing.

### ✓ RIPMESSAGES

- RIPupdatesareplacedasUDPpayloadinsidean IPdatagram.Belowisthe base format of a RIP message.

command	version	zeroes
AddressFamily ID		zeroes
IPAddress		
zeroes		
zeroes		
Metric		
Payload		

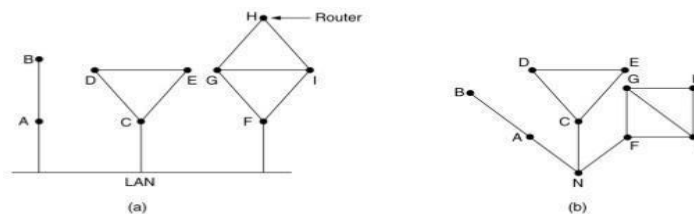
- COMMANDtypes(fieldvalue)
  - REQUEST (1)- Request either a partial or full table update from another RIP router.
  - RESPONSE(2)-Aresponse toa request.Allrouteupdatesusethe command in the command field.
  - TRACEON(3)/ TRACEOFF(4)-Obsoleteand ignored.
  - RESERVED (5) - Sun Microsystems uses this field for it's own purposes.
- VERSIONfield -Describes whichversionoftheRIPprotocol itis (1or2).
- ADDRESS FAMILY ID - Identifies which addressing protocol is being used

(CLNS, IPX, IP etc.)

- METRIC-Metric measures how good a route is. RIP uses the number of hops as the metric. The route with the fewest number of hops is preferred.

## Link State Protocol

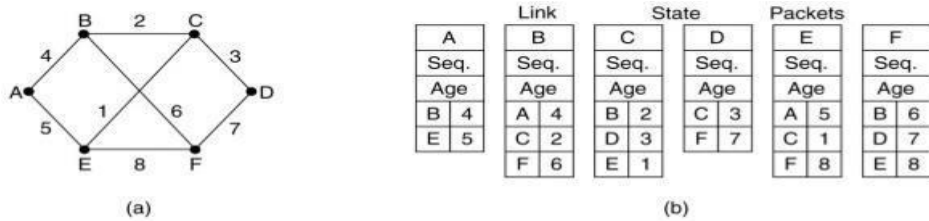
- ✓ Link state routing is the second family of routing protocols.
- ✓ Link-state routing uses link-state routers to exchange messages that allow each router to learn the entire network topology.
- ✓ Based on this learned topology, each router is then able to compute its routing table by using a shortest path computation.
- ✓ The idea behind link state routing is fairly simple and can be stated as five parts. Each router must do the following things to make it work:
  - ✓ 1. Discover its neighbors and learn their network addresses.
  - ✓ 2. Set the distance or cost metric to each of its neighbors.
  - ✓ 3. Construct a packet telling all it has just learned.
  - ✓ 4. Send this packet to and receive packets from all other routers.
  - ✓ 5. Compute the shortest path to every other router.
- ✓ Dijkstra's algorithm can be run at each router to find the shortest path to every other router.
- ✓ **Learning about the Neighbors**
  - Each Link State enabled router periodically sends a HELLO message on each of its links.
  - Neighbor routers respond to these HELLO messages identifying themselves. Within the replies, network addresses of the routers are attached and are used by the HELLO initiator to build up its neighbor table.



(a) Nine routers and a LAN. (b) A graph model of (a).

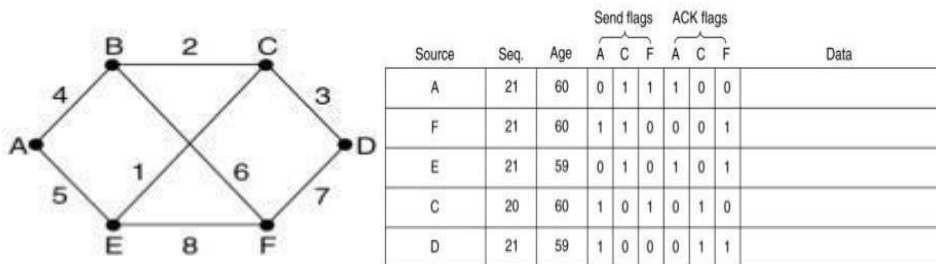
- ✓ **Setting Link Costs**
  - The link state routing algorithm requires each link to have a distance or cost metric for finding shortest paths.
  - The cost to reach neighbors can be set automatically, or configured by the network operator.
  - A common choice is to make the cost inversely proportional to the bandwidth of the link.
    - For example, 1-Gbps Ethernet may have a cost of 1 and 100-Mbps Ethernet a cost of 10. This makes higher-capacity paths better choices.
    - The most direct way to determine this delay is to send over the line a special ECHO packet that the other side is required to send back immediately.
    - By measuring the round-trip time and dividing it by two, the sending router can get a reasonable estimate of the delay.
- ✓ **Building Link State Packets**
  - Once the information needed for the exchange has been collected, the next step is for each router to build a packet containing all the data.
  - The packet starts with the identity of the sender, followed by a sequence number and a list of neighbors.

- The cost to each neighbor is also given. An example network is presented in Fig. (a) with costs shown as labels on the lines.
- The corresponding link state packets for all six routers are shown in Fig. (b).



✓ **Distributing the Link State Packets**

- The trickiest part of the algorithm is distributing the link state packets. All of the routers must get all of the link state packets quickly and reliably.
- For flooding packets, here used basic distribution algorithm.
  - The fundamental idea is to use flooding to distribute the link state packets to all routers.
  - To keep the flood in check, each packet contains a sequence number that is incremented for each new packet sent. Routers keep track of all the (source router, sequence) pairs they see.
  - When a new link state packet comes in, it is checked against the list of packets already seen.
    - If it is new, it is forwarded on all lines except the one it arrived on.
    - If it is a duplicate, it is discarded.
    - If a packet with a sequence number lower than the highest one seen so far ever arrives, it is rejected as being obsolete as the router has more recent data.



✓ **Computing the New Routes**

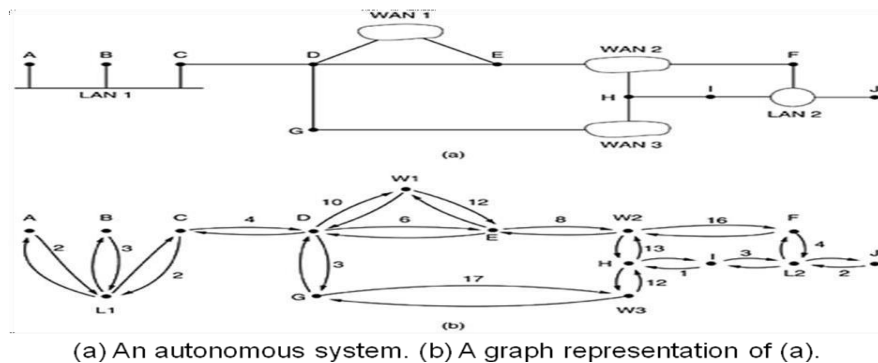
- Once a router has accumulated a full set of link state packets, it can construct the entire network graph because every link is represented.
- Every link is, in fact, represented twice, once for each direction. The different directions may even have different costs.
- The shortest-path computations may then find different paths from router A to B than from router B to A.
- Now Dijkstra's algorithm can be run locally to construct the shortest paths to all possible destinations.
- The results of this algorithm tell the router which link to use to reach each destination.

**Open Shortest Path First (OSPF)**

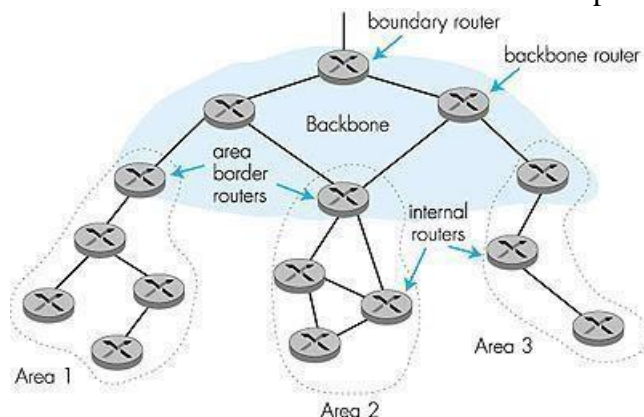
- ✓ The Internet is made up of a large number of autonomous systems. Each AS is

operated by a different organization and can use its own routing algorithm inside.

- For example, the internal networks of companies X, Y, and Z are usually seen as three ASes if all three are on the Internet.
- ✓ All three may use different routing algorithms internally. Nevertheless, having standards, even for internal routing, simplifies the implementation at the boundaries between ASes and allows reuse of code.
- ✓ A routing algorithm within an AS is called an interior gateway protocol; an algorithm for routing between ASes is called an exterior gateway protocol.
- ✓ The original Internet interior gateway protocol was a distance vector protocol (RIP) based on the Bellman-Ford algorithm inherited from the ARPANET.
- ✓ In 1988, the Internet Engineering Task Force began work on a successor. That successor, called OSPF (Open Shortest Path First), became a standard in 1990.
- ✓ OSPF supports three kinds of connections and networks:
  - 1. Point-to-point lines between exactly two routers.
  - 2. Multiaccess networks with broadcasting (e.g., most LANs).
- ✓ 3. Multiaccess networks without broadcasting (e.g., most packet-switched WANs).



- ✓ Many of the ASes in the Internet are themselves large and nontrivial to manage.
- ✓ OSPF allows them to be divided into numbered areas, where an area is a network or a set of contiguous networks.
- ✓ Every AS has a backbone area, called area 0. All areas are connected to the backbone, possibly by tunnels, so it is possible to go from any area in the AS to any other area in the AS via the backbone. A tunnel is represented in the graph as an arc and has a cost. Each router that is connected to two or more areas is part of the backbone.



- ✓ The five types of OSPF messages:

**Message type**

Hello  
 Link state update  
 Link state ack

**Description**

Used to discover who the neighbors are  
 Provides the sender's cost to its neighbors  
 Acknowledges link state update

Database description	Announces which updates the sender has
Link state request	Requests information from the partner

- Hello
  - Hello messages are used as a form of greeting, to allow a router to discover other adjacent routers on its local links and networks.
  - The messages establish relationships between neighboring devices and communicate key parameters about how OSPF is to be used in the autonomous system or area.
  - During normal operation, routers send hello messages to their neighbors at regular intervals (the hello interval); if a router stops receiving hello messages from a neighbor, after a set period (the dead interval) the router will assume the neighbor has gone down.
- Database Description (DBD)
  - Database description messages contain descriptions of the topology of the autonomous system or area. They convey the contents of the link-state database (LSDB) for the area from one router to another. Communicating a large LSDB may require several messages to be sent by having the sending device designated as a master device and sending messages in sequence, with the slave (recipient of the LSDB information) responding with acknowledgements.
- Link State Request (LSR)
  - Link state request messages are used by one router to request updated information about a portion of the LSDB from another router. The message specifies the link(s) for which the requesting device wants more current information.
- Link State Update (LSU)
  - *Link state update* messages contain updated information about the state of certain links on the LSDB. They are sent in response to a Link State Request message, and also broadcast or multicast by routers on a regular basis. Their contents are used to update the information in the LSDBs of routers that receive them.
- Link State Acknowledgment (LSAck)
  - *Link state acknowledgement* messages provide reliability to the link-state exchange process, by explicitly acknowledging receipt of a Link State Update message.

### **Destination Sequenced Distance Vector routing (DSDV)**

- ✓ Destination Sequenced Distance Vector (DSDV) routing is a table driven or proactive and hop-by-hop distance vector routing protocol based on the concept of the classical distributed Bellman-Ford Algorithm, in which each mobile node maintains a routing table that contains the number of hops to reach the destination node in the shortest path, all available destinations in the network and the sequence number fixed by the destination node to prevent looping problem.
- ✓ To maintain the regularity of routing tables in a dynamically varying topology, each and every neighbor node exchanges its routing tables periodically at regular time intervals.
- ✓ A node also broadcasts its routing table to neighbors if any change occurs in the routing table due to changes in the local topology.
- ✓ Updating of the routing table is both time-driven and event-driven and is done by two

methods:

- Incremental updates: An incremental update takes a single Network Data Packet Unit (NDPU) which is used when a node does not detect considerable changes in topology.
- Full dump updates: A full dump update may take multiple NDPUs. It is done either when an incremental update wants more than a single network data packet unit or when the topology changes significantly.
- ✓ If there is a space in the incremental update packet, then those entries whose sequence number has changed when routing table information is modified. When two routes to a destination are received from two different neighbors, the one with greatest number is selected. If equal the smaller hop count is selected.
- ✓ DSDV protocol guarantees loop free paths and count to infinity problem is reduced.
- ✓ DSDV protocol has four different phases, which are described as follows :
  - **Route advertisements:**
    - Each node has to maintain a routing table in which all the accessible destinations within the network and the number of hops to every destination are saved.
    - Each entry in the table has a sequence number fixed by the destination node. This number enables the mobile node to distinguish stale routes from new ones, and also keep away from the formation of routing loops.
    - These routing tables are transmitting to its immediate neighbors periodically at regular intervals time.

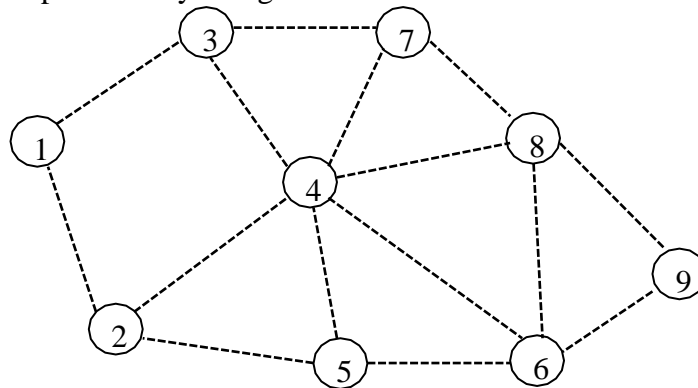


Figure 1. Route establishments in DSDV.

- **Routing table entry construction:**
  - The packet broadcast by each node has the new sequence number and the information in the packet for each new route are the destination address, the number of hops to reach the destination and the sequence number of the information received about that destination and stamped through the destination.

Table 1 Routing table at node 1

Destination	Next hop	Number of hops	Sequence number
1	1	0	20
2	2	1	16
3	3	1	78
4	3	2	48
5	2	2	52

6	2	3	18
7	3	2	78
8	2	3	58
9	2	4	24

○ **Response to changes in topology:**

- Each and every immediate neighbor node in the network can exchange its routing tables periodically at regular time intervals to maintain the consistency of routing tables in a dynamically changing topology. A node updates its routing table and broadcasts immediately when significant new information is available.

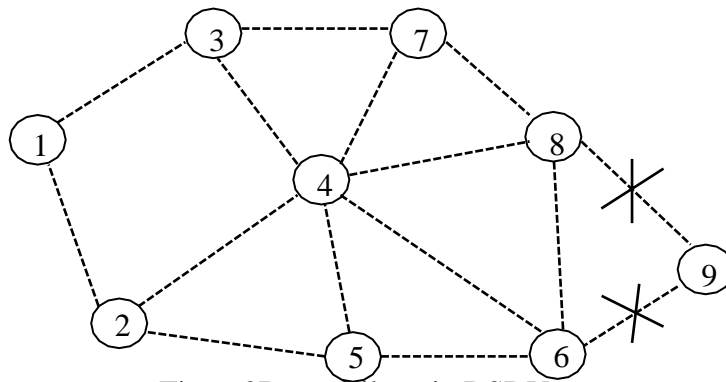


Figure 2 Route failures in DSDV

Table 2 Routing table at node 1 (Link failure)

Destination	Next hop	Number of hops	Sequence number
1	1	0	20
2	2	1	16
3	3	1	78
4	3	2	48
5	2	2	52
6	2	3	18
7	3	2	78
8	2	3	58
9	2	∞	24

○ **Route selection:**

- If the source node gets new routing information through an incremental packet, it compares with available routing information from previous routing packets.

Table 3 Routing table at node 1 (update discarded based on sequence number)

Destination	Next hop	Number of hops	Sequence number
1	1	0	20
2	2	1	16
3	3	1	78
4	3	2	48
5	2	2	52
6	2	3	18
7	3	2	78
8	2	3	58

**New packet**

Destination 5

Next hop 2

Number of hops 2

Sequence number: 51 / 26

Table4Routingtableat node1 (updatediscardbased onthe numberofhops)

Destination	Next hop	Number ofhops	Sequence number
1	1	0	20
2	2	1	16
3	3	1	78
4	3	2	48
5	2	2	52
6	2	3	18
7	3	2	78
8	2	3	58
9	2	4	24

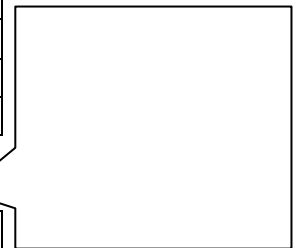
**Newpacket**

Destination 5  
 Nexthop 2  
 Numberof hops 3  
 Sequencenumber:52

- The route uses the recent sequence number information. Routes with existing sequence numbers are removed. A route with a sequence number equal to an existing route is elected if it is more cost effective. Then an existing route may be removed or stored as a less preferable route.
- Table 3 indicates the routing table at node 1 for update discard based on sequence number. Table 4 indicates the routing table at node 1 for update discard based on the number of hops. Table 5 indicates the updated routing table at node 1.

