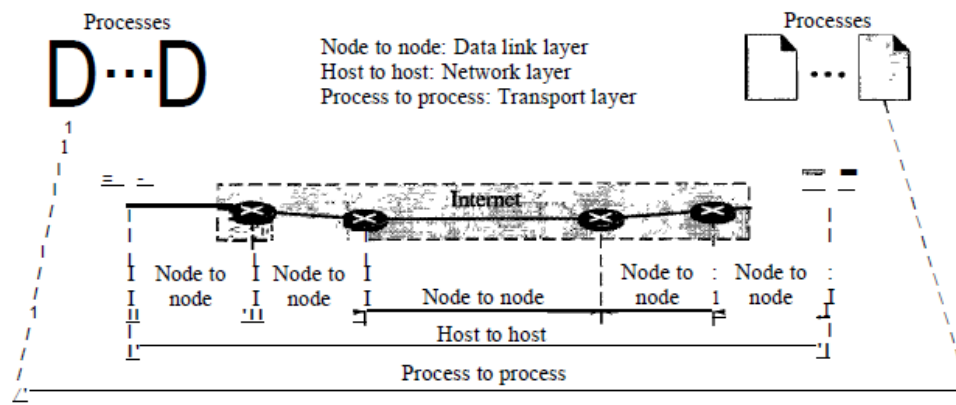


## UNIT-6

**Transport Layer:** The data link layer is responsible for delivery of frames between two neighbouring nodes over a link. This is called node-to-node delivery. The network layer is responsible for delivery of datagrams between two hosts. This is called host-to-host delivery. Communication on the Internet is not defined as the exchange of data between two nodes or between two hosts. Real communication takes place between two processes.

### *Types of data deliveries*



### Addressing

Whenever we need to deliver something to one specific destination among many, we need an address. At the transport layer, we need a transport layer address, called a port number, to choose among multiple processes running on the destination host. The destination port number is needed for delivery; the source port number is needed for the reply. In the Internet model, the port numbers are 16-bit integers between 0 and 65,535. The client program defines itself with a port number, chosen randomly by the transport layer software running on the client host. This is the ephemeral port number. The server process must also define itself with a port number. This port number, however, cannot be chosen randomly. If the computer at the server site runs a server process and assigns a random number as the port number, the process at the client site that wants to access that server and use its services will not know the port number. Of course, one solution would be to send a special packet and request the port number of a specific server, but this requires more overhead. The Internet has decided to use universal port numbers for servers; these are called well-known port numbers. There are some exceptions to this rule; for example, there are clients that are assigned well-known port numbers. Every client process knows the well-known port number of the corresponding server process.

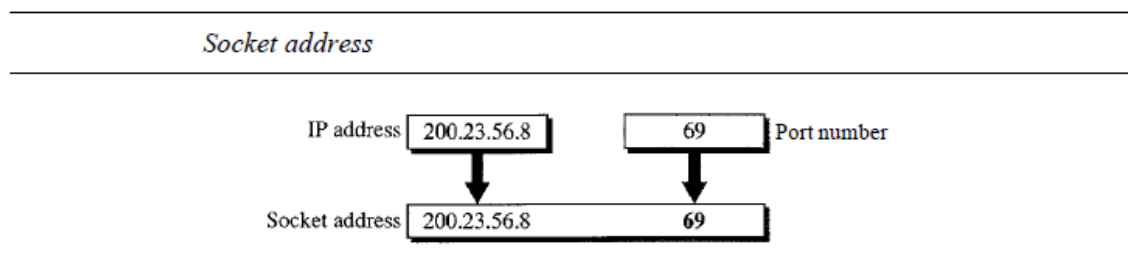
### IANA Ranges

The IANA (Internet Assigned Number Authority) has divided the port numbers into three ranges: well known, registered, and dynamic (or private).

- o Well-known ports. The ports ranging from 0 to 1023 are assigned and controlled by IANA. These are the well-known ports.
- o Registered ports. The ports ranging from 1024 to 49,151 are not assigned or controlled by IANA. They can only be registered with IANA to prevent duplication.
- o Dynamic ports. The ports ranging from 49,152 to 65,535 are neither controlled nor registered. They can be used by any process. These are the ephemeral ports.

### Socket Addresses

Process-to-process delivery needs two identifiers, IP address and the port number, at each end to make a connection. The combination of an IP address and a port number is called a socket address.



**The User Datagram Protocol (UDP)** is called a connectionless, unreliable transport protocol. It does not add anything to the services of IP except to provide process-to-process communication instead of host-to-host communication. Also, it performs very limited error checking. UDP is a very simple protocol using a minimum of overhead. If a process wants to send a small message and does not care much about reliability, it can use UDP. Sending a small message by using UDP takes much less interaction between the sender and receiver than using TCP or SCTP.

### Well-Known Ports for UDP

*Well-known ports used with UDP (continued)*

Port	Protocol	Description
13	Daytime	Returns the date and the time
17	Quote	Returns a quote of the day
19	Chargen	Returns a string of characters
53	Nameserver	Domain Name Service
67	BOOTPs	Server port to download bootstrap information
68	BOOTPc	Client port to download bootstrap information
69	TFTP	Trivial File Transfer Protocol
III	RPC	Remote Procedure Call
123	NTP	Network Time Protocol
161	SNMP	Simple Network Management Protocol
162	SNMP	Simple Network Management Protocol (trap)

UDP packets, called user datagrams, have a fixed-size header of 8 bytes.

**o Source port number.** This is the port number used by the process running on the source host. It is 16 bits long, which means that the port number can range from 0 to 65,535. If the source host is the client (a client sending a request), the port number, in most cases, is an ephemeral port number requested by the process and chosen by the UDP software running on the source host. If the source host is the server (a server sending a response), the port number, in most cases, is a well-known port number.

**Destination port number:** This is the port number used by the process running on the destination host. It is also 16 bits long. If the destination host is the server (a client sending a request), the port number, in most cases, is a well-known port number. If the destination host is the client (a server sending a response), the port number, in most cases, is an ephemeral port number. In this case, the server copies the ephemeral port number it has received in the request packet.

**o Length:** This is a 16-bit field that defines the total length of the user datagram, header plus data. The 16 bits can define a total length of 0 to 65,535 bytes. However, the total length needs to be much less because a UDP user datagram is stored in an IP datagram with a total length of 65,535 bytes. The length field in a UDP user datagram is actually not necessary. A user datagram is encapsulated in an IP datagram. There is a field in the IP datagram that defines the total length. There is another field in the IP datagram that defines the length of the header. So if we subtract the value of the second field from the first, we can deduce the length of a UDP datagram that is encapsulated in an IP datagram.

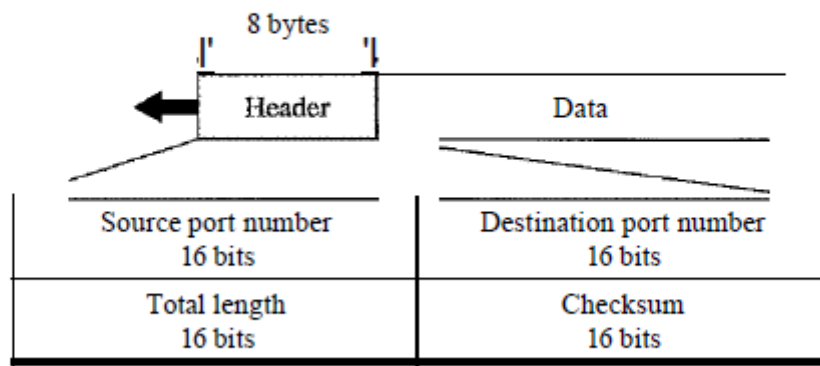
$$\text{UDP Length} = \text{IP length} - \text{IP header length}$$

**Checksum:** This 16 bit field is used to detect errors over the entire user datagram (header plus data).

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### *User datagram format*

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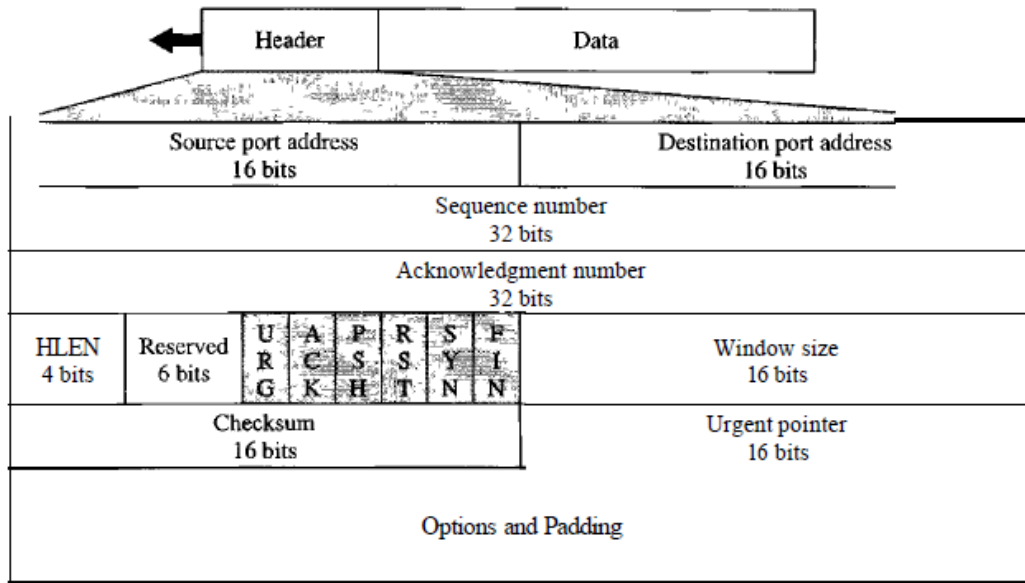


**Transmission Control Protocol:** The second transport layer protocol we discuss in this chapter is called Transmission Control Protocol (TCP). TCP, like UDP, is a process-to-process (program-to-program) protocol. TCP, therefore, like UDP, uses port numbers. Unlike UDP, TCP is a connection oriented protocol; it creates a virtual connection between two TCPs to send data. In addition, TCP uses flow and error control mechanisms at the transport level. In brief, TCP is called a connection-oriented, reliable transport protocol. It adds connection-oriented and reliability features to the services of IP. Well known ports used by TCP are:

*Well-known ports used by TCP*

<i>Port</i>	<i>Protocol</i>	<i>Description</i>
7	Echo	Echoes a received datagram back to the sender
9	Discard	Discards any datagram that is received
11	Users	Active users
13	Daytime	Returns the date and the time
17	Quote	Returns a quote of the day
19	Chargen	Returns a string of characters
20	FIP, Data	File Transfer Protocol (data connection)
21	FIP, Control	File Transfer Protocol (control connection)
23	TELNET	Tenninal Network
25	SMTP	Simple Mail Transfer Protocol
53	DNS	Domain Name Server
67	BOOTP	Bootstrap Protocol
79	Finger	Finger
80	HTTP	Hypertext Transfer Protocol
111	RPC	Remote Procedure Call

The segment consists of a 20- to 60-byte header, followed by data from the application program. The header is 20 bytes if there are no options and up to 60 bytes if it contains options.

*TCP segment format*

o **Source port address:** This is a 16-bit field that defines the port number of the application program in the host that is sending the segment. This serves the same purpose as the source port address in the UDP header.

o **Destination port address:** This is a 16-bit field that defines the port number of the application program in the host that is receiving the segment. This serves the same purpose as the destination port address in the UDP header.

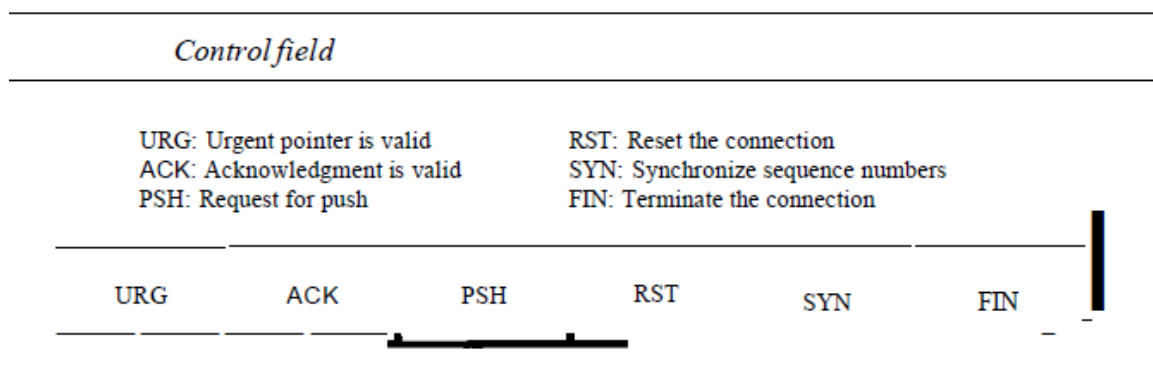
o **Sequence number:** This 32-bit field defines the number assigned to the first byte of data contained in this segment. As we said before, TCP is a stream transport protocol. To ensure connectivity, each byte to be transmitted is numbered. The sequence number tells the destination which byte in this sequence comprises the first byte in the segment. During connection establishment, each party uses a random number generator to create an initial sequence number (ISN), which is usually different in each direction.

o **Acknowledgment number:** This 32-bit field defines the byte number that the receiver of the segment is expecting to receive from the other party. Acknowledgment and data can be piggybacked together.

**Header length:** This 4-bit field indicates the number of 4-byte words in the TCP header. The length of the header can be between 20 and 60 bytes. Therefore, the value of this field can be between 5 ( $5 \times 4 = 20$ ) and 15 ( $15 \times 4 = 60$ ).

**Reserved:** This is a 6-bit field reserved for future use.

**Control:** This field defines 6 different control bits or flags. One or more of these bits can be set at a time.



These bits enable flow control, connection establishment and termination, connection abortion, and the mode of data transfer in TCP.

*Description of flags in the control field*

<i>Flag</i>	<i>Description</i>
URG	The value of the urgent pointer field is valid.
ACK	The value of the acknowledgment field is valid.
PSH	Push the data.
RST	Reset the connection.
SYN	Synchronize sequence numbers during connection.
FIN	Terminate the connection.

**Window size:** This field defines the size of the window, in bytes, that the other party must maintain. Note that the length of this field is 16 bits, which means that the maximum size of the window is 65,535 bytes. This value is normally referred to as the receiving window (rwnd) and is determined by the receiver. The sender must obey the dictation of the receiver in this case.

**Checksum:** This 16-bit field contains the checksum. The calculation of the checksum for TCP follows the same procedure as the one described for UDP. However, the inclusion of the checksum in the UDP datagram is optional, whereas the inclusion of the checksum for TCP is mandatory. The same pseudo header, serving the same purpose, is added to the segment. For the TCP pseudo header, the value for the protocol field is 6.

**Urgent pointer:** This 16-bit field, which is valid only if the urgent flag is set, is used when the segment contains urgent data. It defines the number that must be added to the sequence number to obtain the number of the last urgent byte in the data section of the segment. This will be discussed later in this chapter.

**Options:** There can be up to 40 bytes of optional information in the TCP header.

### TCP Connection Establishment

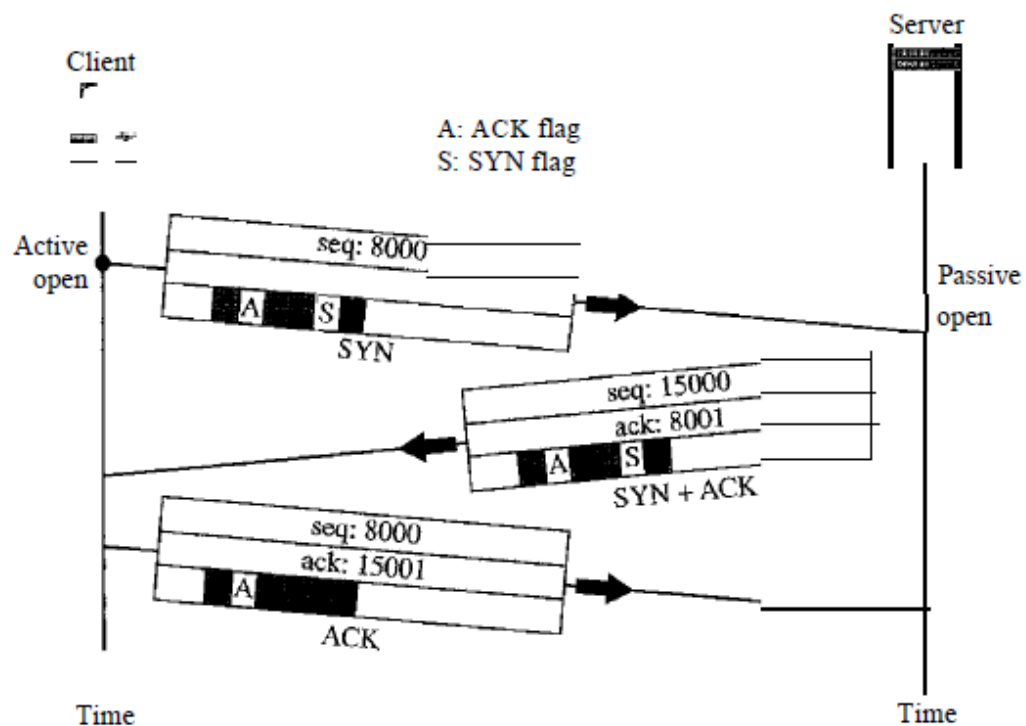
TCP is connection-oriented. A connection-oriented transport protocol establishes a virtual path between the source and destination. All the segments belonging to a message are then sent over this virtual path. Using a single virtual pathway for the entire message facilitates the acknowledgment process as well as retransmission of damaged or lost frames. TCP transmits data in full-duplex mode. When two TCPs in two machines are connected, they are able to send segments to each other simultaneously. This implies that each party must initialize communication and get approval from the other party before any data are transferred.