Table 5 Updated routing table at node 1

Destination	Next hop	Number of hops	Sequence number
1	1	0	20
2	2	1	16
3	3	1	78
4	3	2	48
5	2	2	<del>52</del> 54
6	2	3	18
7	3	2	78
8	2	3	58
9	2	4	24



## Dynamic Source routing Protocol

- ✓ Dynamic Source Routing (DSR) protocol is a simple and efficient routing protocol. It is also known as on-demand protocol because the packets are forwarded only when there is demand by the nodes. It does not need any network infrastructure as it is based on demand.
- ✓ The protocol consists of route discovery and route maintenance. They are used together to discover and maintain routers.
- ✓ DSR avoids flooding and it does not need the up-to-date routing information. Hence the operation of DSR has been evaluated on a variety of patterns and communication patterns in an ad hoc network.
- ✓ DSR divides the task of routing into two distinct problems. They are route discovery and route maintenance. In route discovery, A node only tries to discover a route to a destination if it has to send something to this destination and there is currently no known route.
- ✓ In route maintenance, if a node is continuously sending packets via a route, it has to make sure that the route is held upright. As soon as a node detects problems with the current route, it has to find an alternative.
- ✓ The above two mechanisms are based on demand. When compared to other protocols, DSR is independent of periodic update of routing table. It does not use any periodic routing advertisement, link status sensing, neighbor detection packets.

- ✓ DSR allows unidirectional links and asymmetric routes. A node can send the packets to other nodes while the opponent is free i.e. idle. It increases the overall performance and network connectivity.
- ✓ DSR also acts as an interface between different types of wireless networks.
  - **DSR route discovery:**

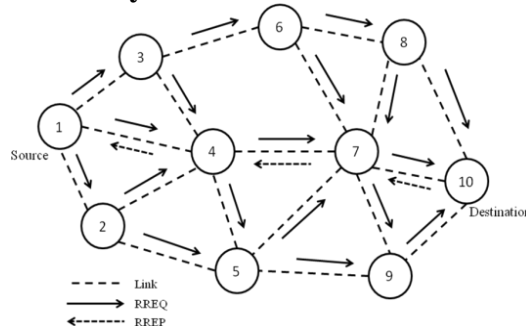


Figure 1 An example for DSR route discovery

- Route discovery is the mechanism by which a node wishing to send a packet to a destination node obtains a source route.
- A route is discovered only when a node sends a packet to the other node. Route discovery takes place while a node that wants to send a packet first establishes a route by sending ROUTE REQUEST message to all the other nodes available in the network.
- If the request has reached the target node, the ROUTE REPLY message is being transferred to the initiator node. Otherwise, if the target node has already received this ROUTE REQUEST message, then it drops the request, or else the nodes append their own address to a list of traversed hops in the packet and broadcast this updated route request.
- The address of the intermediate node is maintained in the ROUTE REQUEST message for future use.
- The copy of the original packet is saved in the local buffer called send buffer by the sending nodes.
- To reduce the overhead, once a node discovers a route, it can send various packets to the same target node.
- Additional route discovery features:
  - Caching overhead,
  - Replying to route requests using cached routes,
  - Preventing route reply storms,
  - Route request hop limits.
- **DSR route maintenance:**

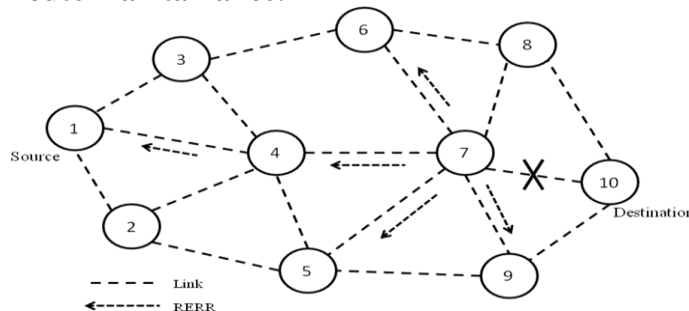
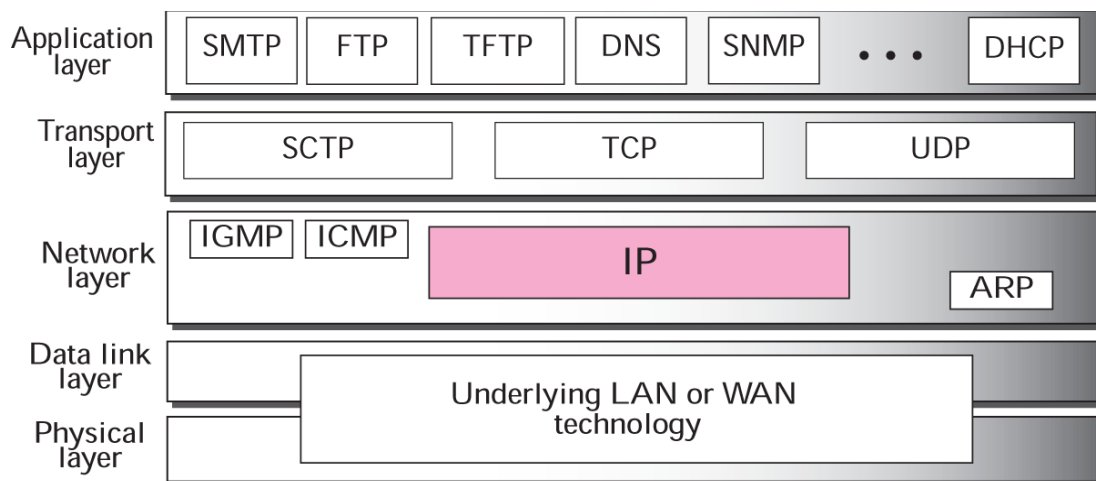


Figure 2 An example for DSR route maintenance

- After the discovery of a route, there should be maintenance of a route.
- Route maintenance involves the maintenance of a route as long as the node sends packets along this route.
- When a node has discovered a route, a passive acknowledgement is being sent.
- A ROUTE ERROR message is sent to the sender when the packet is retransmitted maximum number of times and no acknowledgement is being received.
- Figure 2 shows the link failure between node 7 and node 10. Hence the need for route maintenance.

### Internet protocol version 4 (IPv4)

- ✓ The Internet Protocol (IP) is the transmission mechanism used by the TCP/IP protocols at the network layer.
- ✓ Figure shows the position of IP in the suite.

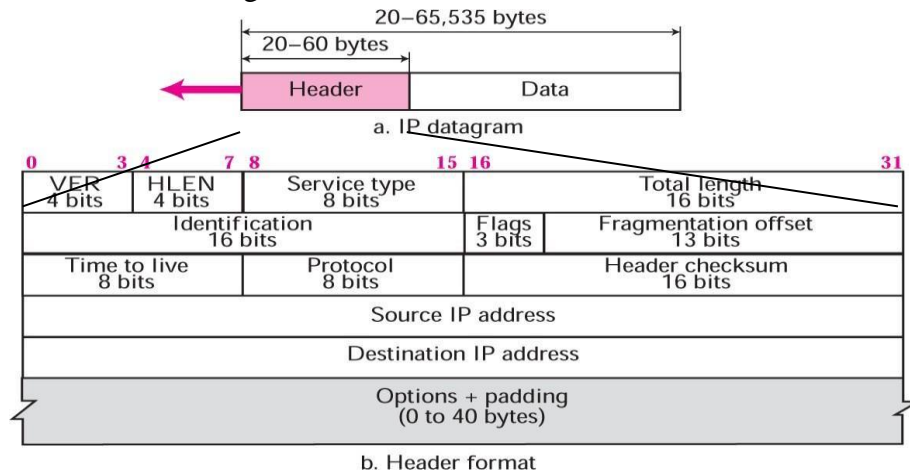


- ✓ IP is an unreliable and connectionless datagram protocol.
- ✓ It is a best-effort delivery service. The term best-effort means that IP packets can be corrupted, lost, arrive out of order, or delayed and may create congestion for the network.
- ✓ If reliability is important, IP must be paired with reliable protocols such as TCP.
- ✓ IP is also a connectionless protocol for a packet switching network that uses the datagram approach.

### Datagrams

- ✓ Packets in the network (internet) layer are called datagrams.
- ✓ A datagram is a variable-length packet consisting of two parts:
  - Header - It is 20 to 60 bytes in length and contains information essential to routing and delivery.
  - Data - Payload data.

- ✓ FigureshowstheIPdatagram format.



- ✓ **Version(VER):**
  - This 4-bit field defines the version of the IP protocol. Currently the version is 4. This field tells the IP software running in the processing machine that the datagram has the format of version 4.
- ✓ **Header length(HLEN):**
  - This 4-bit field defines the total length of the datagram header in 4-byte words. This field is needed because the length of the header is variable (between 20 and 60 bytes).
    - When there are no options, the header length is 20 bytes.
    - When the option field is at its maximum size 60 bytes.
- ✓ **Service type:**
  - In the original design of IP header, this field was referred to as type of service (TOS)
  - TOS component is used to determine the type of service that must be provided by the Internet layer depending on the type of application for which the data transfer needs to be done.
  - It has 8 bits field.
    - The first three bits filed are known as precedence bits (ignored as today).
    - The next 4 bits represent type of service
      - TOS are:
        - 0000 -Normal
        - 0001 -Minimizing Cost
        - 0010 -Maximize reliability.
        - 0100 -Maximize throughput
        - 1000 -Minimize delay.
    - Last bit is unused.
- ✓ **Total length:**
  - This is a 16-bit field that defines the total length(header plus data) of the IP datagram in bytes.
  - To find the length of the data coming from the upper layer, subtract the header length from the total length.

**Length of data = total length - header length**
  - The header length can be found by multiplying the value in the HLEN field by four.

✓ **Identification:**

- This 16-bit field identifies a datagram originating from the source host. The combination of the identification and source IP address must uniquely define a datagram as it leaves the source host.
- All fragments of a datagram contain the same identification value.
- This allows the destination host to determine which fragment belongs to which datagram.

✓ **Flags:**

- This is a three-bit field.



- The first bit is reserved (not used).
- The second bit (D) is called the **donotfragment bit**.
  - If its value is 1, the machine must not fragment the datagram
  - If its value is 0, the datagram can be fragmented if necessary.
- The third bit (M) is called the **morefragment bit**.
  - If its value is 1, it means the datagram is not the last fragment; there are more fragments after this one.
  - If its value is 0, it means this is the last or only fragment.

✓ **Fragmentation offset:**

- This 13-bit field shows the relative position of this fragment with respect to the whole datagram.
- It is the offset of the data in the original datagram measured in units of 8 bytes.

✓ **Time to live:**

- A datagram has a limited lifetime in it travels through an internet.
- This field was originally designed to hold a timestamp, which was decremented by each visited router.
- The datagram was discarded when the value became zero.

✓ **Protocol:**

- This 8-bit field defines the higher-level protocol that uses the services of the IP layer.
- An IP datagram can encapsulate data from several higher level protocols such as TCP, UDP, ICMP, and IGMP.
- This field specifies the final destination protocol to which the IP datagram should be delivered.
- Some of the values of this field for different higher-level protocols

<i>Value</i>	<i>Protocol</i>	<i>Value</i>	<i>Protocol</i>
1	ICMP	17	UDP
2	IGMP	89	OSPF
6	TCP		

✓ **Checksum:**

- To provide basic protection against corruption in transmission.
- Example – CRC

- ✓ **Source address:**
  - This 32-bit field defines the IP address of the source. This field must remain unchanged during the time the IP datagram travels from the source host to the destination host.
- ✓ **Destination address:**
  - This 32-bit field defines the IP address of the destination. This field must remain unchanged during the time the IP datagram travels from the source host to the destination host.
- ✓ **Options:**
  - One or more several types of options may be included after the standard header in certain IP datagrams.
- ✓ **Padding:**
  - The variable part comprises the options, which can be a maximum of 40 bytes. Options, as the name implies, are not required for a datagram. They can be used for network testing and debugging.
- ✓ **Data:**
  - The data to be transmitted in the datagram.

## Internet protocol version 6 (IPv6)

### IPv6- Introduction

- ✓ Several reasons for the need of a new protocol, Internet Protocol version 6 (IPv6).
  - The main reason was the address depletion.
  - Other reasons are related to the slowness of the process due to some unnecessary processing, the need for new options, support for multimedia, and the desperate need for security.

### Comparison between IPv4 and IPv6 Headers

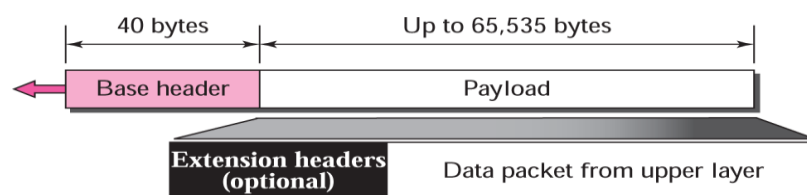
IPv4	IPv6
Source and destination address are 32 bits or 4 Bytes Example: 192.168.0.1	Source and destination address are 128 bits or 16 Bytes Example: 2001:0db8:85a3:0000:0000:8a2e:0370:7334
Header contains checksum	Header does not contain checksum
Header contains options	All optional data is moved to IPv6 extension headers
Broadcast addresses are used to send packets to all nodes on a subnet.	No broadcast addresses, instead link local scope all nodes multicast address is used.
Manual or DHCP based IP configuration.	Nodes are capable of auto configuration.
Fragmentation is done by sending host and also router which slows down the process.	Fragmentation is done only by the sender of the packet.
IPsec headers support is optional	IPsec headers support is required.
No identification of packet flow in IP header.	Flow label field is used to identify the packet flow and prioritized delivery

## Advantages of IPv6

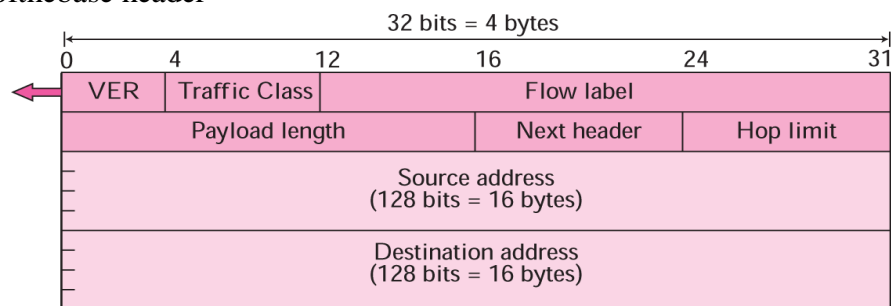
- ✓ **Larger address space:** An IPv6 address is 128 bits long. Compared with the 32-bit address of IPv4, this is a huge (296 times) increase in the address space.
- ✓ **Better header format:** IPv6 uses a new header format in which options are separated from the base header and inserted, when needed, between the base header and the upper-layer data. This simplifies and speeds up the routing process because most of the options do not need to be checked by routers.
- ✓ **New options:** IPv6 has new options to allow for additional functionalities.
- ✓ **Allowance for extension:** IPv6 is designed to allow the extension of the protocol if required by new technologies or applications.
- ✓ **Support for resource allocation:** In IPv6, the type-of-service field has been removed, but two new fields, traffic class and flow label have been added to enable the source to request special handling of the packet. This mechanism can be used to support traffic such as real-time audio and video.
- ✓ **Support for more security:** The encryption and authentication options in IPv6 provide confidentiality and integrity of the packet.

## IPv6 Header

- ✓ The IPv6 packet is shown in below. Each packet is composed of a mandatory base header followed by the payload.
- ✓ The payload consists of two parts:
  - optional extension headers and
  - data from an upper layer.
- ✓ The base header occupies 40 bytes, whereas the extension headers and data from the upper layer contain up to 65,535 bytes of information.
- ✓ IPv6 datagram



- ✓ Format of the base header



- These fields are as follows:
  - **Version:** This 4-bit field defines the version number of the IP. For IPv6, the value is 6.

- **Traffic Class:** This 8-bit field is used to distinguish different payloads with different delivery requirements. It replaces the service class field in IPv4.
- **Flow label:** The **flow label** is a 20-bit field that is designed to provide special handling for a particular flow of data.
- **Payload length:** The 2-byte payload length field defines the length of the IP datagram excluding the base header.
- **Next header:** The **next header** is an 8-bit field defining the header that follows the base header in the datagram. The next header is either one of the optional extension headers used by IP or the header of an encapsulated packet such as UDP or TCP.

<i>Code</i>	<i>Next Header</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Next Header</i>
0	Hop-by-hop option	44	Fragmentation
2	ICMP	50	Encrypted security payload
6	TCP	51	Authentication
17	UDP	59	Null (No next header)
43	Source routing	60	Destination option

- **Hop limit:** This 8-bit **hop limit** field serves the same purpose as the TTL field in IPv4.
- **Source address:** The source address field is a 16-byte (128-bit) Internet address that identifies the original source of the datagram.
- **Destination address:** The destination address field is a 16-byte (128-bit) Internet address that usually identifies the final destination of the datagram. However, if source routing is used, this field contains the address of the next router.

✓ **FlowLabel:**

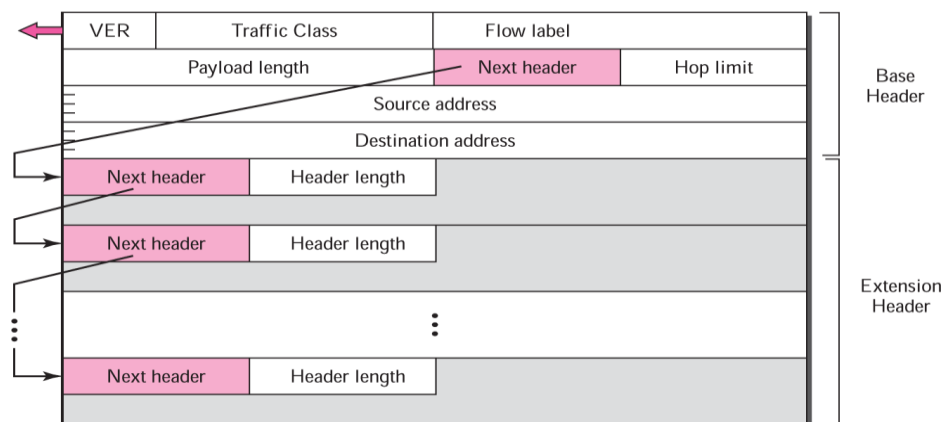
- In version 6, the flow label has been directly added to the format of the IPv6 datagram to allow us to use IPv6 as a connection-oriented protocol.
- To a router, a flow is a sequence of packets that share the same characteristics, such as traveling the same path, using the same resources, having the same kind of security, and so on. A router that supports the handling of flow labels has a flow label table.
- The table has an entry for each active flow label; each entry defines the services required by the corresponding flow label. When the router receives a packet, it consults its flow. It then provides the packet with the services mentioned in the entry.
- In its simplest form, a flow label can be used to speed up the processing of a packet by a router. When a router receives a packet, instead of consulting the routing table and going through a routing algorithm to define the address of the next hop, it can easily look in a flow label table for the next hop label table to find the corresponding entry for the flow label value defined in the packet. It then provides the packet with the services mentioned in the entry.
- In its more sophisticated form, a flow label can be used to support the transmission of real-time audio and video. Real-time audio or video,

particularly in digital form, requires resources such as high bandwidth, large buffers, long processing time, and so on.

- The use of real-time data and the reservation of these resources require other protocols such as Real-Time Protocol (RTP) and Resource Reservation Protocol (RSVP) in addition to IPv6.
- To allow the effective use of flow labels, three rules have been defined:
  1. The flow label is assigned to a packet by the source host. The label is a random number between 1 and  $2^{24} - 1$ . A source must not reuse a flow label for a new flow while the existing flow is still alive.
  2. If a host does not support the flow label, it sets this field to zero. If a router does not support the flow label, it simply ignores it.
  3. All packets belonging to the same flow have the same source, same destination, same priority, and same options.

### IPv6 extension headers

- ✓ The length of the base header is fixed at 40 bytes. However, to give more functionality to the IP datagram, the base header can be followed by up to six extension headers. Many of these headers are options in IPv4. Figure shows the extension header format.



- ✓ Six types of extension headers have been defined. These are **hop-by-hop option, source routing, fragmentation, authentication, encrypted security payload, and destination option.**

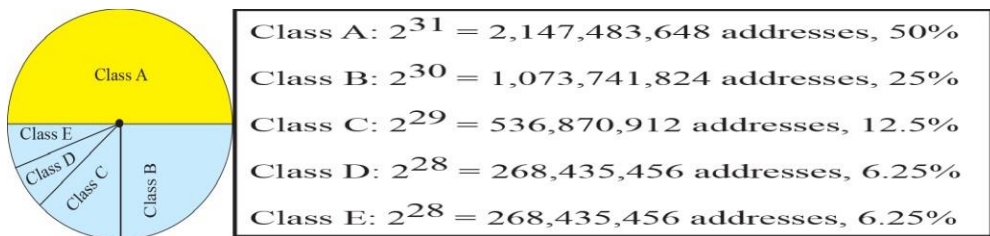
### IP ADDRESS

- ✓ An IPv4 address is 32 bits long.
- ✓ The IPv4 addresses are unique and universal.
- ✓ Address Space: The address space of IPv4 is  $2^{32}$  or 4,294,967,296.
- ✓ Notation:
  - Binary notation (base 2) – In binary notation, an IPv4 address is displayed as 32 bits. To make the address more readable, one or more spaces is usually inserted between each octet (8 bits). Each octet is often referred to as a byte.
    - 01110101 10010101 00011101 11101010
  - Dotted-decimal notation (base 256)- IPv4 address is usually written in decimal form with a decimal point (dot) separating the bytes.
    - 192.168.10.1

- Hexadecimal notation (base 16) - Each hexadecimal digit is equivalent to four bits. This means that a 32-bit address has 8 hexadecimal digits.
  - 0X810B0BEF

### CLASSFUL ADDRESSES

- ✓ IP addresses, when started a few decades ago, used the concept of classes. This architecture is called Classful addressing.
- ✓ In the mid-1990s, a new architecture, called classless addressing, was introduced that supersedes the original architecture.
- ✓ Classes:
  - In Classful addressing, the IP address space is divided into five classes: A, B, C, D, and E. Each class occupies some part of the whole address space.

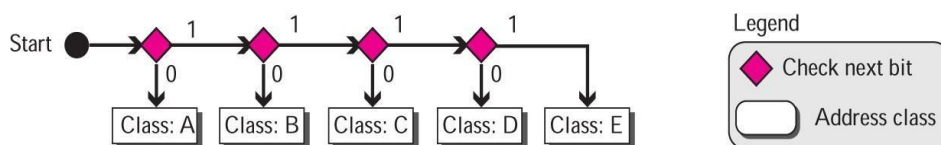


- ✓ Finding the class of address
  - Find the class of an address when the address is given either in binary or dotted-decimal notation.
  - In the binary notation, the first few bits can immediately tell us the class of the address.
  - In the dotted-decimal notation, the value of the first byte can give the class of an address.

	Octet 1	Octet 2	Octet 3	Octet 4		Byte 1	Byte 2	Byte 3	Byte 4
Class A	0.....				Class A	0-127			
Class B	10.....				Class B	128-191			
Class C	110.....				Class C	192-223			
Class D	1110....				Class D	224-299			
Class E	1111....				Class E	240-255			

Binary notation Dotted-decimal notation

- ✓ Finding the class of an address using continuous checking



### **Example**

#### **1. Find the class of each address:**

- 00000001 0000101100001011 11101111
- 11000001 10000011 00011011 11111111
- 10100111 110110111000101101101111
- 11110011 10011011 11111011 00001111

#### **Solution:**

- The first bit is 0. This is a class A address.
- The first 2 bits are 1; the third bit is 0. This is a class C address.

- c) The first bit is 1; the second bit is 0. This is a class B address.
- d) The first 4 bits are 1s. This is a class E address.

2. Find the class of each address:

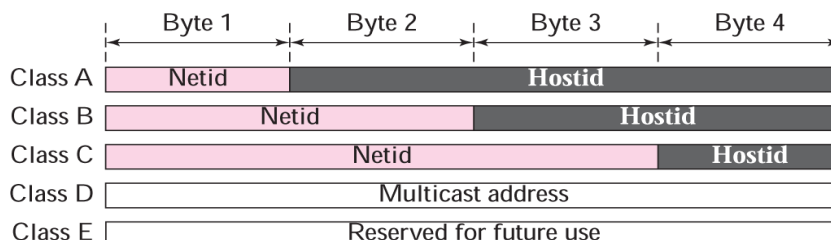
- e) 227.12.14.87
- f) 193.14.56.22
- g) 14.23.120.8
- h) 252.5.15.111

**Solution:**

- e) The first byte is 227 (between 224 and 239); the class is D.
- f) The first byte is 193 (between 192 and 223); the class is C.
- g) The first byte is 14 (between 0 and 127); the class is A.
- h) The first byte is 252 (between 240 and 255); the class is E.

✓ Netid and Hostid

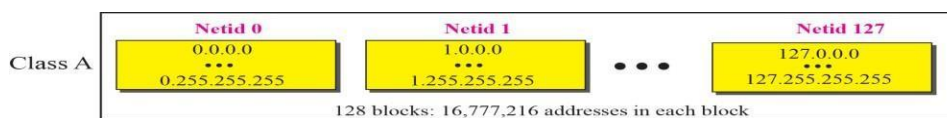
- In classful addressing, an IP address in classes A, B, and C is divided into netid and hostid. These parts are of varying lengths, depending on the class of the address. Figure shows the netid and hostid bytes.
- Classes D and E are not divided into netid and hostid.



- In class A, 1 byte defines the netid and 3 bytes define the hostid.
- In class B, 2 bytes define the netid and 2 bytes define the hostid.
- In class C, 3 bytes define the netid and 1 byte defines the hostid.

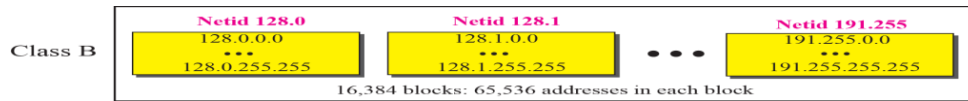
✓ Classes and Blocks

- Each class is divided into a fixed number of blocks with each block having a fixed size.
- **Class A:**
  - Only 1 byte in class A defines the netid and the leftmost bit should be 0, the next 7 bits can be changed to find the number of blocks in this class.
  - Therefore, class A is divided into  $2^7 = 128$  blocks that can be assigned to 128 organizations.
  - Each block in this class contains 16,777,216 addresses.
  - Many addresses are wasted in this class.



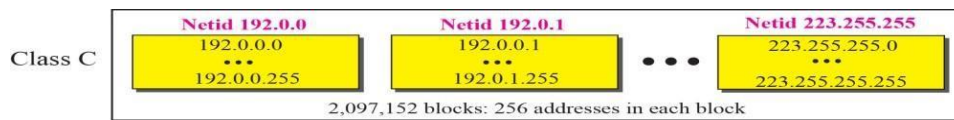
- **Class B:**
  - Two bytes in class B define the netid and the leftmost bits should be 10, the next 14 bits can be changed to find the number of blocks in this class.

- Therefore, class B is divided into  $2^{14} = 16,384$  blocks that can be assigned to 16,384 organizations.
- Each block in this class contains 65,536 addresses.
- Many addresses are wasted in this class



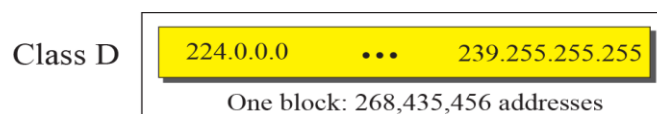
○ **Class C**

- Three bytes in class C defines the netid and the leftmost bit should be 110, the next 21 bits can be changed to find the number of blocks in this class.
- Therefore, class B is divided into  $2^{21} = 2,097,152$  blocks that can be assigned to 2,097,152 organizations.
- Each block in this class contains 256 addresses.



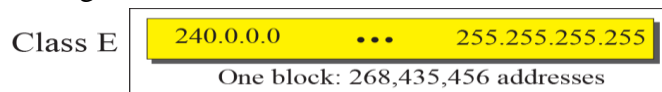
○ **Class D**

- One block of class D addresses.
- It is designed for multicasting.
- Each address in this class is used to define one group of hosts on the Internet.
- When a group is assigned an address in this class, every host that is a member of this group will have a multicast address in addition to its normal (unicast) address.



○ **Class E**

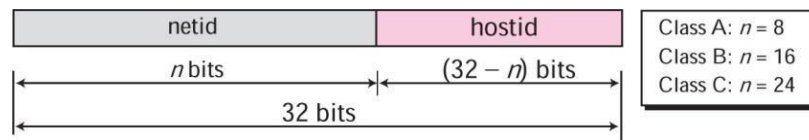
- One block of class E addresses.
- It was designed for use as reserved addresses,



✓ Two-Level Addressing

- The whole purpose of IPv4 addressing is to define a destination for an Internet packet.
- When classful addressing was designed, it was assumed that the whole Internet is divided into many networks and each network connects many hosts.
- A network was normally created by an organization that wanted to be connected to the Internet.
- The Internet authorities allocated a block of addresses to the organization (in class A, B, or C).
- Each address in classful addressing contains two parts: netid and hostid.

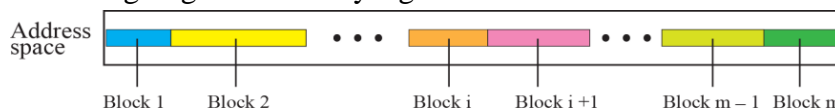
- The netid defines the network;
- The hostid defines a particular host connected to that network.



### CLASSLESS ADDRESSING

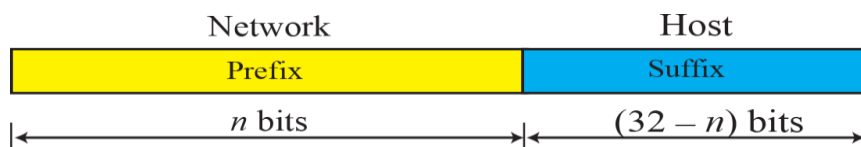
- ✓ Subnetting and supernetting in classful addressing did not really solve the address depletion problem. With the growth of the Internet, it was clear that a larger address space was needed as a long-term solution. Although the long-range solution has already been devised and is called IPv6, a short-term solution was also devised to use the same address space but to change the distribution of addresses to provide a fair share to each organization. The short-term solution still uses IPv4 addresses, but it is called classless addressing.
- ✓ Variable-Length Blocks
  - In classless addressing, the whole address space is divided into variable length blocks.
- ✓ Number of Addresses in a Block
  - There is only one condition on the number of addresses in a block; it must be a power of 2 (2, 4, 8, ...).

- A household may be given a block of 2 addresses.
- A small business may be given 16 addresses.
- A large organization may be given 1024 addresses.



### ✓ Two-Level Addressing

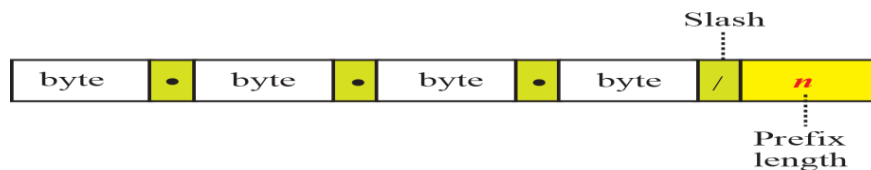
- In classful addressing, two-level addressing was provided by dividing an address into *netid* and *hostid*.
  - The netid defined the network
  - The hostid defined the host in the network.
- In classless addressing, the block is actually divided into two parts, the prefix and the suffix.
  - The prefix plays the same role as the netid
  - The suffix plays the same role as the hostid.
- All addresses in the block have the same prefix; each address has a different suffix.



- The prefix length in classless addressing can be 1 to 32.

### ✓ Slash notation

- In classless addressing, we need to include the prefix length to each address if we need to find the block of the address.
- In this case, the prefix length,  $n$ , is added to the address separated by a slash. The notation is informally referred to as slash notation.
- The slash notation is formally referred to as classless interdomain routing or CIDR notation.



### ✓ Example

1. A small organization is given a block with the beginning address and the prefix length 205.16.37.24/29 (in slash notation). What is the range of the block?

#### *Solution*

The beginning address is 205.16.37.24. To find the last address we keep the first 29 bits and change the last 3 bits to 1s.

Beginning: 11001111000100000010010100011000

Ending : 11001111000100000010010100011111

There are only 8 addresses in this block.

### IPv6 addressing format

- ✓ An IPv6 address is made of 128 bits divided into eight 16-bit blocks. Each block is then converted into 4-digit Hexadecimal numbers separated by colon symbols.
- ✓ For example, given below is a 128 bit IPv6 address represented in binary format and divided into eight 16-bit blocks:

```
00100000000000010000000000000000110010001110001101111111100001
000000000110001100000000000000000000000000000000111111011111011
```

- ✓ Each block is then converted into Hexadecimal and separated by ':' symbol:

```
2001:0000:3238:DFE1:0063:0000:0000:FEFB
```

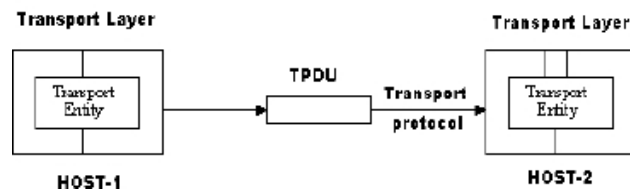
- ✓ Even after converting into Hexadecimal format, IPv6 address remains long. IPv6 provides some rules to shorten the address. The rules are as follows:
  - Rule.1: Discard leading Zero(es):
    - In Block 6, 0036, the leading two 0s can be omitted, such as (6th block):  
2001:0000:3238:DFE1:1263:36:0000:FEFB
  - Rule.2: If two or more blocks contain consecutive zeroes, omit them all and replace with double colon ::, such as (6th and 7th block):  
2001:0000:3238:DFE1:1263::FEFB
  - Consecutive blocks of zeroes can be replaced only once by :: so if there are still blocks of zeroes in the address, they can be shrunk down to a single zero, such as (2nd block):  
2001:0:3238:DFE1:1263::FEFB

**Reference Book: Computer Networks, Andrew Tanenbaum, 6<sup>th</sup> Edition.**

## UNIT-IV THE TRANSPORT LAYER

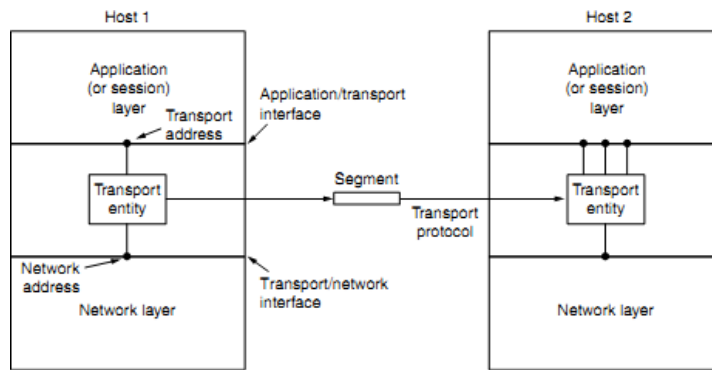
### Overview of Transport layer

- ✓ The network layer provides end-to-end packet delivery using data-grams or virtual circuits. The transport layer builds on the network layer to provide data transport from a process on a source machine to a process on a destination machine with a desired level of reliability that is independent of the physical networks currently in use. It provides the abstractions that applications need to use the network.
- ✓ Transport Entity: The hardware and/or software which make use of services provided by the network layer, (within the transport layer) is called transport entity.
- ✓ Transport Service Provider: Layers 1 to 4 are called Transport Service Provider.
- ✓ Transport Service User: The upper layers i.e., layers 5 to 7 are called Transport Service User.
- ✓ Transport Service Primitives: Which allow transport users (application programs) to access the transport service?
- ✓ TPDU (Transport Protocol Data Unit):
  - Transmissions of message between 2 transport entities are carried out by TPDU.
  - The transport entity carries out the transport service primitives by blocking the caller and sending a packet to the service.
  - Encapsulated in the payload of this packet is a transport layer message for the server's transport entity.
  - The task of the transport layer is to provide reliable, cost-effective data transport from the source machine to the destination machine, independent of physical network or networks currently in use.