**Three-Way Handshaking** The connection establishment in TCP is called three way handshaking. In our example, an application program, called the client, wants to make a connection with another application program, called the server, using TCP as the transport layer protocol. The process starts with the server. The server program tells its TCP that it is ready to accept a connection. This is called a request for a passive open. Although the server TCP is ready to accept any connection from any machine in the world, it cannot make the connection itself. The client program issues a request for an active open. A client that wishes to connect to an open server tells its TCP that it needs to be connected to that particular server.

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*Connection establishment using three-way handshaking*

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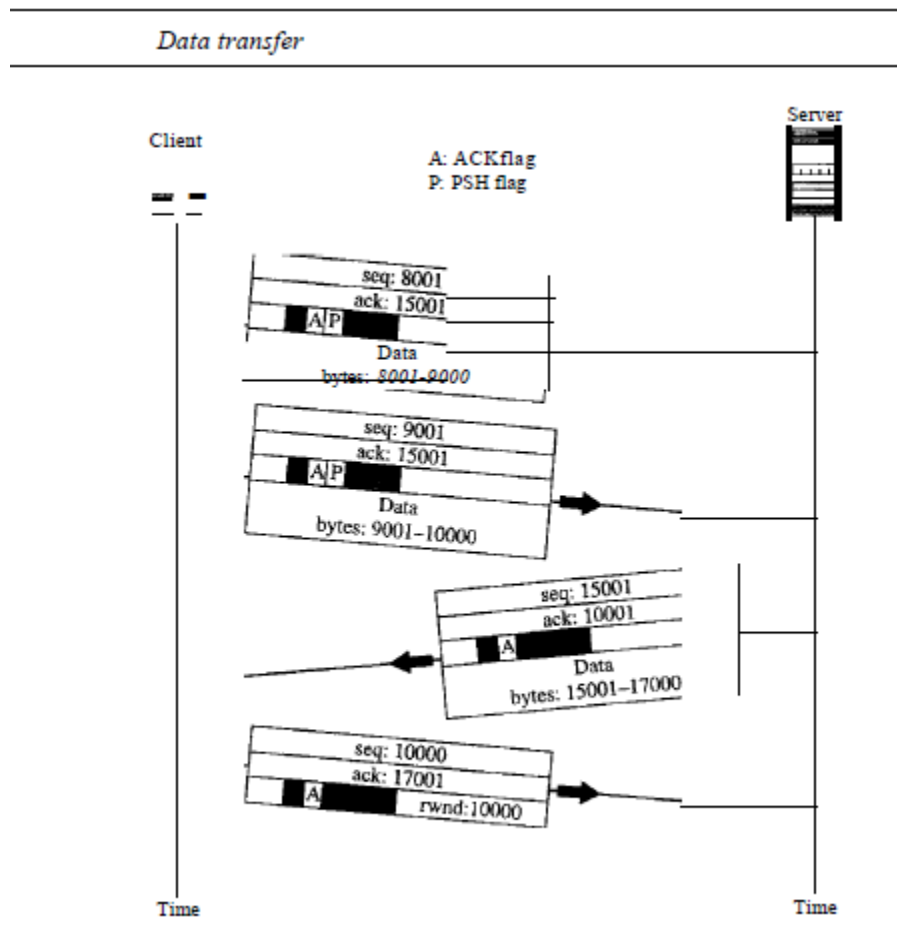


1. The client sends the first segment, a SYN segment, in which only the SYN flag is set. This segment is for synchronization of sequence numbers. It consumes one sequence number. When the data transfer starts, the sequence number is incremented by 1. SYN does not carry any data but it consumes a sequence number.
2. The server sends the second segment, a SYN +ACK segment, with 2 flag bits set: SYN and ACK. This segment has a dual purpose. It is a SYN segment for communication in the other direction and serves as the acknowledgment for the SYN segment. It consumes one sequence number.
3. The client sends the third segment. This is just an ACK segment. It acknowledges the receipt of the second segment with the ACK flag and acknowledgment number field. Note that the sequence number in this segment is the same as the one in the SYN segment; the ACK segment does not consume any sequence numbers.

**Simultaneous Open:** A rare situation, called a simultaneous open, may occur when both processes issue an active open. In this case, both TCPs transmit a SYN + ACK segment to each other, and one single connection is established between them.

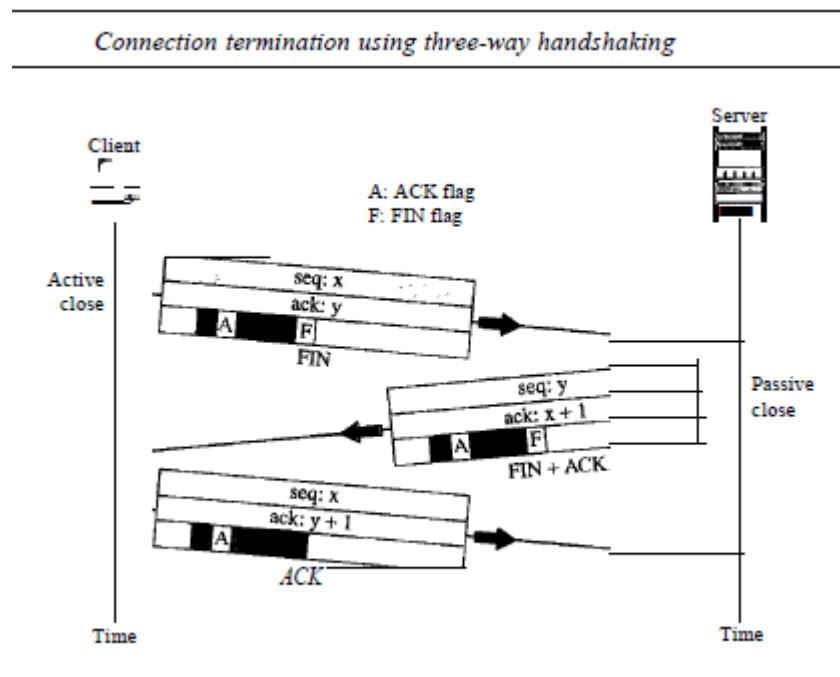


**Data Transfer:** After connection is established, bidirectional data transfer can take place. The client and server can both send data and acknowledgments. We will study the rules of acknowledgment later in the chapter; for the moment, it is enough to know that data traveling in the same direction as an acknowledgment are carried on the same segment. The acknowledgment is piggybacked with the data. Figure 23.19 shows an example. In this example, after connection is established (not shown in the figure), the client sends 2000 bytes of data in two segments. The server then sends 2000 bytes in one segment. The client sends one more segment. The first three segments carry both data and acknowledgment, but the last segment carries only an acknowledgment because there are no more data to be sent. Note the values of the sequence and acknowledgment numbers. The data segments sent by the client have the PSH (push) flag set so that the server TCP knows to deliver data to the server process as soon as they are received. We discuss the use of this flag in greater detail later. The segment from the server, on the other hand, does not set the push flag. Most TCP implementations have the option to set or not set this flag.