### ✓ Services Provided to the Upper Layers

- The ultimate goal of the transport layer is to provide efficient, reliable, and cost-effective data transmission service to its users, normally processes in the application layer. To achieve this, the transport layer makes use of the services provided by the network layer.
- The software and/or hardware within the transport layer that does the work is called the transport entity.
- The transport entity can be located in the operating system kernel, in a library package bound into network applications, in a separate user process, or even on the network interface card.

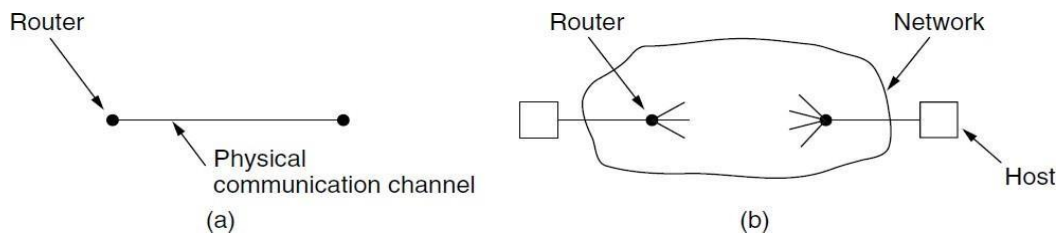


- ✓ There are two types of network service
  - Connection-oriented
  - Connectionless
- ✓ Similarly, there are also two types of transport service. The connection-oriented transport service is similar to the connection-oriented network service in many ways.
- ✓ In both cases, connections have three phases:
  - Establishment
  - Data transfer
  - Release.
- ✓ Addressing and flow control are also similar in both layers. Furthermore, the connectionless transport service is also very similar to the connectionless network service.
- ✓ The bottom four layers can be seen as the transport service provider, whereas the upper layer(s) are the transport service user.
- ✓ **Transport Service Primitives**
  - To allow users to access the transport service, the transport layer must provide some operations to application programs, that is, a transport service interface. Each transport service has its own interface.
  - The transport service is similar to the network service, but there are also some important differences.
  - The main difference is that the network service is intended to model the service offered by real networks. Real networks can lose packets, so the network service is generally unreliable.
  - The (connection-oriented) transport service, in contrast, is reliable

Primitive	Packet sent	Meaning
LISTEN	(none)	Block until some process tries to connect
CONNECT	CONNECTION REQ.	Actively attempt to establish a connection
SEND	DATA	Send information
RECEIVE	(none)	Block until a DATA packet arrives
DISCONNECT	DISCONNECTION REQ.	This side wants to release the connection

## Elements of transport protocols

- ✓ The transport service is implemented by a transport protocol used between the two transport entities.
- ✓ The transport protocols resemble the data link protocols.
- ✓ Both have to deal with error control, sequencing, and flow control.
- ✓ The difference between transport protocol and data link protocol depends upon the environment in which they are operated.
- ✓ These differences are due to major dissimilarities between the environments in which the two protocols operate, as shown in Fig.



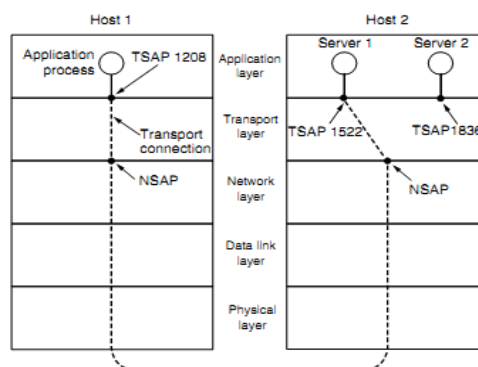
(a) Environment of the data link layer

(b) Environment of the transport layer

### ✓ Differentiate between Data Link Layer and Transport Layer protocols

	Data Link Layer	Transport Layer
Communication	directly via physical channel	over the entire network
Addressing	no need to specify address. Just select outgoing line	explicit addressing of destination is required
Connection establishment	over wire is simple	more complicated
Delay	frame either arrives or lost, not stored and delayed	packets might be stored for seconds and delivered later
Buffering and flow control	simpler	more complicated; large and dynamic number of simultaneous connections

- ✓ The transport service is implemented by a transport protocol between the 2 transport entities.



✓ **The elements of transport protocols are:**

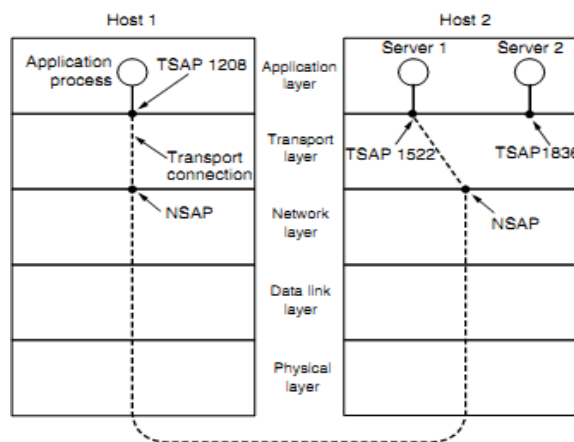
- Addressing
- Connection Establishment
- Connection Release
- Flow Control and Buffering
- Multiplexing

✓ **Addressing**

- When an application (e.g., a user) process wishes to set up a connection to a remote application process, it must specify which one to connect to.
- The method normally used is to define transport addresses to which processes can listen for connection requests. In the Internet, these endpoints are called ports.
- There are two types of access points:
  - TSAP (Transport Service Access Point) to mean a specific endpoint in the transport layer.
  - The analogous endpoints in the network layer (i.e., network layer addresses) are not surprisingly called NSAPs (Network Service Access Points). IP addresses are examples of NSAPs.

✓ **Example**

- Application processes, both clients and servers, can attach themselves to a local TSAP to establish a connection to a remote TSAP. These connections run through NSAPs on each host. The purpose of having TSAPs is that in some networks, each computer has a single NSAP, so some way is needed to distinguish multiple transport endpoints that share that NSAP.



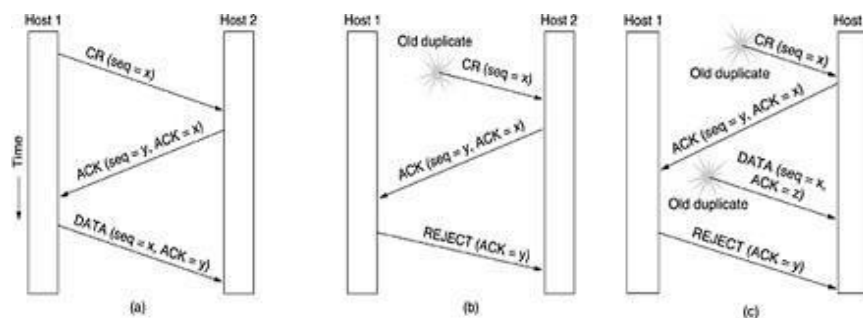
✓ **A possible scenario for a transport connection is as follows:**

1. A mail server process attaches itself to TSAP 1522 on host 2 to wait for an incoming call. How a process attaches itself to a TSAP is outside the networking model and depends entirely on the local operating system. A call such as our LISTEN might be used, for example.
2. An application process on host 1 wants to send an email message, so it attaches itself to TSAP 1208 and issues a CONNECT request. The request specifies TSAP 1208 on host 1 as the source and TSAP 1522 on host 2 as the destination. This action ultimately results in a transport connection being established between the application process and the server.

3. The application process sends over the mail message.
4. The mail server responds to say that it will deliver the message.
5. The transport connection is released.

✓ **Connection Establishment**

- With packet lifetimes bounded, it is possible to devise a fool proof way to establish connections safely. Packet lifetime can be bounded to a known maximum using one of the following techniques:
  - Restricted subnet design
  - Putting a hop counter in each packet
  - Timestamping in each packet
- Using a 3-way handshake, a connection can be established. This establishment protocol doesn't require both sides to begin sending with the same sequence number.
  - The first technique includes any method that prevents packets from looping, combined with some way of bounding delay including congestion over the longest possible path. It is difficult, given that internets may range from a single city to international in scope.
  - The second method consists of having the hop count initialized to some appropriate value and decremented each time the packet is forwarded. The network protocol simply discards any packet whose hop counter becomes zero.
  - The third method requires each packet to bear the time it was created, with the routers agreeing to discard any packet older than some agreed-upon time.

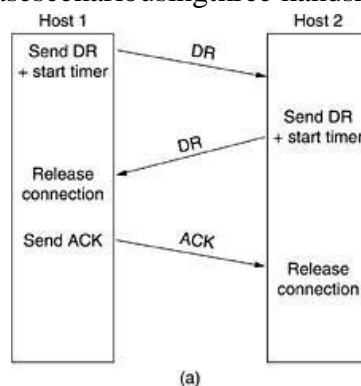


- The above Figure shows the three protocol scenarios for establishing a connection using a three-way handshake. CR denotes CONNECTION REQUEST (a) Normal operation (b) Old duplicate CONNECTION REQUEST appearing out of nowhere (c) Duplicate CONNECTION REQUEST and duplicate ACK
- Infig(a) Tomlinson (1975) introduced the three-way handshake.
  - This establishment protocol involves one peer checking with the other that the connection request is indeed current. Host 1 chooses a sequence number,  $x$ , and sends a CONNECTION REQUEST segment containing it to host 2. Host 2 replies with an ACK segment acknowledging  $x$  and announcing its own initial sequence number,  $y$ .
  - Finally, host 1 acknowledges host 2's choice of an initial sequence number in the first data segment that it sends.

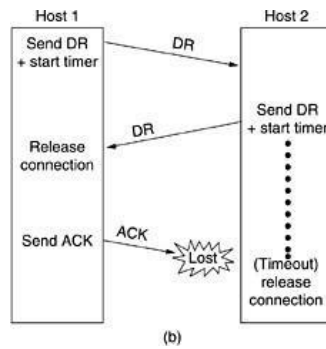
- In fig (b) the first segment is a delayed duplicate CONNECTION REQUEST from an old connection.
  - This segment arrives at host 2 without host 1's knowledge. Host 2 reacts to this segment by sending host 1 an ACK segment, in effect asking for verification that host 1 was indeed trying to set up a new connection.
  - When host 1 rejects host 2's attempt to establish a connection, host 2 realizes that it was tricked by a delayed duplicate and abandons the connection. In this way, a delayed duplicate does no damage.
  - The worst case is when both a delayed CONNECTION REQUEST and an ACK are floating around in the subnet.
- In fig (c) previous example, host 2 gets a delayed CONNECTION REQUEST and replies to it.
  - At this point, it is crucial to realize that host 2 has proposed using y as the initial sequence number for host 2 to host 1 traffic, knowing full well that no segments containing sequence number y or acknowledgements to y are still in existence.
  - When this second delayed segment arrives at host 2, the fact that z has been acknowledged rather than y tells host 2 that this, too, is an old duplicate.
  - The important thing to realize here is that there is no combination of old segments that can cause the protocol to fail and have a connection set up by accident when no one wants it.

✓ **Connection Release**

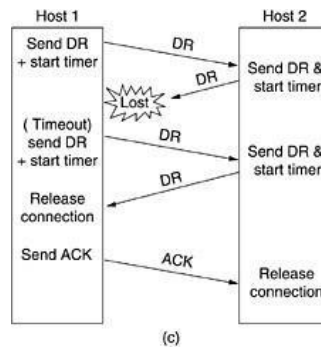
- A connection is released using either asymmetric or symmetric variant. But, the improved protocol for releasing a connection is a 3-way handshake protocol.
- There are two styles of terminating a connection:
  - Asymmetric release
    - Asymmetric release is the way the telephone system works: when one party hangs up, the connection is broken.
  - Symmetric release
    - Symmetric release treats the connection as two separate unidirectional connections and requires each one to be released separately.
- Connection Release scenario using three handshake



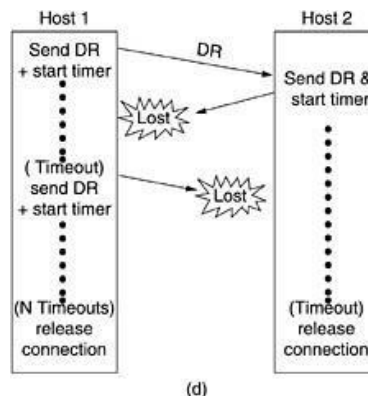
- One of the users sends a DISCONNECTION REQUEST TPDU in order to initiate connection release.
- When it arrives, the recipient sends back a DR-TPDU, too, and starts a timer.
- When this DR arrives, the original sender sends back an ACK-TPDU and releases the connection.
- Finally, when the ACK-TPDU arrives, the receiver also releases the connection.



- Initial process is done in the same way as in fig-(a).
- If the final ACK-TPDU is lost, this situation is saved by the timer. When the timer is expired, the connection is released.



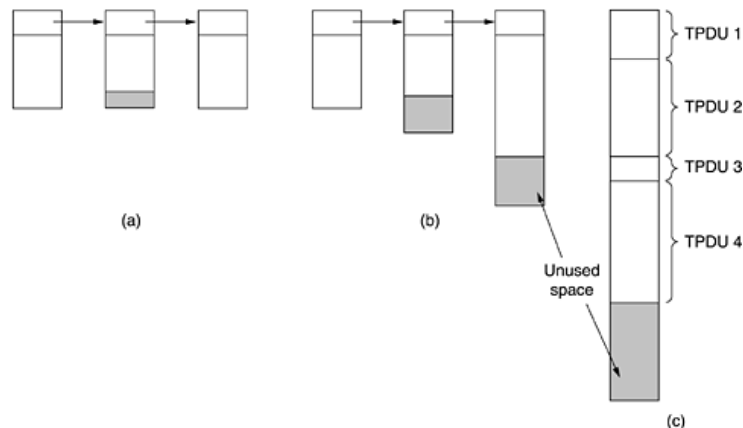
- If the second DR is lost, the user initiating the disconnection will not receive the expected response, and will timeout and start all over again.



- Same as in fig(c) except that all repeated attempts to retransmit the DR is assumed to be failed due to lost TPDU. After 'N' entries, the sender just gives up and releases the connection.

### ✓ Flow Control and Buffering

- Flow control is done by having a sliding window on each connection to keep a fast transmitter from over running a slow receiver.
- Buffering must be done by the sender, if the network service is unreliable.
- The sender buffers all the TPDU's sent to the receiver. The buffer size varies for different TPDU's.
- They are:

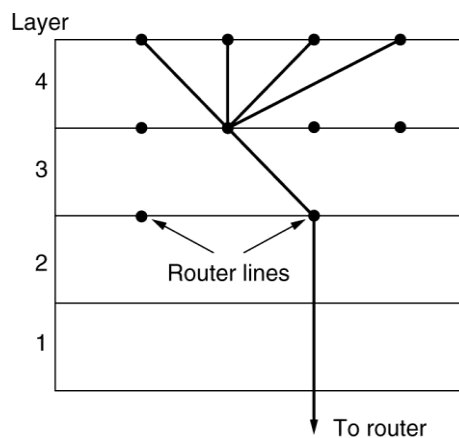


- a) **Chained Fixed-size Buffers**
  - If most TPDU's are nearly the same size, the buffers are organized as a pool of identical size buffers, with one TPDU per buffer.
- b) **Chained Variable-size Buffers**
  - This is an approach to the buffer-size problem. i.e., if there is wide variation in TPDU size, from a few characters typed at a terminal to thousands of characters from file transfers, some problems may occur:
    - If the buffer size is chosen equal to the largest possible TPDU, space will be wasted whenever a short TPDU arrives.
    - If the buffer size is chosen less than the maximum TPDU size, multiple buffers will be needed for long TPDU's.
    - To overcome these problems, we employ variable-size buffers.
- c) **One large Circular Buffer per Connection**
  - A single large circular buffer per connection is dedicated when all connections are heavily loaded.
    - 1. Source Buffering is used for low band width bursty traffic
    - 2. Destination Buffering is used for high bandwidth smooth traffic.
    - 3. Dynamic Buffering is used if the traffic pattern changes randomly.

### ✓ Multiplexing

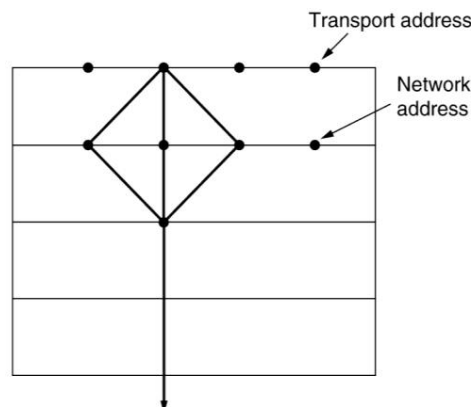
- In networks that use virtual circuits within the subnet, each open connection consumes some table space in the routers for the entire duration of the connection.

- If buffers are dedicated to the virtual circuit in each router as well, a user who left a terminal logged into a remote machine, there is need for multiplexing.
- There are 2 kinds of multiplexing:
  - (a) Upward multiplexing
    - In the below figure, all the 4 distinct transport connections use the same network connection to the remote host. When connect time forms the major component of the carrier's bill, it is up to the transport layer to group port connections according to their destination and maps each group onto the minimum number of port connections.



(a)

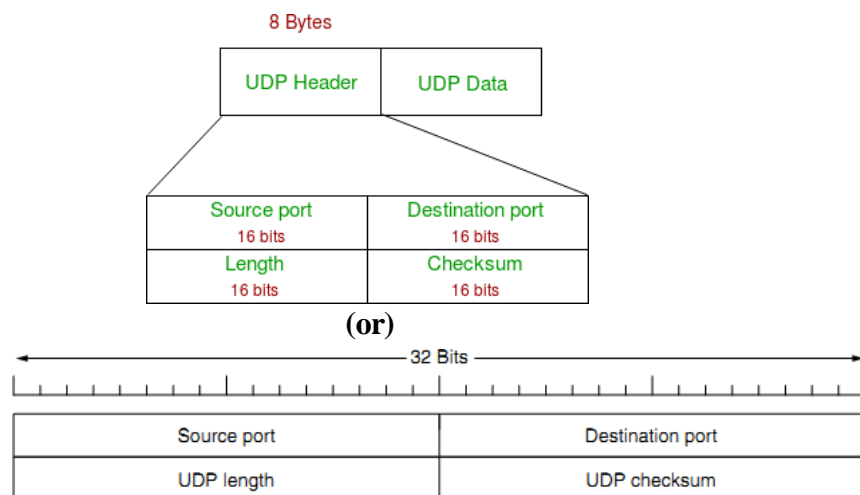
- (b) Downward multiplexing
  - If too many transport connections are mapped onto the one network connection, the performance will be poor.
  - If too few transport connections are mapped onto one network connection, the service will be expensive.
  - The possible solution is to have the transport layer open multiple connections and distribute the traffic among them on round-robin basis, as indicated in the below figure:
  - With 'k' network connections open, the effective bandwidth is increased by a factor of 'k'.