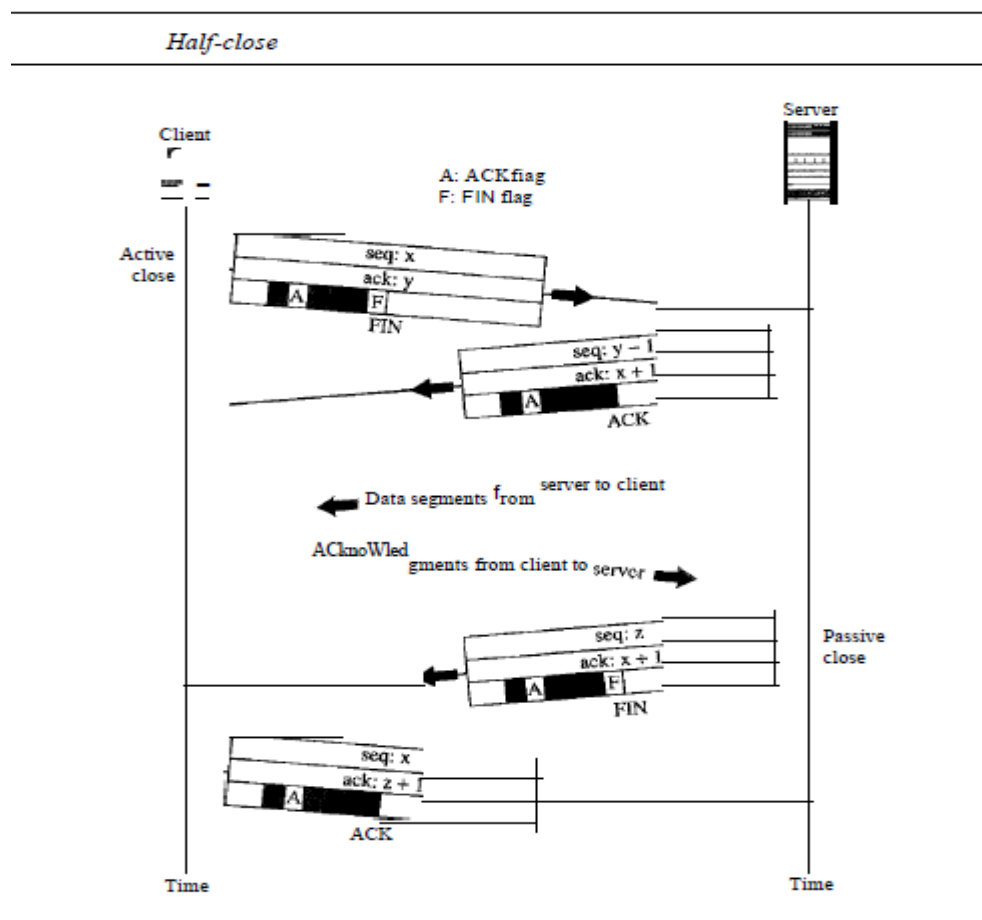
**TCP Connection Termination:** Any of the two parties involved in exchanging data (client or server) can close the connection, although it is usually initiated by the client. Most implementations today allow two options for connection termination: three-way handshaking and four-way handshaking with a half-close option.

1. In a normal situation, the client TCP, after receiving a close command from the client process, sends the first segment, a FIN segment in which the FIN flag is set. Note that a FIN segment can include the last chunk of data sent by the client, or it can be just a control segment as shown in Figure. If it is only a control segment, it consumes only one sequence number.

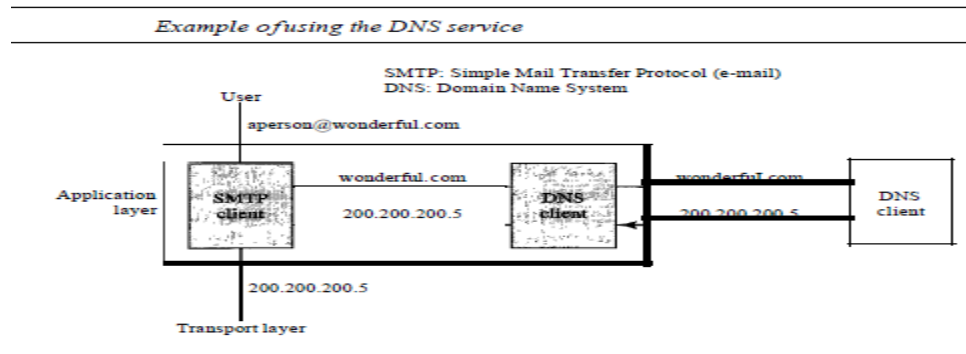


2. The server TCP, after receiving the FIN segment, informs its process of the situation and sends the second segment, a FIN +ACK segment, to confirm the receipt of the FIN segment from the client and at the same time to announce the closing of the connection in the other direction. This segment can also contain the last chunk of data from the server. If it does not carry data, it consumes only one sequence number.
3. The client TCP sends the last segment, an ACK segment, to confirm the receipt of the FIN segment from the TCP server. This segment contains the acknowledgment number, which is 1 plus the sequence number received in the FIN segment from the server. This segment cannot carry data and consumes no sequence numbers.

**Half-Close:** In TCP, one end can stop sending data while still receiving data. This is called a half-close. Although either end can issue a half-close, it is normally initiated by the client. It can occur when the server needs all the data before processing can begin. A good example is sorting. When the client sends data to the server to be sorted, the server needs to receive all the data before sorting can start. This means the client, after sending all the data, can close the connection in the outbound direction. However, the inbound direction must remain open to receive the sorted data. The server, after receiving the data, still needs time for sorting; its outbound direction must remain open. The client half-closes the connection by sending a FIN segment. The server accepts the half-close by sending the ACK segment. The data transfer from the client to the server stops. The server, however, can still send data. When the server has sent all the processed data, it sends a FIN segment, which is acknowledged by an ACK from the client. After half-closing of the connection, data can travel from the server to the client and acknowledgments can travel from the client to the server. The client cannot send any more data to the server. Note the sequence numbers we have used. The second segment (ACK) consumes no sequence number. Although the client has received sequence number  $y - 1$  and is expecting  $y$ , the server sequence number is still  $y - 1$ . When the connection finally closes, the sequence number of the last ACK segment is still  $x$ , because no sequence numbers are consumed during data transfer in that direction.



**Domain Name Space:** There are several applications in the application layer of the Internet model that follow the client/server paradigm. The client/server programs can be divided into two categories: those that can be directly used by the user, such as e-mail, and those that support other application programs. The Domain Name System (DNS) is a supporting program that is used by other programs such as e-mail. A user of an e-mail program may know the e-mail address of the recipient; however, the IP protocol needs the IP address. The DNS client program sends a request to a DNS server to map the e-mail address to the corresponding IP address.



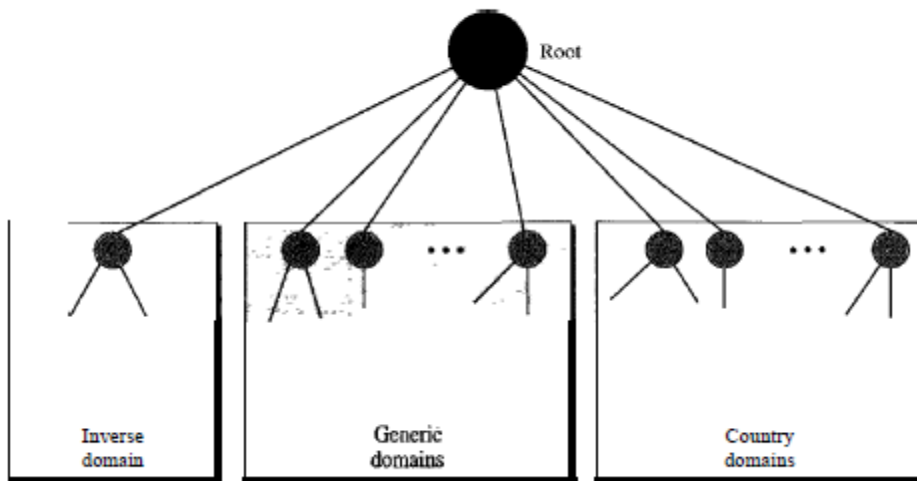
To be unambiguous, the names assigned to machines must be carefully selected from a name space with complete control over the binding between the names and IP addresses. In other words, the names must be unique because the addresses are unique. A name space that maps each address to a unique name can be organized in two ways: fiat or hierarchical.

**Flat Name Space:** In a flat name space, a name is assigned to an address. A name in this space is a sequence of characters without structure. The names may or may not have a common section; if they do, it has no meaning. The main disadvantage of a fiat name space is that it cannot be used in a large system such as the Internet because it must be centrally controlled to avoid ambiguity and duplication.

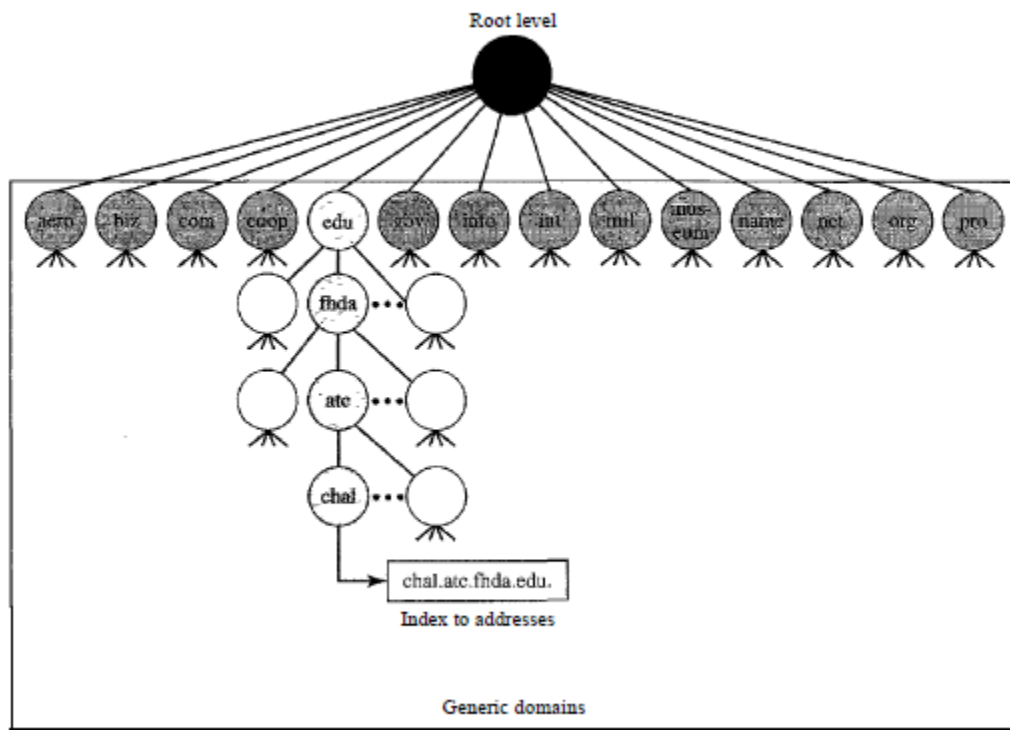
**Hierarchical Name Space:** In a hierarchical name space, each name is made of several parts. The first part can define the nature of the organization, the second part can define the name of an organization, the third part can define departments in the organization, and so on. In this case, the authority to assign and control the name spaces can be decentralized. A central authority can assign the part of the name that defines the nature of the organization and the name of the organization.

### DNS in the Internet:

**DNS** is a protocol that can be used in different platforms. In the Internet, the domain name space (tree) is divided into three different sections: generic domains, country domains, and the inverse domain.

*DNS used in the Internet*

**Generic Domains:** The generic domains define registered hosts according to their generic behavior. Each node in the tree defines a domain, which is an index to the domain name space database.

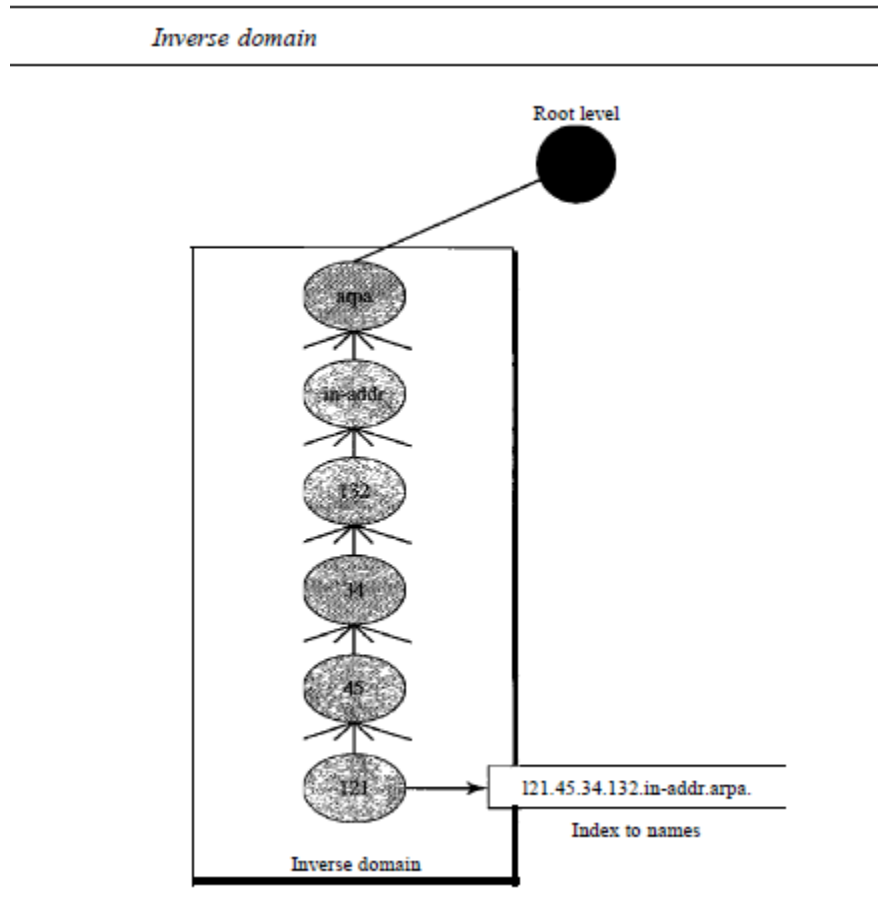
*Generic domains*

*Generic domain labels*

<i>Label</i>	<i>Description</i>
aero	Airlines and aerospace companies
biz	Businesses or firms (similar to "com")
com	Commercial organizations
coop	Cooperative business organizations
edu	Educational institutions
gov	Government institutions
info	Information service providers
int	International organizations
mil	Military groups
museum	Museums and other nonprofit organizations
name	Personal names (individuals)
net	Network support centers
org	Nonprofit organizations
pro	Professional individual organizations

**Country domains:** The country domains section uses two-character country abbreviations (e.g., us for United States). Second labels can be organizational, or they can be more specific, national designations. The United States, for example, uses state abbreviations as a subdivision of us (e.g., ca.us.).

**Inverse Domain:** The inverse domain is used to map an address to a name. This may happen, for example, when a server has received a request from a client to do a task. Although the server has a file that contains a list of authorized clients, only the IP address of the client (extracted from the received IP packet) is listed. The server asks its resolver to send a query to the DNS server to map an address to a name to determine if the client is on the authorized list. This type of query is called an inverse or pointer (PTR) query. To handle a pointer query, the inverse domain is added to the domain name space with the first-level node called arpa (for historical reasons). The second level is also one single node named in-addr (for inverse address). The rest of the domain defines IP addresses. The servers that handle the inverse domain are also hierarchical. This means the netid part of the address should be at a higher level than the subnetid part, and the subnetid part higher than the hostid part. In this way, a server serving the whole site is at a higher level than the servers serving each subnet. This configuration makes the domain look inverted when compared to a generic or country domain. To follow the convention of reading the domain labels from the bottom to the top, an IF address such as 132.34.45.121 (a class B address with netid 132.34) is read as 121.45.34.132.in-addr.arpa.



**RESOLUTION:** Mapping a name to an address or an address to a name is called name-address resolution.

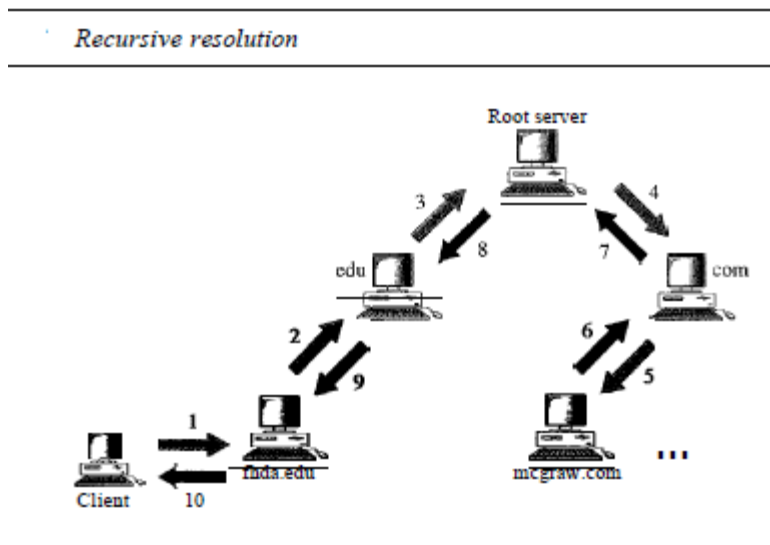
**Resolver:** DNS is designed as a client/server application. A host that needs to map an address to a name or a name to an address calls a DNS client called a resolver. The resolver accesses the closest DNS server with a mapping request. If the server has the information, it satisfies the resolver; otherwise, it either refers the resolver to other servers or asks other servers to provide the information. After the resolver receives the mapping, it interprets the response to see if it is a real resolution or an error, and finally delivers the result to the process that requested it.