(b)

## The internet transport protocols:UDP

- ✓ User Datagram Protocol (UDP) is a Transport Layer protocol.
- ✓ UDP is a part of Internet Protocol suite, referred as UDP/IP suite.
- ✓ It is unreliable and connectionless protocol. So, there is no need to establish connection prior to data transfer.
- ✓ The Internet protocol suite supports a connectionless transport protocol called UDP (User Datagram Protocol). UDP provides a way for applications to send encapsulated IP datagrams without having to establish a connection.
- ✓ UDP transmits segments consisting of an 8-byte header followed by the pay-load. The two ports serve to identify the end-points within the source and destination machines.
- ✓ When a UDP packet arrives, its payload is handed to the process attached to the destination port. This attachment occurs when the BIND primitive. Without the port fields, the transport layer would not know what to do with each incoming packet. With them, it delivers the embedded segment to the correct application.
- ✓ **UDP Header:**
  - ✓ UDP header is 8-bytes fixed and simple header, while for TCP it may vary from 20 bytes to 60 bytes.
  - ✓ First 8 Bytes contains all necessary header information and remaining part consists of data.
  - ✓ UDP port number fields are each 16 bits long, therefore range for port numbers defined from 0 to 65535; port number 0 is reserved.
  - ✓ Port numbers help to distinguish different user requests or process.



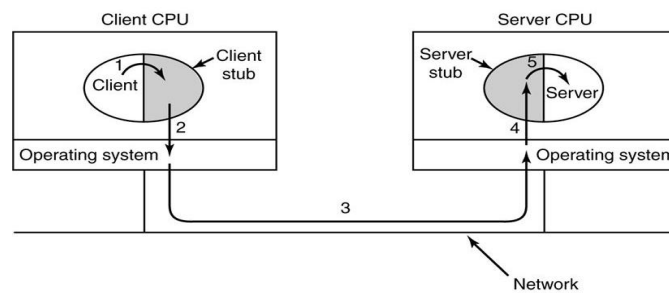
- **Source Port:** Source Port is 2 Byte long field used to identify port number of source.
- **Destination Port:** It is 2 Byte long field, used to identify the port of destined packet.
- **Length:** Length is the length of UDP including header and the data. It is 16-bits field.
- **Checksum:** Checksum is 2 Bytes long field. It is the 16-bit one's complement of the one's complement sum of the UDP header, pseudo header of information from the IP header and the data, padded with zero octets at the end (if necessary) to make a multiple of two octets.

### ✓ Applications of UDP:

- Used for simple request response communication when size of data is less and hence there is lesser concern about flow and error control.
- It is suitable protocol for multicasting as UDP supports packet switching.
- UDP is used for some routing update protocols like RIP (Routing Information Protocol).
- Normally used for real time applications which can not tolerate uneven delays between sections of a received message
  - Following implementations use UDP as a transport layer protocol:
    - NTP (Network Time Protocol)
    - DNS (Domain Name Service)
    - BOOTP, DHCP.
    - NNTP (Network News Protocol)
    - Quote of the day protocol
    - TFTP, RTSP, RIP, OSPF.
- Application layer can do some of the tasks through UDP-
  - TraceRoute
  - RecordRoute
  - Time stamp

### ✓ Remote Procedure Call (RPC)

- In a certain sense, sending a message to a remote host and getting a reply back is like making a function call in a programming language. This is to arrange request-reply interactions on networks to be cast in the form of procedure calls.
- For example, just imagine a procedure named get IP address (host name) that works by sending a UDP packet to a DNS server and waiting the reply, timing out and trying again if one is not forthcoming quickly enough. In this way, all the details of networking can be hidden from the programmer.
- RPC is used to call remote programs using the procedural call. When a process on machine 1 calls a procedure on machine 2, the calling process on 1 is suspended and execution of the called procedure takes place on 2.
- Information can be transported from the caller to the callee in the parameters and can come back in the procedure result. No message passing is visible to the application programmer. This technique is known as RPC (Remote Procedure Call) and has become the basis for many networking applications.
- Traditionally, the calling procedure is known as the client and the called procedure is known as the server.
- In the simplest form, to call a remote procedure, the client program must be bound with a small library procedure, called the client stub that represents the server procedure in the client's address space. Similarly, the server is bound with a procedure called the server stub.
- These procedures hide the fact that the procedure call from the client to the server is not local.



- Step 1: is the client calling the client stub. This call is a local procedure call, with the parameters pushed onto the stack in the normal way.
- Step 2: is the client stub packing the parameters into a message and making a system call to send the message. Packing the parameters is called marshaling.
- Step 3: is the operating system sending the message from the client machine to the server machine.
- Step 4: is the operating system passing the incoming packet to the server stub.
- Step 5: is the server stub calling the server procedure with the unmarshaled parameters. The reply traces the same path in the other direction.

## The internet transport protocols: TCP

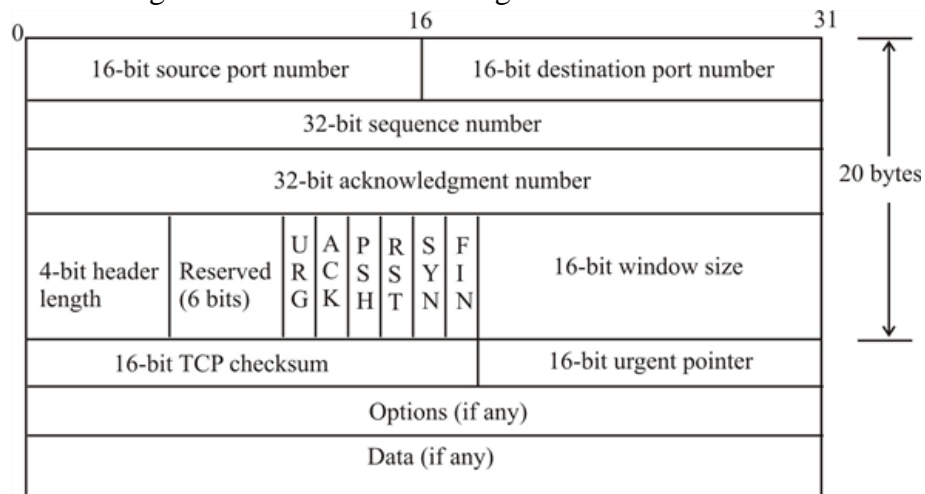
- ✓ It was specifically designed to provide a reliable end-to-end byte stream over an unreliable network. It was designed to adapt dynamically to properties of the internet network and to be robust in the face of many kinds of failures.
- ✓ Each machine supporting TCP has a TCP transport entity, which accepts user data streams from local processes, breaks them up into pieces not exceeding 64kbytes and sends each piece as a separate IP datagram. When these datagrams arrive at a machine, they are given to TCP entity, which reconstructs the original byte streams. It is up to TCP to timeout and retransmit them as needed, also to reassemble datagrams into messages in proper sequence.
- ✓ The different issues to be considered are:
  1. TCP Service Model
  2. TCP Protocol
  3. TCP Segment Header
  4. The Connection Management
  5. TCP Transmission Policy
  6. TCP Congestion Control
  7. TCP Timer Management
- ✓ **The TCP Protocol**
  - A key feature of TCP, and one which dominates the protocol design, is that every byte on a TCP connection has its own 32-bit sequence number.
  - When the Internet began, the lines between routers were mostly 56-kbps leased lines, so a host blasting away at full speed took over 1 week to cycle through the sequence numbers.
  - The basic protocol used by TCP entities is the sliding window protocol.
  - When a sender transmits a segment, it also starts a timer.
  - When the segment arrives at the destination, the receiving TCP entity sends

back a segment (with data if any exist, otherwise without data) bearing an acknowledgement number equal to the next sequence number it expects to receive.

- If the sender's timer goes off before the acknowledgement is received, the sender transmits the segment again.

✓ **TCP Segment Header**

- Every segment begins with a fixed-format, 20-byte header. The fixed header may be followed by header options. After the options, if any, up to 65,535 - 20 - 20 = 65,495 data bytes may follow, where the first 20 refer to the IP header and the second to the TCP header.
- Segments without any data are legal and are commonly used for acknowledgements and control messages.



- **Source Port:** Identifies the sending port.
- **Destination Port:** Identifies the receiving port.
- **Sequence number:**
  - If the SYN flag is set (1), then this is the initial sequence number. The sequence number of the actual first data byte and the acknowledged number in the corresponding ACK are then this sequence number + 1.
  - If the SYN flag is clear (0), and then this is the accumulated sequence number of the first data byte of this segment for the current session.

- **AcknowledgementNumber:** If the ACK flag is set then the value of this field is the next sequence number that the sender of the ACK is expecting. This acknowledges receipt of all prior bytes (if any). The first ACK sent by each end acknowledges the other end's initial sequence number itself, but no data.
- **TCP header length:** Specifies the size of the TCP header in 32-bit words. The minimum size header is 5 words and the maximum is 15 words thus giving the minimum size of 20 bytes and maximum of 60 bytes, allowing for up to 40 bytes of options in the header. This field gets its name from the fact that it is also the offset from the start of the TCP segment to the actual data.
- **Reserved (3 bits):** For future use and should be set to zero.
- **Control Flags:**
  - **URG:** It is set to 1 if URGENT pointer is in use, which indicates start of urgent data.
  - **ACK:** It is set to 1 to indicate that the acknowledgement number is valid.
  - **PSH:** Indicates pushed data
  - **RST:** It is used to reset a connection that has become confused due to reject an invalid segment or refuse an attempt to open a connection.
  - **FIN:** Used to release a connection.
  - **SYN:** Used to establish connections.
- **Window size (16 bits):** The size of the receive window, which specifies the number of window size units (by default, bytes) (beyond the segment identified by the sequence number in the acknowledgment field) that the sender of this segment is currently willing to receive (see Flow control and Window Scaling).
- **Checksum (16 bits):** The 16-bit checksum field is used for error-checking of the header, the Payload and a Pseudo-Header. The Pseudo-Header consists of the Source IP Address, the Destination IP Address, the protocol number for the TCP-Protocol (0x0006) and the length of the TCP-Headers including Payload (in Bytes).
- **Urgent pointer (16 bits):** if the URG flag is set, then this 16-bit field is an offset from the sequence number indicating the last urgent data byte.
- **Options (Variable 0–320 bits, divisible by 32):** The length of this field is determined by the data offset field.
- **Padding:** The TCP header padding is used to ensure that the TCP header ends and data begins, on a 32 bit boundary. The padding is composed of zeros.

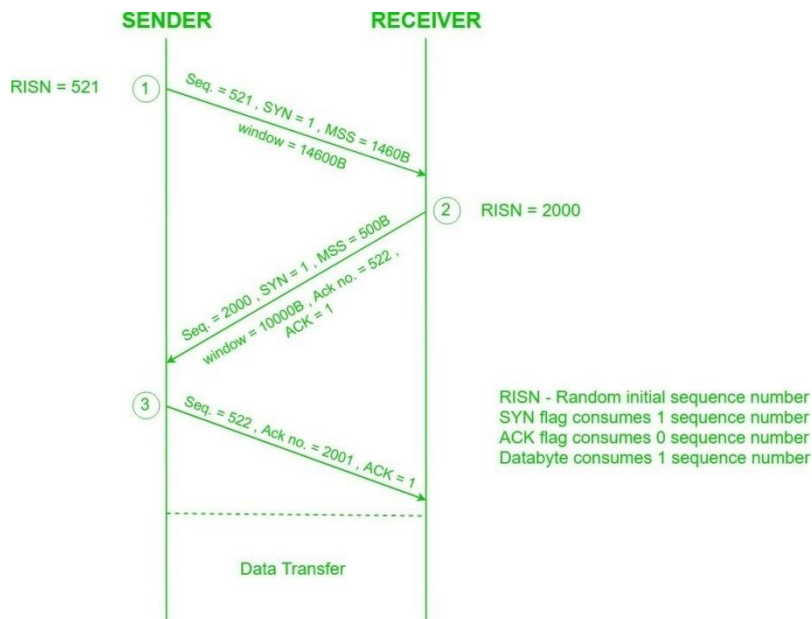
#### ✓ TCP Connection Establishment

- TCP is a connection oriented protocol and every connection oriented protocol needs to establish connection in order to reserve resources at both the communicating ends.
- 1. Sender starts the process with following:
  - **Sequence number (Seq=521):** contains the random initial sequence number which generated at sender side.
  - **Syn flag (Syn=1):** request receiver to synchronize its sequence number with the above provided sequence number.
  - **Maximum segment size (MSS=1460 B):** sender tells its maximum segment size, so that receiver sends datagram which won't require any fragmentation. MSS field is present inside **Option** field in TCP header.

- **Window size (window=14600B):** sender tells about this buffer capacity in which he has to store messages from receiver.

2. TCP is a full duplex protocol so both sender and receiver require a window for receiving messages from one another.

- **Sequence number (Seq=2000):** contains the random initial sequence number which generated at receiver side.
- **Syn flag (Syn=1):** request sender to synchronize its sequence number with the above provided sequence number.
- **Maximum segment size (MSS=500B):** sender tells its maximum

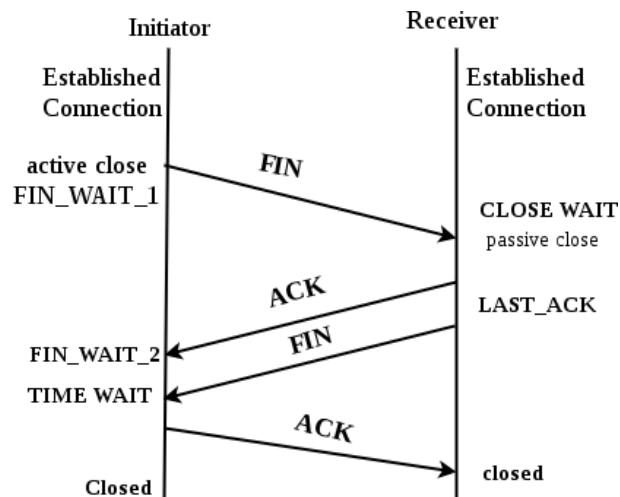


segment size, so that receiver sends datagram which won't require any fragmentation. MSS field is present inside **Option** field in TCP header. Since  $MSS_{receiver} < MSS_{sender}$ , both parties agree for minimum MSS i.e., 500 B to avoid fragmentation of packets at both ends.

- **Window size (window=10000 B):** receiver tells about his buffer capacity in which he has to store messages from sender.
  - **Acknowledgement Number (Ack no.=522):** Since sequence number 521 is received by receiver so, it makes a request of next sequence number with Ack no.=522 which is the next packet expected by receiver since Syn flag consumes 1 sequence no.
  - **ACK flag (ACK=1):** tells that acknowledgement number field contains the next sequence expected by receiver.
3. Sender makes the final reply for connection establishment in following way:
- **Sequence number (Seq=522):** since sequence number=521 in 1st step and SYN flag consumes one sequence number hence, next sequence number will be 522.
  - **Acknowledgement Number (Ack no.=2001):** since sender is acknowledging SYN=1 packet from the receiver with sequence number 2000 so, the next sequence number expected is 2001.
  - **ACK flag (ACK=1):** tells that acknowledgement number field contains the next sequence expected by sender.

## ✓ TCP Connection Release

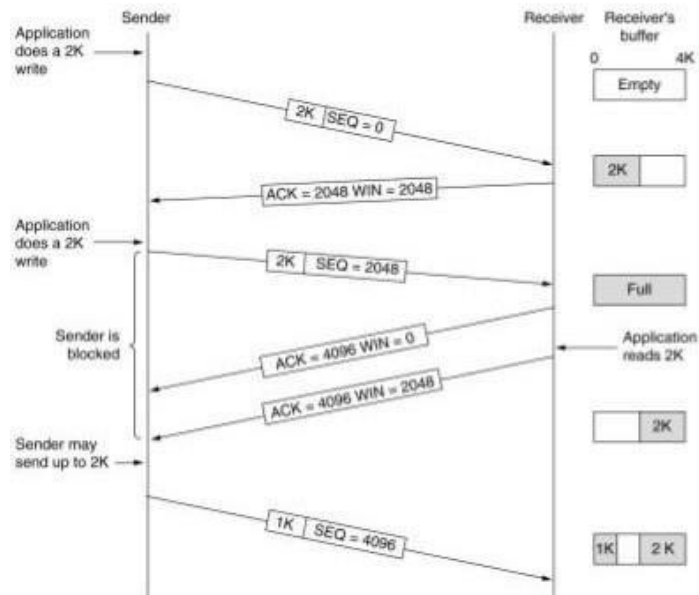
- In TCP 3-way Handshake Process we studied that how connection establish between client and server in Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) using SYN bit segments. TCP closes connection between Client and Server. Here we will also need to send bit segments to server which FIN bit is set to 1.