**Mapping Names to Addresses:** Most of the time, the resolver gives a domain name to the server and asks for the corresponding address. In this case, the server checks the generic domains or the country domains to find the mapping. If the domain name is from the generic domains section, the resolver receives a domain name such as "chal.atc.jhda.edu.". The query is sent by the resolver to the local DNS server for resolution. If the local server cannot resolve the query, it either refers the resolver to other servers or asks other servers directly. If the domain name is from the country

domains section, the resolver receives a domain name such as "ch.jhda.cu.ca.us.". The procedure is the same.

**Mapping Addresses to Names :** A client can send an IP address to a server to be mapped to a domain name. As mentioned before, this is called a PTR query. To answer queries of this kind, DNS uses the inverse domain. However, in the request, the IP address is reversed and the two labels in-addr and arpa are appended to create a domain acceptable by the inverse domain section. For example, if the resolver receives the IF address 132.34.45.121, the resolver first inverts the address and then adds the two labels before sending. The domain name sent is "121.45.34.132.in-addr.arpa." which is received by the local DNS and resolved.

**Recursive Resolution :** The client (resolver) can ask for a recursive answer from a name server. This means that the resolver expects the server to supply the final answer. If the server is the authority for the domain name, it checks its database and responds. If the server is not the authority, it sends the request to another server (the parent usually) and waits for the response. If the parent is the authority, it responds; otherwise, it sends the query to yet another server. When the query is finally resolved, the response travels back until it finally reaches the requesting client.

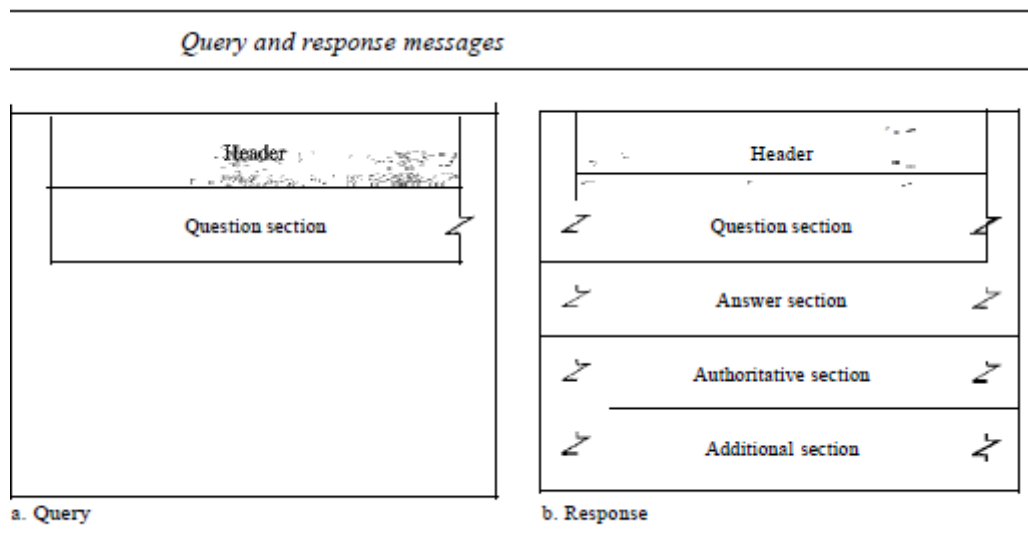


**Iterative Resolution:** If the client does not ask for a recursive answer, the mapping can be done iteratively. If the server is an authority for the name, it sends the answer. If it is not, it returns (to the client) the IP address of the server that it thinks can resolve the query. The client is responsible for repeating the query to this second server. If the newly addressed server can resolve the problem, it answers the query with the IP address; otherwise, it returns the IP address of a new server to the client. Now the client must repeat the query to the third server. This process is called iterative resolution because the client repeats the same query to multiple servers.



**DNS MESSAGES:** DNS has two types of messages: query and response. Both types have the same format. The query message consists of a header and question records; the response message consists of a header, question records, answer records, authoritative records, and additional records.

**Header:** Both query and response messages have the same header format with some fields set to zero for the query messages. The header is 12 bytes. The identification subfield is used by the client to match the response with the query. The client uses a different identification number each time it sends a query. The server duplicates this number in the corresponding response. The flags subfield is a collection of subfields that define the type of the message, the type of answer requested, the type of desired resolution (recursive or iterative), and so on. The number of question records subfield contains the number of queries in the question section of the message. The number of answer records subfield contains the number of answer records in the answer section of the response message. Its value is zero in the query message. The number of authoritative records subfield contains the number of authoritative records in the authoritative section of a response message. Its value is zero in the query message. Finally, the number of additional records subfield contains the number additional records in the additional section of a response message. Its value is zero in the query message.



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<i>Header format</i>	
Identification	Flags
Number of question records	Number of answer records (all 0s in query message)
Number of authoritative records (all 0s in query message)	Number of additional records (all 0s in query message)

---

**Question Section:** This is a section consisting of one or more question records. It is present on both query and response messages. We will discuss the question records in a following section.

**Answer Section:** This is a section consisting of one or more resource records. It is present only on response messages. This section includes the answer from the server to the client (resolver).

**Authoritative Section:** This is a section consisting of one or more resource records. It is present only on response messages. This section gives information (domain name) about one or more authoritative servers for the query.

**Additional Information Section:** This is a section consisting of one or more resource records. It is present only on response messages. This section provides additional information that may help the resolver. For example, a server may give the domain name of an authoritative server to the resolver in the authoritative section, and include the IP address of the same authoritative server in the additional information section.

**TYPES OF RECORDS:** There are two types of records are used in DNS. The question records are used in the question section of the query and response messages. The resource records are used in the answer, authoritative, and additional information sections of the response message.

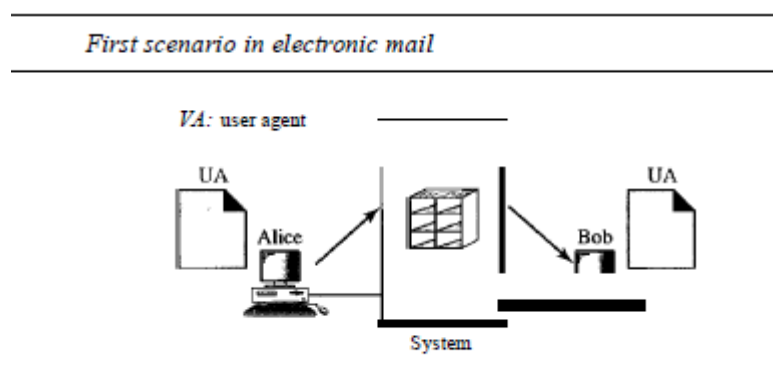
**Question Record:** A question record is used by the client to get information from a server. This contains the domain name.

**Resource Record:** Each domain name (each node on the tree) is associated with a record called the resource record. The server database consists of resource records. Resource records are also what is returned by the server to the client.

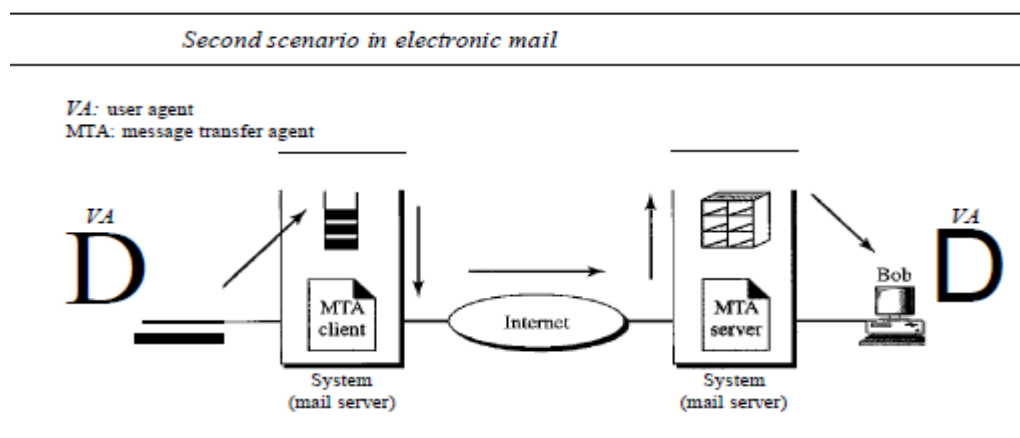
**E-Mail:** One of the most popular Internet services is electronic mail (e-mail). The designers of the Internet probably never imagined the popularity of this application program. At the beginning of the Internet era, the messages sent by electronic mail were short and consisted of text only; they let people exchange quick memos. Today, electronic mail is much more complex. It allows a message to include text, audio, and video. It also allows one message to be sent to one or more recipients. The general architecture of an e-mail system including the three main components: user agent, message transfer agent, and message access agent.

**Architecture:** To explain the architecture of e-mail, there are four scenarios.

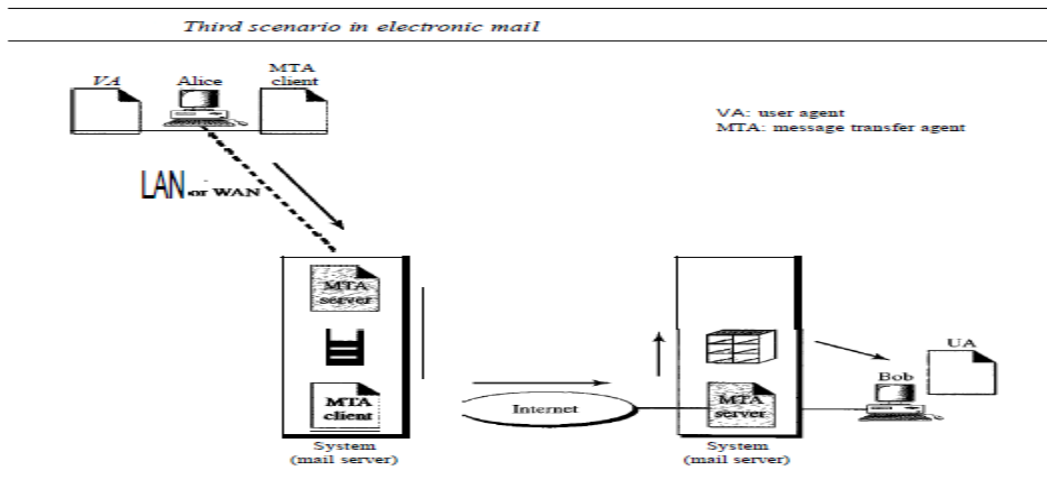
**First Scenario:** In the first scenario, the sender and the receiver of the e-mail are users (or application programs) on the same system; they are directly connected to a shared system. The administrator has created one mailbox for each user where the received messages are stored. A mailbox is part of a local hard drive, a special file with permission restrictions. Only the owner of the mailbox has access to it.



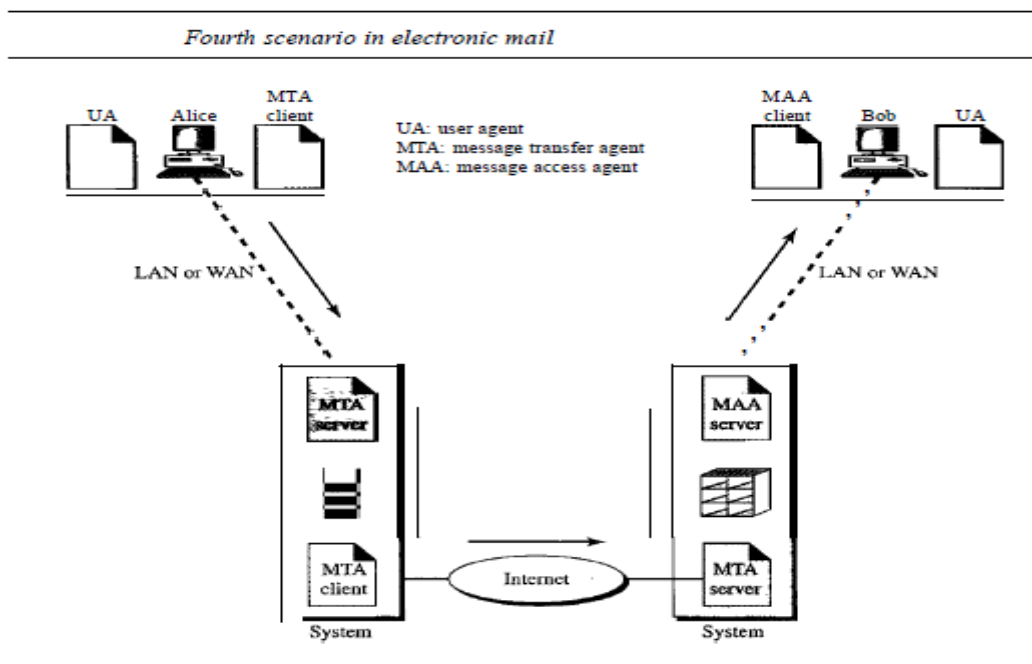
**Second Scenario:** In the second scenario, the sender and the receiver of the e-mail are users (or application programs) on two different systems. The message needs to be sent over the Internet. Here we need user agents (VAs) and message transfer agents (MTAs).



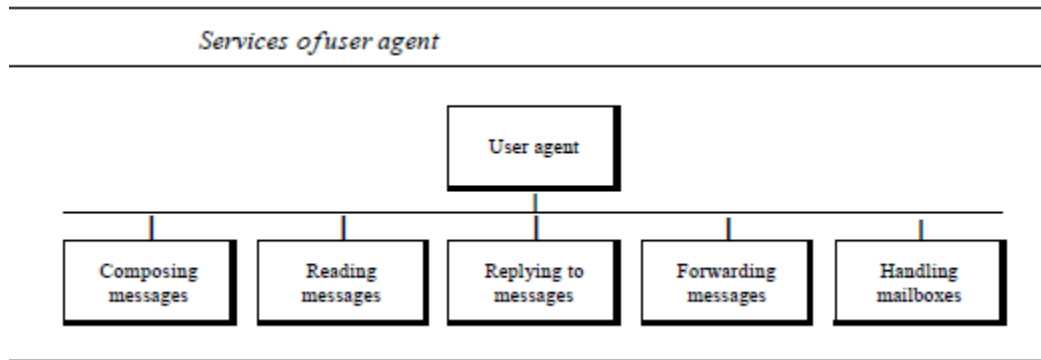
**Third Scenario:** In the third scenario, Bob, as in the second scenario, is directly connected to his system. Alice, however, is separated from her system. Either Alice is connected to the system via a point-to-point WAN, such as a dial-up modem, a DSL, or a cable modem; or she is connected to a LAN in an organization that uses one mail server for handling e-mails-all users need to send their messages to this mail server.



**Fourth Scenario :** In the fourth and most common scenario, Bob is also connected to his mail server by a WAN or a LAN. After the message has arrived at Bob's mail server, Bob needs to retrieve it. Here, we need another set of client/server agents, which we call message access agents (MAAs). Bob uses an MAA client to retrieve his messages. The client sends a request to the MAA server, which is running all the time, and requests the transfer of the messages.



**User Agent:** The first component of an electronic mail system is the user agent (VA). It provides service to the user to make the process of sending and receiving a message easier. A user agent is a software package (program) that composes, reads, replies to, and forwards messages. It also handles mailboxes.



**Composing Messages:** A user agent helps the user compose the e-mail message to be sent out. Most user agents provide a template on the screen to be filled in by the user. Some even have a built-in editor that can do spell checking, grammar checking, and other tasks expected from a sophisticated word processor. A user, of course, could alternatively use his or her favorite text editor or word processor to create the message and import it, or cut and paste it, into the user agent template.

**Reading Messages:** The second duty of the user agent is to read the incoming messages. When a user invokes a user agent, it first checks the mail in the incoming mailbox. Most user agents show a one-line summary of each received mail. Each e-mail contains the following fields.

1. A number field.
2. A flag field that shows the status of the mail such as new, already read but not replied to, or read and replied to.
3. The size of the message.
4. The sender.
5. The optional subject field.

**Replying to Messages:** After reading a message, a user can use the user agent to reply to a message. A user agent usually allows the user to reply to the original sender or to reply to all recipients of the message. The reply message may contain the original message (for quick reference) and the new message.

**Forwarding Messages:** Replying is defined as sending a message to the sender or recipients of the copy. Forwarding is defined as sending the message to a third party. A user agent allows the receiver to forward the message, with or without extra comments, to a third party.