- How mechanism works in TCP:
  - **Step 1 (FIN From Client):** Suppose that the client application decides it wants to close the connection. (Note that the server could also choose to close the connection). This causes the client send a TCP segment with the **FIN** bit set to **1** to server and to enter the **FIN\_WAIT\_1** state. While in the **FIN\_WAIT\_1** state, the client waits for a TCP segment from the server with an acknowledgment (ACK).
  - **Step 2 (ACK From Server):** When Server received FIN bit segment from Sender (Client), Server Immediately send acknowledgement (ACK) segment to the Sender (Client).
  - **Step 3 (Client waiting):** While in the **FIN\_WAIT\_1** state, the client waits for a TCP segment from the server with an acknowledgment. When it receives this segment, the client enters the **FIN\_WAIT\_2** state. While in the **FIN\_WAIT\_2** state, the client waits for another segment from the server with the FIN bit set to 1.
  - **Step 4 (FIN from Server):** Server sends FIN bit segment to the Sender (Client) after some time when Server send the ACK segment (because of some closing process in the Server).
  - **Step 5 (ACK from Client):** When Client receive FIN bit segment from the Server, the client acknowledges the server's segment and enters the **TIME\_WAIT** state. The **TIME\_WAIT** state lets the client resend the final acknowledgment in case the **ACK** is lost. The time spent by client in the **TIME\_WAIT** state is depend on their implementation, but their typical values are 30 seconds, 1 minute, and 2 minutes. After the wait, the connection formally closes and all resources on the client side (including port numbers and buffer data) are released.

## ✓ TCP Transmission Policy

### ○ Window management in TCP



- In the above example, the receiver has a 4096-byte buffer.
- If the sender transmits a 2048-byte segment that is correctly received, the receiver will acknowledge the segment.
- Now the receiver will advertise a window of 2048 as it has only 2048 of buffer space, now.
- Now the sender transmits another 2048 bytes which are acknowledged, but the advertised window is '0'.
- The sender must stop until the application process on the receiving host has removed some data from the buffer, at which time TCP can advertise a larger window.

## ✓ Silly Window Syndrome

- This is one of the problems that ruin TCP performance, which occurs when data are passed to the sending TCP entity in large blocks, but an interactive application on the receiving side reads 1 byte at a time.

## ✓ TCP Timer Management

- TCP uses 3 kinds of timers:
  - Retransmission timer
  - Persistence timer
  - Keep-Alive timer.

### ○ Retransmission timer:

- When a segment is sent, a timer is started. If the segment is acknowledged before the timer expires, the timer is stopped. If on the other hand, the timer goes off before the acknowledgement comes in, the segment is retransmitted and the timer is started again.
- The algorithm that constantly adjusts the time-out interval, based on continuous measurements of n/w performance was proposed by JACOBSON and works as follows:

- For each connection, TCP maintains a variable RTT, that is the best current estimate of the round trip time to the destination.
- When a segment is sent, a timer is started, both to see how long the acknowledgement takes and to trigger a retransmission if it takes too long.
- If the acknowledgement gets back before the timer expires, TCP measures how long the measurements took say M. It then updates RTT according to the formula:

$$RTT = \alpha RTT + (1 - \alpha) M$$

- where  $\alpha$  = a smoothing factor that determines how much weight is given to the old value. Typically,  $\alpha = 7/8$
- Retransmission timeout is calculated as
 
$$D = \alpha D + (1 - \alpha) |RTT - M|$$
  - where D = another smoothed variable, Mean RTT = expected acknowledgement value
  - M = observed acknowledgement value
- Timeout = RTT + (4 \* D)

○ **Persistence timer:**

- It is designed to prevent the following deadlock:

- The receiver sends an acknowledgement with a window size of '0' telling the sender to wait later, the receiver updates the window, but the packet with the update is lost now both the sender and receiver are waiting for each other to do something
- When the persistence timer goes off, the sender transmits a probe to the receiver the response to the probe gives the window size. If it is still zero, the persistence timer is set again and the cycle repeats. If it is non zero, data can now be sent.

○ **Keep-Alive timer:**

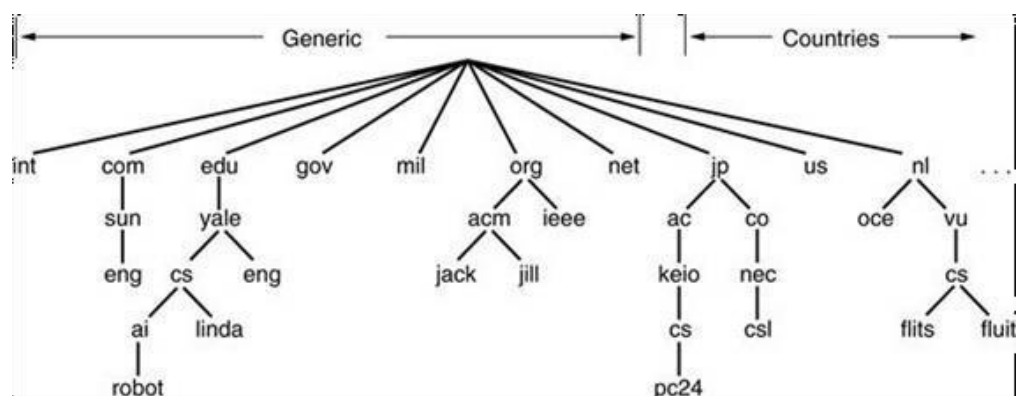
- When a connection has been idle for a long time, this timer may go off to cause one side to check if the other side is still there. If it fails to respond, the connection is terminated.

**Reference Book: Computer Networks, Andrew Tanenbaum, 6<sup>th</sup> Edition.**

## UNIT-V THE APPLICATION LAYER

### DOMAIN NAME SYSTEM (DNS)

- ✓ This is primarily used for mapping host and e-mail destinations to IP addresses but can also be used other purposes. DNS is defined in RFCs 1034 and 1035.
- ✓ **DNS Working**
  - To map a name onto an IP address, an application program calls a library procedure called Resolver, passing it the name as a parameter.
  - The resolver sends a UDP packet to a local DNS server, which then looks up the name and returns the IP address to the resolver, which then returns it to the caller.
  - Armed with the IP address, the program can then establish a TCP connection with the destination, or send it UDP packets.
- ✓ **DNS Name Space**
  - The Internet is divided into several hundred top level domains, where each domain covers many hosts. Each domain is partitioned into sub domains, and these are further partitioned as so on. All these domains can be represented by a tree, in which the leaves represent domains that have no sub domains. A leaf domain may contain a single host, or it may represent a company and contains thousands of hosts. Each domain is named by the path upward from it to the root. The components are separated by periods (pronounced “dot”)
  - Example: Microsoft.Development=dev.microsoft.com.
  - The top domain comes in two flavours
    - **Generic:** com (commercial), edu (educational institutions), mil (the U.S armed forces, government), int (certain international organizations), net (network providers), org (non profit organizations).
    - **Country:** include one entry for every country. Domain names can be either absolute (ends with a period e.g. dev.microsoft.com) or relative (doesn't end with a period). Domain names are case sensitive and the component names can be up to 63 characters long and full path names must not exceed 255 characters.



✓ **Resource Records**

- Every domain can have a set of resource records associated with it. For a single host, the most common resource record is just its IP address. When a resolver gives a domain name to DNS, it gets both the resource records associated with that name i.e., the real function of DNS is to map domain names into resource records.
- A resource record is a 5-tuple and its format is as follows:

Domain_Name	Time to live	Type	Class	Value
-------------	--------------	------	-------	-------

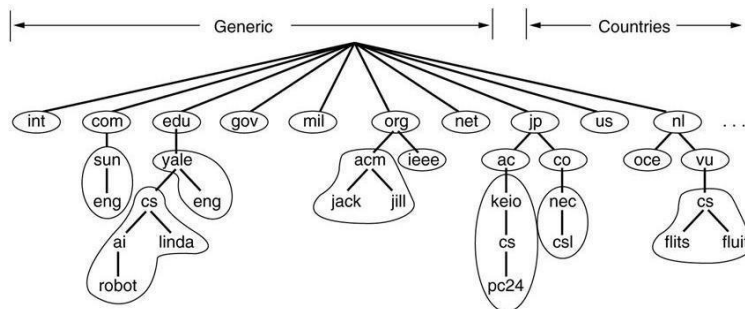
- **Domain\_name:** Tells the domain to which this record applies.
- **Time-to-live:** Gives an indication of how stable the record is (High Stable = 86400 i.e. no. of seconds / day) (High Volatile = 1 min)
- **Type:** Tells what kind of record this is

Type	Meaning	Value
SOA	Start of Authority	Parameters for this zone
A	IP address of a host	32-Bit integer
MX	Mail exchange	Priority, domain willing to accept e-mail
NS	Name Server	Name of a server for this domain
CNAME	Canonical name	Domain name
PTR	Pointer	Alias for an IP address
HINFO	Host description	CPU and OS in ASCII
TXT	Text	Uninterpreted ASCII text

- **Class:** It is IN for the internet information and codes for non internet information
- **Value:** This field can be a number, a domain name or an ASCII string

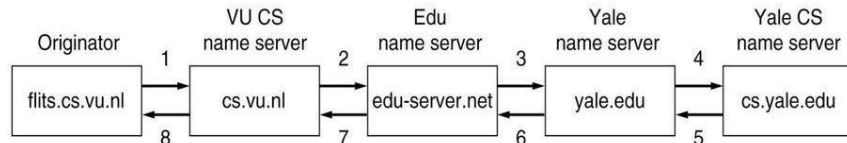
✓ **Name Servers**

- It contains the entire database and responds to all queries about it. DNS name space is divided up into non-overlapping zones, in which each zone contains some part of the tree and also contains name servers holding the authoritative information about that zone.
- Part of the DNS namespaces showing the division into zones:



- When a resolver has a query about a domain name, it passes the query to one of the local name servers:
  - 1. If the domain being sought falls under the jurisdiction of name server, it returns the authoritative resource records (that comes from the authority that manages the record, and is always correct).
  - 2. If the domain is remote and no information about the requested domain is available locally the name server sends a query message to the top level name server for the domain requested.

- Example: A resolver of flits.cs.vu.nl wants to know the IP address of the host Linda.cs.yale.edu

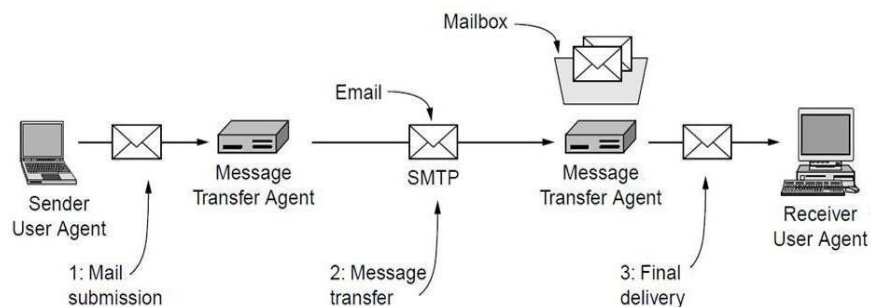


- Step 1: Resolver sends a query containing domain name sought the type and the class to local name server, cs.vu.nl.
- Step 2: Suppose local name server knows nothing about it, it asks few others nearby name servers. If none of them know, it sends a UDP packet to the server for edu-server.net.
- Step 3: This server knows nothing about Linda.cs.yale.edu or cs.yale.edu and so it forwards the request to the name server for yale.edu.
- Step 4: This one forwards the request to cs.yale.edu which must have authoritative resource records.
- Step 5 to 8: The resource record requested works its way back in steps 5-8 This query method is known as Recursive Query
- 3. When a query cannot be satisfied locally, the query fails but the name of the next server along the line to try is returned.

## Electronic mail (SMTP,POP3,IMAP,MIME)

- ✓ Email is a service which allows us to send the message in electronic mode over the internet.
- ✓ It offers an efficient, inexpensive and real-time means of distributing information among people.
- ✓ Email is a store-and-forward method of sending, storing, and retrieving electronic messages.
- ✓ Email messages are stored in databases on mail servers.
- ✓ Email clients communicate with mail servers to send and receive email.
- ✓ Mail servers communicate with other mail servers to transport messages from one domain to another.
- ✓ Email clients do not communicate directly when sending email.
- ✓ Email relies on three separate protocols for operation:
  - SMTP (sending)
  - POP (retrieving)
  - IMAP (retrieving)

### ✓ Architecture and Services



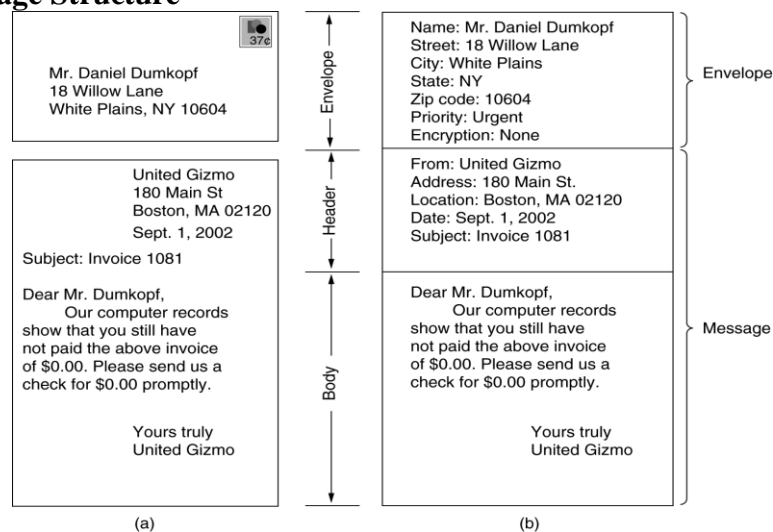
✓ **E-mail systems consist of two subsystems. They are:**

- (1). User Agents: which allow people to read and send e-mail
  - A program that accepts a variety of commands for composing, receiving, and replying to messages, as well as for manipulating mailboxes
    - Sending E-Mail: To send an e-mail message, a user must provide the message, the destination address, and possibly some other parameters. The message can be produced with a free-standing text editor, a word processing program, or possibly with a specialized text editor built into the user agent. The destination address must be in a format that the user agent can deal with. Many user agents expect addresses of the form user@dns-address.
    - Reading E-Mail: When a user agent is started up, it looks at the user's mailbox for incoming e-mail before displaying anything on the screen. Then it may announce the number of messages in the mailbox or display a one-line summary of each one and wait for a command.
- (2). Message Transfer Agents: which move messages from source to destination

✓ **Basic email functions**

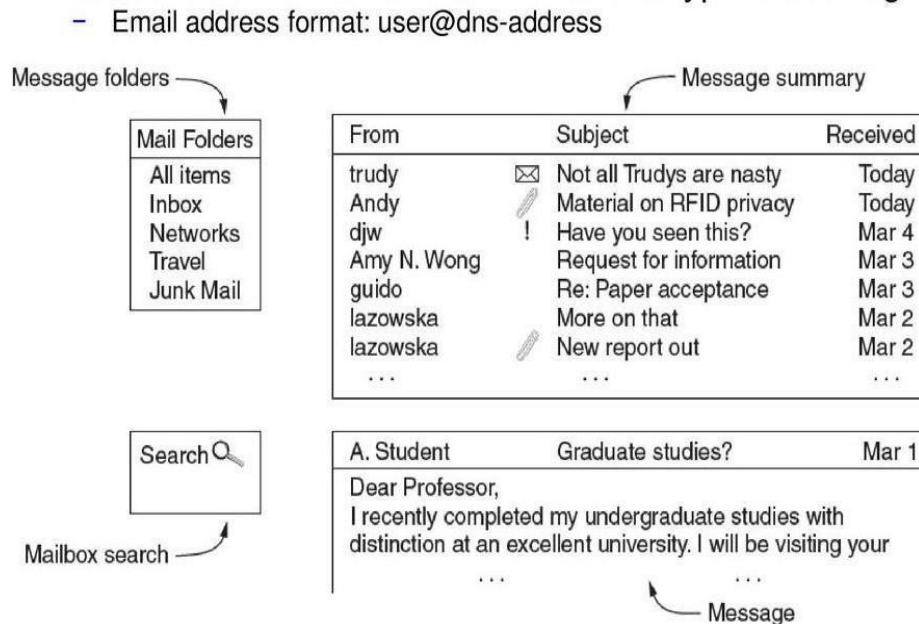
- **Composition:** The process of creating messages and answers. Any text editor is used for body of the message. While the system itself can provide assistance with addressing and numerous header fields attached to each message.
- **Reporting:** It has to do with telling the originator what happened to the message that is, whether it was delivered, rejected (or) lost.
- **Transfer:** It refers to moving messages from originator to the recipient.
- **Displaying:** Incoming messages are to be displayed so that people can read their email.
- **Disposition:** It concerns what the recipient does with the message after receiving it. Possibilities include throwing it away before reading (or) after reading, saving it and so on.

✓ **Email Message Structure**



Envelopes and messages. (a) Paper mail (b) Electronic mail

✓ **Typical elements of the user agent interface.**



✓ **Message Formats**

- RFC822headerfieldsrelatedtomessagetransport.

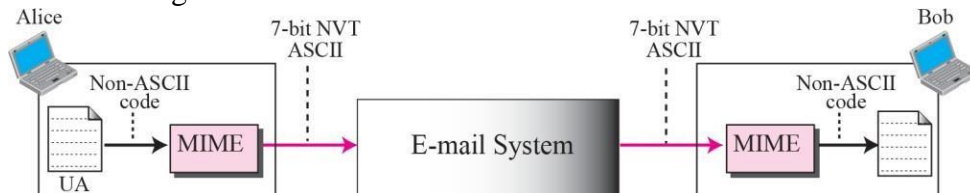
Header	Meaning
To:	E-mail address(es) of primary recipient(s)
Cc:	E-mail address(es) of secondary recipient(s)
Bcc:	E-mail address(es) for blind carbon copies
From:	Person or people who created the message
Sender:	E-mail address of the actual sender
Received:	Line added by each transfer agent along the route
Return-Path:	Can be used to identify a path back to the sender

- SomefieldsusedintheRFC 822message header.

Header	Meaning
Date:	The date and time the message was sent
Reply-To:	E-mail address to which replies should be sent
Message-Id:	Unique number for referencing this message later
In-Reply-To:	Message-Id of the message to which this is a reply
References:	Other relevant Message-Ids
Keywords:	User-chosen keywords
Subject:	Short summary of the message for the one-line display

✓ **MIME–Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions**

- Some problems when using ASCII formatted messages:
  - Languages with accents (French, German).
  - Languages in non-Latin alphabets (Hebrew, Russian).
  - Languages without alphabets (Chinese, Japanese).
  - Messages not containing text at all (audio or images).
- MIME adds structure to the message body and defines encoding rules for non-ASCII messages



- RFC822 headers added by MIME

Header	Meaning
MIME-Version:	Identifies the MIME version
Content-Description:	Human-readable string telling what is in the message
Content-Id:	Unique identifier
Content-Transfer-Encoding:	How the body is wrapped for transmission
Content-Type:	Type and format of the content

- The MIME types and subtypes defined in RFC2045.

Type	Subtype	Description
Text	Plain	Unformatted text
	Enriched	Text including simple formatting commands
Image	Gif	Still picture in GIF format
	Jpeg	Still picture in JPEG format
Audio	Basic	Audible sound
Video	Mpeg	Movie in MPEG format
Application	Octet-stream	An uninterpreted byte sequence
	Postscript	A printable document in PostScript
Message	Rfc822	A MIME RFC 822 message
	Partial	Message has been split for transmission
	External-body	Message itself must be fetched over the net
Multipart	Mixed	Independent parts in the specified order
	Alternative	Same message in different formats
	Parallel	Parts must be viewed simultaneously
	Digest	Each part is a complete RFC 822 message

- Example: multipart/mixed

```
From: Nathaniel Borenstein <nsb@bellcore.com>
To: Ned Freed <ned@innosoft.com>
Subject: Sample message
MIME-Version: 1.0
Content-type: multipart/mixed; boundary="simple
boundary"
```

```
This is the preamble. It is to be ignored, though it
is a handy place for mail composers to include an
explanatory note to non-MIME compliant readers.
--simple boundary
```

```
This is implicitly typed plain ASCII text.
It does NOT end with a linebreak.
--simple boundary
Content-type: text/plain; charset=us-ascii
```

```
This is explicitly typed plain ASCII text.
It DOES end with a linebreak.
```

```
--simple boundary--
This is the epilogue. It is also to be ignored.
```

○ Example: multipart/alternative

```
From: Nathaniel Borenstein <nsb@bellcore.com>
To: Ned Freed <ned@innosoft.com>
Subject: Formatted text mail
MIME-Version: 1.0
Content-Type: multipart/alternative; boundary=boundary42
```

```
--boundary42
Content-Type: text/plain; charset=us-ascii

...plain text version of message goes here...

--boundary42
Content-Type: text/richtext

.... richtext version of same message goes here ...
--boundary42
Content-Type: text/x-whatever

.... fanciest formatted version of same message goes here
...
--boundary42--
```

○ Example: multipart/digest

```
From: Moderator-Address
MIME-Version: 1.0
Subject: Internet Digest, volume 42
Content-Type: multipart/digest;
        boundary="----- next message -----"
```

```
----- next message -----

From: someone-else
Subject: my opinion

...body goes here ...

----- next message -----

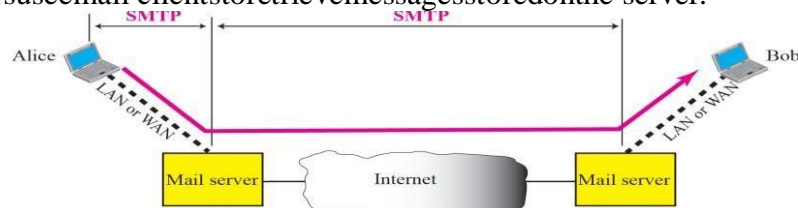
From: someone-else-again
Subject: my different opinion

... another body goes here...

----- next message -----
```

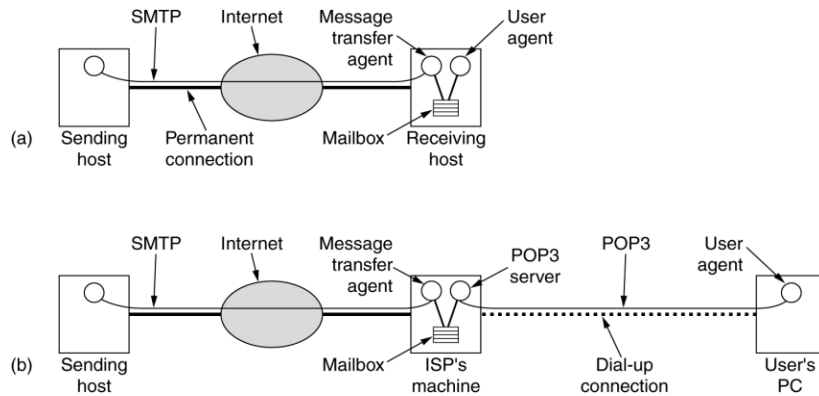
✓ **Simple Message Transfer Protocol(SMTP)**

- SMTP message format requires a message header and body.
- The body can contain any amount of text.
- The header must have a properly formatted recipient email address and a sender address.
- An SMTP client sends an email by connecting to a SMTP server on port 25.
- The server receives the message and stores it in a local mailbox or relays the message to another mail server.
- Users use email clients to retrieve messages stored on the server.



○ **Final Delivery**

- With the advent of people who access the Internet by calling their ISP over a modem, it breaks down.
- One solution is to have a message transfer agent on an ISP machine accept e-mail for its customers and store it in their mailboxes on an ISP machine. Since this agent can be on-line all the time, e-mail can be sent to it 24 hours a day.

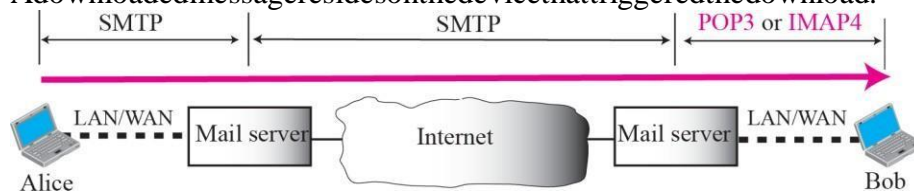


(a) Sending and reading mail when the receiver has a permanent Internet connection and the user agent runs on the same machine as the message transfer agent.

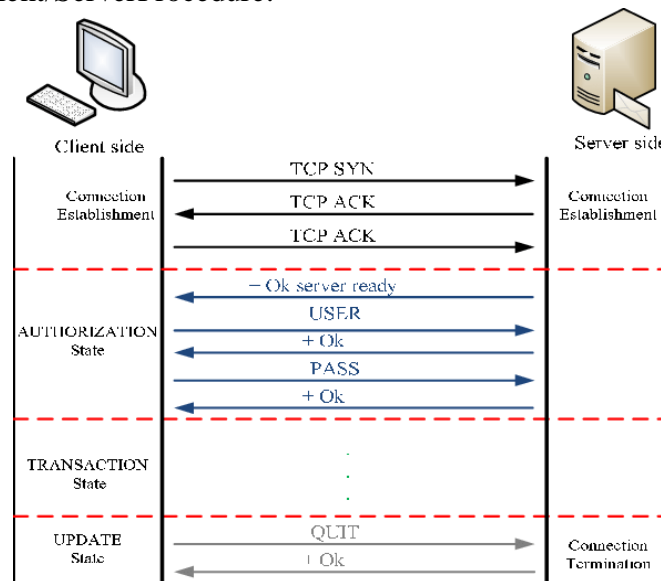
(b) Reading e-mail when the receiver has a dial-up connection to an ISP.

### ✓ POP3

- Messages are downloaded from the server to the client.
- The server listens on port 110 TCP for client requests.
- Email clients direct their POP requests to mail servers on port TCP 110.
- The POP client and server exchange commands and responses until the connection is closed or aborted.
- POP allows for email messages to be downloaded to the client's device (computer or phone) and removed from the server.
- There is no centralized location where email messages are kept.
- A downloaded message resides on the device that triggered the download.



- POP3–Client/Server Procedure:



✓ **IMAP-(Internet Message Access Protocol)**

- IMAP is another protocol used to retrieve email messages.
- Allows for messages to be displayed to the user rather than downloaded.
- The original messages reside on the server until manually deleted by the user.
- Users view copies of the messages in their email client software.
- Users can create a folder hierarchy on the server to organize and store mail.
- That file structure is displayed on the email client.
- When a user decides to delete a message, the server synchronizes that action and deletes the message from the server.
- POP3 is not convenient when users frequently use different machines to read email from servers, as emails have to be downloaded to different computers more or less random
- IMAP can resolve this issue as emails will be always on the servers

✓ **A comparison of POP3 and IMAP.**

Feature	POP3	IMAP
Where is protocol defined?	RFC 1939	RFC 2060
Which TCP port is used?	110	143
Where is e-mail stored?	User's PC	Server
Where is e-mail read?	Off-line	On-line
Connect time required?	Little	Much
Use of server resources?	Minimal	Extensive
Multiple mailboxes?	No	Yes
Who backs up mailboxes?	User	ISP
Good for mobile users?	No	Yes
User control over downloading?	Little	Great
Partial message downloads?	No	Yes
Are disk quotas a problem?	No	Could be in time
Simple to implement?	Yes	No
Widespread support?	Yes	Growing

**WWW-World Wide Web**

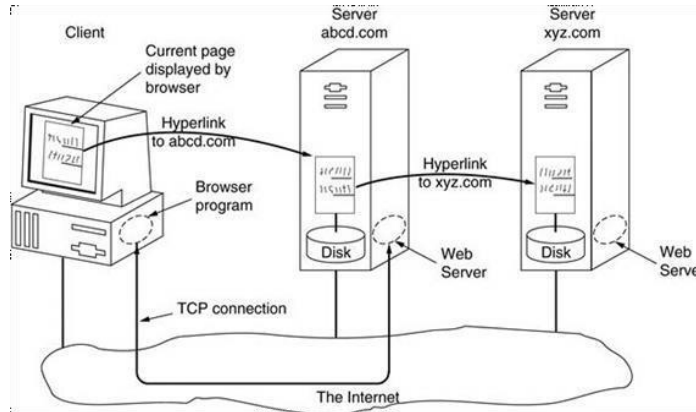
- ✓ The World Wide Web is an architectural framework for accessing linked documents spread out over millions of machines all over the Internet. The initial proposal for a web of linked documents came from CERN physicist Tim Berners-Lee in 1989.

✓ **Architectural Overview**

- From the users' point of view, the Web consists of a vast, worldwide collection of documents or Web pages. Each page may contain links to other pages anywhere in the world. Users can follow a link by clicking on it, which then takes them to the page pointed to. This process can be repeated indefinitely.
- Pages are viewed with a program called a browser, of which Internet Explorer and Netscape Navigator are two popular ones. The browser fetches the page requested, interprets the text and formatting commands on it, and displays the page, properly formatted, on the screen.

- Strings of text that are links to other pages, called hyperlinks, are often highlighted, by underlining, displaying them in a special color, or both.

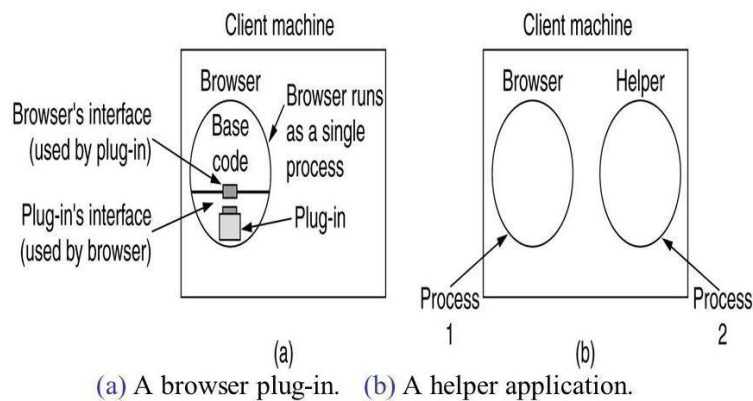
### ✓ Parts of the Web Model



- Here the browser is displaying a Web page on the client machine.
- When the user clicks on a line of text that is linked to a page on the abcd.com server, the browser follows the hyperlink by sending a message to the abcd.com server asking it for the page.
- When the page arrives, it is displayed. If this page contains a hyperlink to a page on the xyz.com server that is clicked on, the browser then sends a request to that machine for the page.

### ○ Client Side

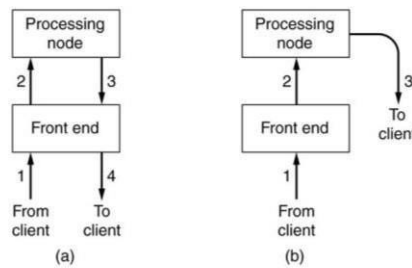
- When an item is selected, the browser follows the hyperlink and fetches the page selected. Therefore, the embedded hyperlink needs a way to name any other page on the Web. Pages are named using URLs (Uniform Resource Locators).
- The steps that occur at the client side are:
  - The browser determines the URL
  - The browser asks DNS for the IP address
  - DNS replies with the IP address
  - The browser makes a TCP connection to port 80 on the IP address
  - It sends a request asking for file
  - The site server sends the file
  - The TCP connection is released.
  - The browser fetches and displays all the text and images in the file.
  - Web pages are written in standard HTML language to make it understandable by all browsers.
- There are two possibilities: plug-ins and helper applications. A plug-in is a code module that the browser fetches from a special directory on the disk and installs as an extension to itself.
- The other way to extend a browser is to use a helper application. This is a complete program, running as a separate process.



○ **Server Side**

- The steps to be followed by the server side are:
  - Accept a TCP connection from a client (a browser).
  - Get the name of the file requested.
  - Get the file (from disk).
  - Return the file to the client.
  - Release the TCP connection.

○ **Processing of Request**

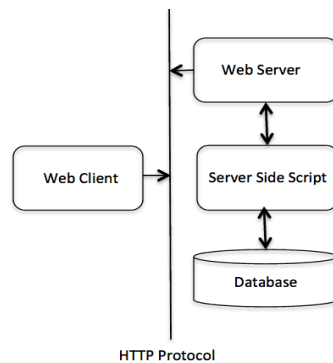


(a) Normal request-reply message sequence.  
 (b) Sequence when TCP handoff is used.

- The processing of request on the web is as follows:
  - Resolve the name of the Web page requested.
  - Authenticate the client.
  - Perform access control on the client.
  - Perform access control on the Web page.
  - Check the cache.
  - Fetch the requested page from disk.
  - Determine the MIME type to include in the response.
  - Take care of miscellaneous odds and ends.
  - Return the reply to the client.
  - Make an entry in the server log.

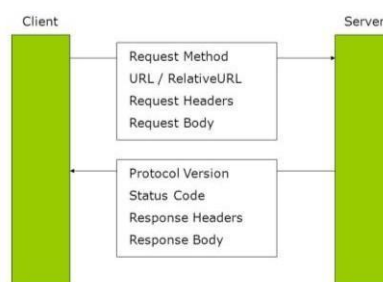
## HTTP

- ✓ **HTTP** (Hyper Text Transfer Protocol) is the most popular protocol used for web browsing. It is basically a computer networking application layer protocol provided to the applications for accessing data on the world wide web (www).
- ✓ **Basic Architecture**
  - The following diagram shows a very basic architecture of a web application and depicts where HTTP sites:



- The HTTP protocol is a request/response protocol based on the client/server based architecture where web browsers, robots and search engines, etc. act like HTTP clients and the Web server acts as a server.
  - **Client:** The HTTP client sends a request to the server in the form of a request method, URI, and protocol version, followed by a MIME-like message containing request modifiers, client information, and possible body content over a TCP/IP connection.
  - **Server:** The HTTP server responds with a status line, including the message's protocol version and a success or error code, followed by a MIME-like message containing server information, entity meta information, and possible entity-body content.

## ✓ HTTP Basic Operation



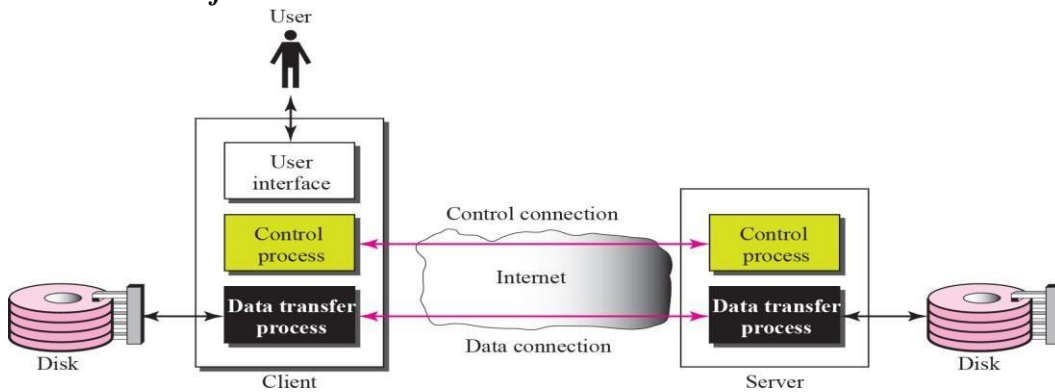
- HTTP is a standard textbased, application layer protocol, used by all browsers to access millions and millions of web pages, stored across the entire globe.
- It is similar to FTP in some aspects as it uses TCP as the underlying transport layer protocol to transfer files and supports methods like get and put for data transfer. However, HTTP uses just a single TCP connection compared to two TCP connections used by FTP (one control and one data). HTTP is also similar to SMTP in the structure of protocol messages.
- HTTP is a reliable protocol, making sure that all data transferred through it reaches the peer machine without any loss. Due to this reliability requirement, HTTP uses TCP as the transport layer protocol.

- It is a simple **Client-Server REQUEST-REPLY protocol**, where clients send HTTP requests and servers respond with HTTP replies.
- HTTP is a **stateless protocol** as each HTTP Request and Reply are treated independently by the client and server. So server does not maintain any specific state about each HTTP transaction.
- HTTP supports multiple basic operations in the form of different HTTP methods:
  - **GET Method:** It is used to retrieve information from the given server using a given URI. Requests using GET should only retrieve data and should have no other effect on the data.
  - **POST Method:** It is used to send data to the server, for example, customer information, file upload, etc. using HTML forms.
  - **HEAD:** Same as GET, but transfers the status line and header section only.
  - **PUT:** Replaces all current representations of the target resource with the uploaded content.
  - **DELETE:** Removes all current representations of the target resource given by a URI.
  - **CONNECT:** Establishes a tunnel to the server identified by a given URI.
  - **OPTIONS:** Describes the communication options for the target resource.
  - **TRACE:** Performs a message loop-back test along the path to the target resource.

## FTP

- ✓ File Transfer Protocol (FTP) is the standard mechanism provided by TCP/IP for copying a file from one host to another.
- ✓ Although transferring files from one system to another seems simple and straightforward, some problems must be dealt with first.
- ✓ For example,
  - Two systems may use different file name conventions. Two systems may have different ways to represent text and data.
  - Two systems may have different directory structures.
  - All of these problems have been solved by FTP in a very simple and elegant approach.
- ✓ FTP differs from other client-server applications in that it establishes two connections between the hosts.
  - One connection is used for data transfer
  - The other for control information (commands and responses).
- ✓ Separation of commands and data transfer makes FTP more efficient.
  - The control connection uses very simple rules of communication.
  - The data connection, on the other hand, needs more complex rules due to the variety of data types transferred.
- ✓ FTP uses two well-known TCP ports:
  - Port 21 is used for the control connection, and
  - Port 20 is used for the data connection.

✓ **Basic model of FTP**



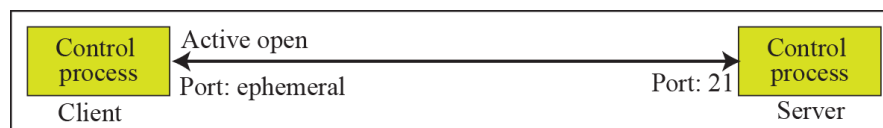
- The client has three components:
  - User interface, client control process, and the client data transfer process.
- The server has two components:
  - Server control process and the server data transfer process.
- The control connection is made between the control processes.
- The data connection is made between the data transfer processes.
  - The control connection remains connected during the entire interactive FTP session.
  - The data connection is opened and then closed for each file transferred.

✓ **Control Connection**

- The control connection is created in the same way as other application programs. There are two steps:
  - 1. The server issues a passive open on the well-known port 21 and waits for a client.
  - 2. The client uses an ephemeral port and issues an active open.
- The connection remains open during the entire process.



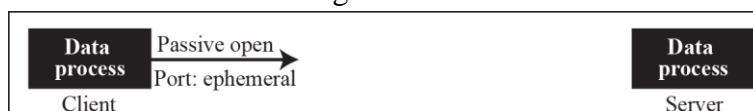
a. First, passive open by server



b. Later, active open by client

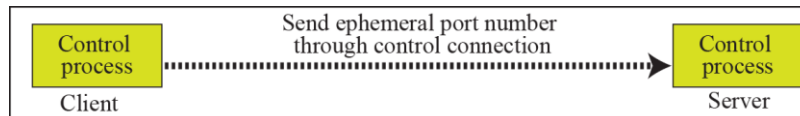
✓ **Data Connection**

- 1. The client, not the server, issues a passive open using an ephemeral port. This must be done by the client because it is the client that issues the commands for transferring files.



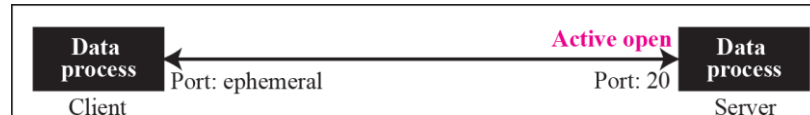
a. First, passive open by client

- 2. The client sends this port number to the server using the PORT command.



b. Second, sending of ephemeral port

- 3. The server receives the port number and issues an active open using the well-known port 20 and the received ephemeral port number.



c. Third, active open by server

✓ **Communication:**

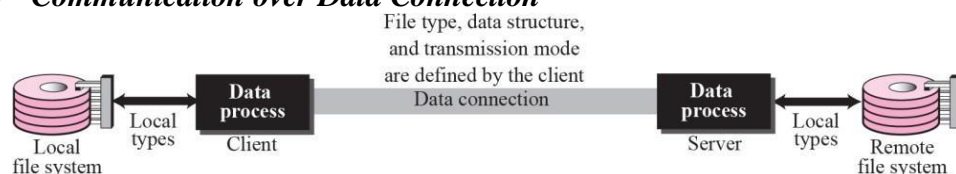
- The FTP client and server, which run on different computers, must communicate with each other.
- These two computers may use different operating systems, different character sets, different file structures, and different file formats.
- FTP must make this heterogeneity compatible.
- FTP has two different approaches, one for the control connection and one for the data connection.

○ **Communication over Control Connection**



- FTP uses the same approach as TELNET or SMTP to communicate across the control connection.
- It uses the NVT ASCII character set.
- Communication is achieved through commands and responses. This simple method is adequate for the control connection because we send one command (or response) at a time. Each command or response is only one short line so we need not worry about file format or file structure. Each line is terminated with a two-character (carriage return and line feed) end-of-line token.

○ **Communication over Data Connection**

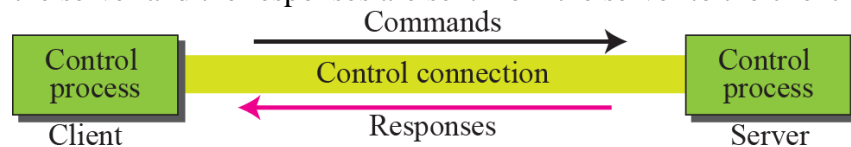


- The purpose and implementation of the data connection are different from that of the control connection.
- It is used to transfer files through the data connection.
- The client must define the type of file to be transferred, the structure of the data, and the transmission mode.
- Before sending the file through the data connection, first prepare for transmission through the control connection.

- The heterogeneity problem is resolved by defining three attributes of communication: file type, data structure, and transmission mode.
- FileType:
  - ASCII file, EBCDIC file and Image file
- Data Structure:
  - File structure (default), Record structure and Page structure.
- Transmission Mode:
  - Stream mode, Block mode and compressed mode.

○ **Command processing**

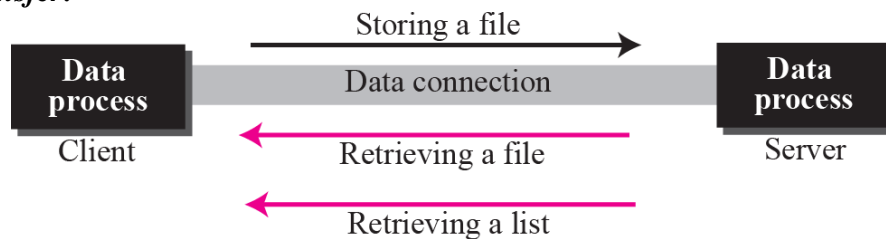
- FTP uses the control connection to establish a communication between the client control process and the server control process.
- During this communication, the commands are sent from the client to the server and the responses are sent from the server to the client



✓ **Commands:**

- Commands, which are sent from the FTP client control process, are in the form of ASCII uppercase, which may or may not be followed by an argument.
- Divide the commands into six groups: access commands, file management commands, data formatting commands, port defining commands, file transferring commands, and miscellaneous commands.

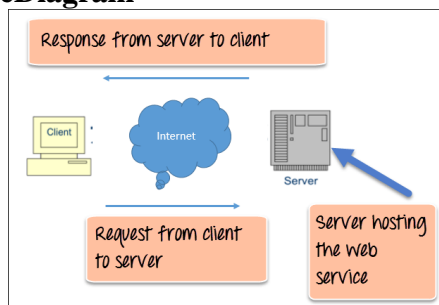
✓ **File transfer:**



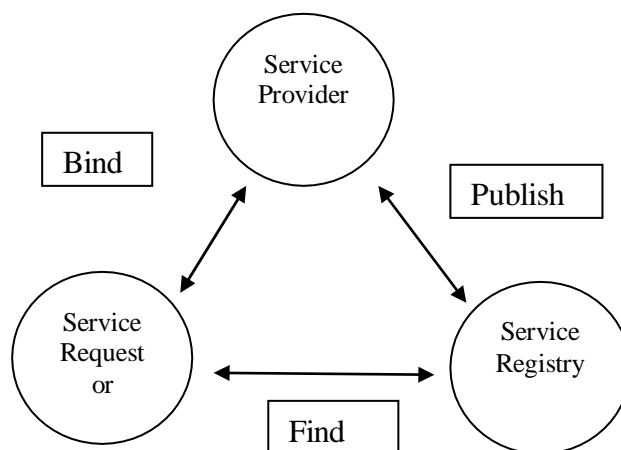
- File transfer occurs over the data connection under the control of the commands sent over the control connection. However, we should remember that file transfer in FTP means one of three things:
  - A file is to be copied from the server to the client (download). This is called retrieving a file. It is done under the supervision of the RETR command.
  - A file is to be copied from the client to the server (upload). This is called storing a file. It is done under the supervision of the STOR command.
  - A list of directory or file names is to be sent from the server to the client. This is done under the supervision of the LIST command. Note that FTP treats a list of directory or file names as a file. It is sent over the data connection.

## Web Services

- ✓ Webservice is a standardized medium to propagate communication between the client and server applications on the World Wide Web.
- ✓ A webservice is a software module which is designed to perform a certain set of tasks.
  - The web services can be searched for over the network and can also be invoked accordingly.
  - When invoked the web service would be able to provide functionality to the client which invokes that web service.
- ✓ **WebService Architecture Diagram**



- The above diagram shows a very simplistic view of how a web service would actually work. The client would invoke a series of web service calls via requests to a server which would host the actual web service.
- These requests are made through what is known as remote procedure calls. Remote Procedure Calls (RPC) are calls made to methods which are hosted by the relevant web service.



- Every framework needs some sort of architecture to make sure the entire framework works as desired. Similarly, in web services, there is an architecture which consists of three distinct roles as given below
  - **Provider** - The provider creates the web service and makes it available to client application who wants to use it.
  - **Requestor** - A requestor is nothing but the client application that needs to contact a web service. The client application can be a .Net, Java, or any other language based application which looks for some sort of functionality via a web service.
  - **Broker** - The broker is nothing but the application which provides access to the UDDI (Universal Description, Discovery and Integration). The UDDI, as discussed in the earlier topic enables the client application to locate the web service.

- **Publish** - A provider informs the broker (service registry) about the existence of the web service by using the broker's publish interface to make the service accessible to clients
- **Find** - The requestor consults the broker to locate a published web service
- **Bind** - With the information it gained from the broker(service registry) about the web service, the requestor is able to bind, or invoke, the web service.

#### ✓ **Type of Web Service**

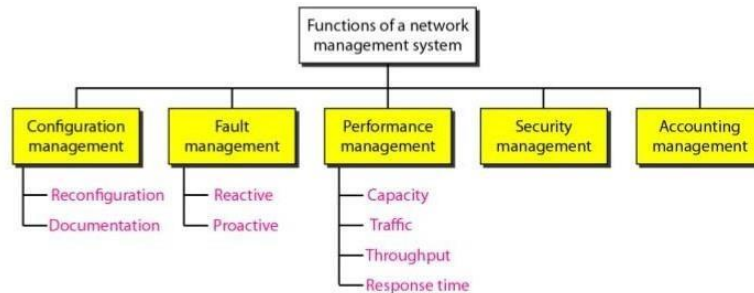
- There are mainly two types of web services.
  - SOAP web services.
  - RESTful web services.
- **SOAP(Simple Object Access Protocol)**
  - SOAP is known as a transport-independent messaging protocol. SOAP is based on transferring XML data as SOAP Messages. Each message has something which is known as an XML document.
  - Only the structure of the XML document follows a specific pattern, but not the content. The best part of Web services and SOAP is that its all sent via HTTP, which is the standard web protocol.
- **WSDL(Web services description language)**
  - **A web service cannot be used if it cannot be found.** The client invoking the web service should know where the web service actually resides.
- **Universal Description, Discovery, and Integration(UDDI)**
  - UDDI is a standard for describing, publishing, and discovering the web services that are provided by a particular service provider. It provides a specification which helps in hosting the information on web services.

#### ✓ **Web Services Advantages**

- Exposing Business Functionality on the network
- Interoperability amongst applications
- A Standardized Protocol which everybody understands
- Reduction in cost of communication

## SNMP

### ✓ Functions of a network management system



#### ○ Configuration Management

- A large network is usually made up of hundreds of entities that are physically or logically connected to one another. These entities have an initial configuration when the network is set up, but can change with time.
- Desktop computers may be replaced by others; application software may be updated to a newer version; and users may move from one group to another.
- The configuration management system must know, at any time, the status of each entity and its relation to other entities.
- Configuration management can be divided into two subsystems: reconfiguration and documentation.

#### ○ Fault Management

- Complex networks today are made up of hundreds and sometimes thousands of components.
- Proper operation of the network depends on the proper operation of each component individually and in relation to each other.
- Fault management is the area of network management that handles this issue.
- An effective fault management system has two subsystems: reactive fault management and proactive fault management.

#### ○ Performance Management

- Performance management, which is closely related to fault management, tries to monitor and control the network to ensure that it is running as efficiently as possible.
- Performance management tries to quantify performance by using some measurable quantity such as capacity, traffic, throughput, or response time.

#### ○ Security Management

- Security management is responsible for controlling access to the network based on the predefined policy.

#### ○ Accounting Management

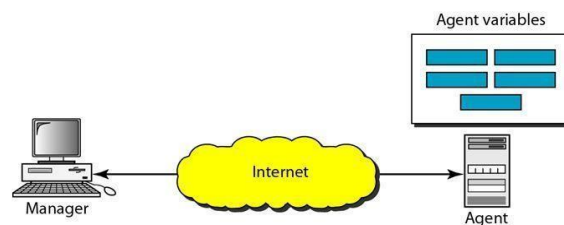
- Accounting management is the control of users' access to network resources through charges. Under accounting management, individual users, departments, divisions, or even projects are charged for the services they receive from the network. Charging does not necessarily mean cash transfer; it may mean debiting the departments or divisions for budgeting purposes.

- Today, organizations use an accounting management system for the following reasons:
  - It prevents users from monopolizing limited network resources.
  - It prevents users from using the system inefficiently.
  - Network managers can do short- and long-term planning based on the demand for network use.

## ✓ SNMP—Simple Network Management Protocol

- The Simple Network Management Protocol (SNMP) is a framework for managing devices in an internet using the TCP/IP protocol suite. It provides a set of fundamental operations for monitoring and maintaining an internet.

- **SNMP concept**



- SNMP is an application-level protocol in which a few manager stations control a set of agents. The protocol is designed at the application level so that it can monitor devices made by different manufacturers and installed on different physical networks.
- In other words, SNMP frees management tasks from both the physical characteristics of the managed devices and the underlying networking technology. It can be used in a heterogeneous internet made of different LANs and WANs connected by routers made by different manufacturers.

- **Components of SNMP**

- There are four main components in an SNMP-managed network:
  - **SNMP agent:** This program runs on the hardware or service being monitored, collecting data about various metrics like bandwidth use or disk space. When queried by the SNMP manager, the agent sends this information back to the management system. An agent may also proactively notify the NMS if an error occurs. Most devices come with an SNMP agent preinstalled; it typically just needs to be turned on and configured.
  - **SNMP-managed devices and resources:** These are the nodes on which an agent runs.
  - **SNMP manager (aka NMS):** This software platform functions as a centralized console to which agents feed information. It will actively request agents send updates via SNMP at regular intervals. What a network manager can do with that information depends heavily on how feature-rich the NMS is. There are several free SNMP managers available, but they are typically limited in their capabilities or the number of nodes they can support. At the other end of the spectrum, enterprise-grade

platforms offer advanced features for more complex networks, with some products supporting up to tens of thousands of nodes.

- **Management information base (MIB):** This database is a textfile (.mib) that itemizes and describes all objects used by a particular device that can be queried or controlled using SNMP. This database must be loaded into the NMS so that it can identify and monitor the status of these properties. Each MIB item is assigned an object identifier (OID).

- **SNMP Message Types**

- There are different types of SNMP messages that can be used to set up network monitoring via SNMP:

- **GetRequest** – This is the most common SNMP message that an SNMP manager sends out to request data. The targeted device returns the requested value with a Response message.
- **GetNextRequest** – The SNMP manager can send this message type to discover what information is available from the device. By starting at OID 0, the manager can continue to send a request for the next available data until there is no more “next” data. This way, users can discover all of the available data on a certain device even though they might not have had any prior knowledge of the responding system or device.
- **GetBulkRequest** – Added in SNMP Version 2, this is a newer, optimized version of GetNextRequest. The solicited Response will contain as much data as allowed by the request. Essentially, this is a way to do several GetNextRequests at once, which enables users to create a list of all available data and parameters.
- **SetRequest** – This is a manager-initiated command to set or change the value of a parameter via SNMP on the agent device or system. This message type can be used to manage or update configuration settings or other parameters. But be careful! An incorrect SetRequest may seriously damage systems and network setups.
- **Response** – The Response is the message that a device agent sends upon a Request from the manager. When sent in response to a GetRequest type, the packet contains the requested data or values. In the case of a SetRequest, the packet responds with the newly set value as a confirmation that the SetRequest has been completed successfully.
- **Trap(v2)** – A trap is sent (“pushed out”) by the SNMP agent without having been requested by the manager. Rather, traps are sent upon determined conditions, such as in the event of an error, or upon crossing a preset threshold. If users want to benefit from traps for monitoring, which is an excellent idea in terms of proactive monitoring, they might have to configure traps first with the help of the SNMP manager.

- **InformRequest** – This message type was added in SNMPv2 to give the manager the possibility to confirm that it received an agent's trap message. Some agents are configured to continue to send a trap until an inform message is received.
- **Report** – SNMP v3 is needed to use Report messages. They allow an SNMP manager to determine what kind of problem was detected by the remote SNMP agent. Based on the detected error, the SNMP engine may try to send a corrected SNMP message. If that is not possible, it may pass an indication of the error to the application on whose behalf the failed SNMP request was issued. [RFC3412]

**Reference Book: Computer Networks, Andrew Tanenbaum, 6<sup>th</sup> Edition.**