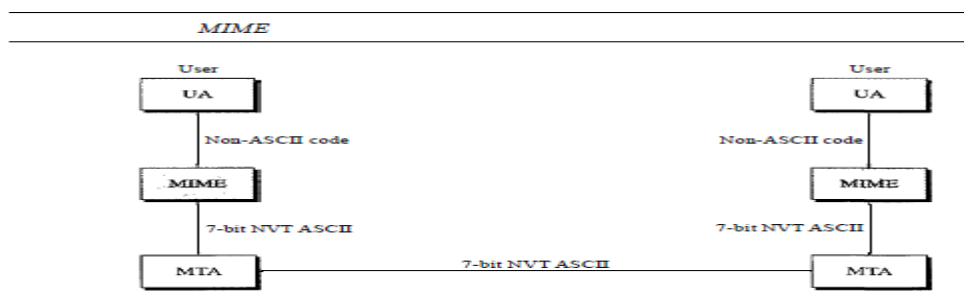
**Handling Mailboxes:** A user agent normally creates two mailboxes: an inbox and an outbox. Each box is a file with a special format that can be handled by the user agent. The inbox keeps all the received e-mails until they are deleted by the user. The outbox keeps all the sent e-mails until the user deletes them. Most user agents today are capable of creating customized mailboxes.

**User Agent Types:** There are two types of user agents: command-driven and GUI-based.

**Command-Driven:** Command-driven user agents belong to the early days of electronic mail. They are still present as the underlying user agents in servers. Some examples of command-driven user agents are mail, pine, and elm.

**GUI-Based:** Modern user agents are GUI-based. They contain graphical-user interface (GUI) components that allow the user to interact with the software by using both the keyboard and the mouse. Some examples of GUI-based user agents are Eudora, Microsoft's Outlook, and Netscape.

**MIME :** Electronic mail has a simple structure. Its simplicity, however, comes at a price. It can send messages only in NVT 7-bit ASCII format. In other words, it has some limitations. For example, it cannot be used for languages that are not supported by 7-bit ASCII characters (such as French, German, Hebrew, Russian, Chinese, and Japanese). Also, it cannot be used to send binary files or video or audio data. Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions (MIME) is a supplementary protocol that allows non-ASCII data to be sent through e-mail. MIME transforms non-ASCII data at the sender site to NVT ASCII data and delivers them to the client MTA to be sent through the Internet. The message at the receiving side is transformed back to the original data. We can think of MIME as a set of software functions that transforms non-ASCII data (stream of bits) to ASCII data and vice versa

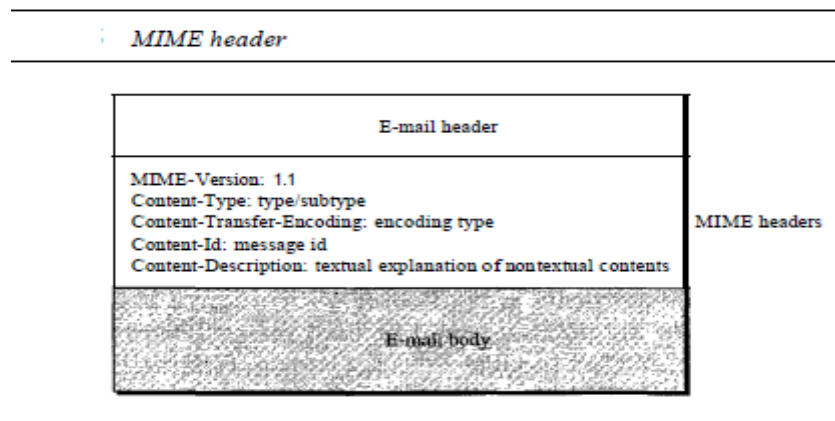


MIME defines five headers that can be added to the original e-mail header section to define the transformation parameters:

1. MIME-Version
2. Content-Type
3. Content-Transfer-Encoding

## 4. Content-Id

## 5. Content-Description



**MIME-Version:** This header defines the version of MIME used. The current version is 1.1.

**Content-Type:** This header defines the type of data used in the body of the message. The content type and the content subtype are separated by a slash. Depending on the subtype, the header may contain other parameters.

MIME allows seven different types of data.

*Data types and subtypes in MIME*

Type	Subtype	Description
Text	Plain	Unformatted
	HTML	HTML format (see Chapter 27)
Multipart	Mixed	Body contains ordered parts of different data types
	Parallel	Same as above, but no order
	Digest	Similar to mixed subtypes, but the default is message/RFC822
	Alternative	Parts are different versions of the same message
Message	RFC822	Body is an encapsulated message
	Partial	Body is a fragment of a bigger message
	External-Body	Body is a reference to another message
Image	IPEG	Image is in IPEG format
	GIF	Image is in GIF format
Video	MPEG	Video is in MPEG format
Audio	Basic	Single-channel encoding of voice at 8 kHz
Application	PostScript	Adobe PostScript
	Octet-stream	General binary data (8-bit bytes)

**Content-Transfer-Encoding:** This header defines the method used to encode the messages into Os and Is for transport:

*Content-transfer-encoding*

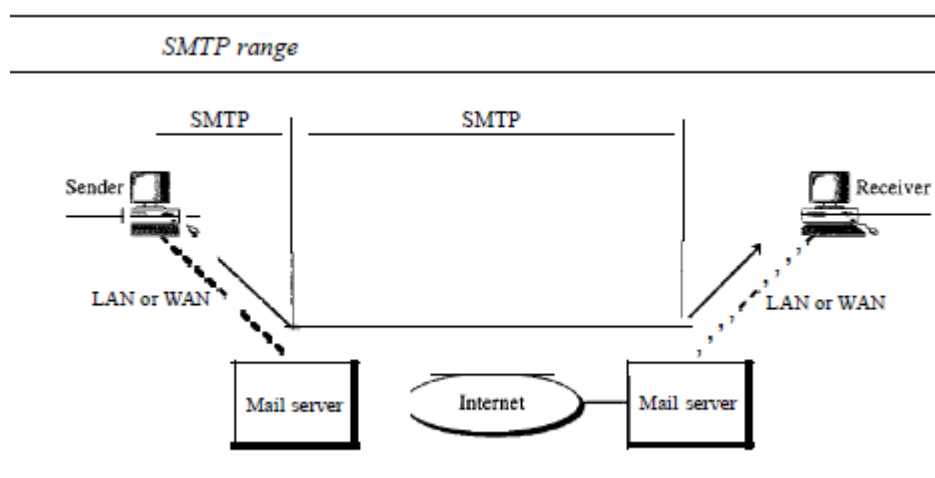
<i>Type</i>	<i>Description</i>
7-bit	NVT ASCII characters and short lines
8-bit	Non-ASCII characters and short lines
Binary	Non-ASCII characters with unlimited-length lines
Base-64	6-bit blocks of data encoded into 8-bit ASCII characters
Quoted-printable	Non-ASCII characters encoded as an equals sign followed by an ASCII code

**Content-Id:** This header uniquely identifies the whole message in a multiple-message environment.

**Content-Description:** This header defines whether the body is image, audio, or video.

Content-Description: <description>

**Message Transfer Agent: SMTP:** The actual mail transfer is done through message transfer agents. To send mail, a system must have the client MTA, and to receive mail, a system must have a server MTA. The formal protocol that defines the MTA client and server in the Internet is called the Simple Mail Transfer Protocol (SMTP). As we said before, two pairs of MTA client/server programs are used in the most common situation (fourth scenario).

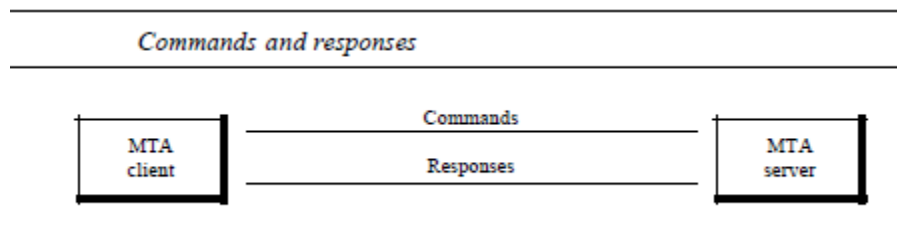


SMTP is used two times, between the sender and the sender's mail server and between the two mail servers. As we will see shortly, another protocol is needed between the



mail server and the receiver. SMTP simply defines how commands and responses must be sent back and forth. Each network is free to choose a software package for implementation. We discuss the mechanism of mail transfer by SMTP in the remainder of the section.

**Commands and Responses:** SMTP uses commands and responses to transfer messages between an MTA client and an MTA server.



**Commands:** Commands are sent from the client to the server. It consists of a keyword followed by zero or more arguments. SMTP defines 14 commands. The first five are mandatory; every implementation must support these five commands. The next three are often used and highly recommended. The last six are seldom used.

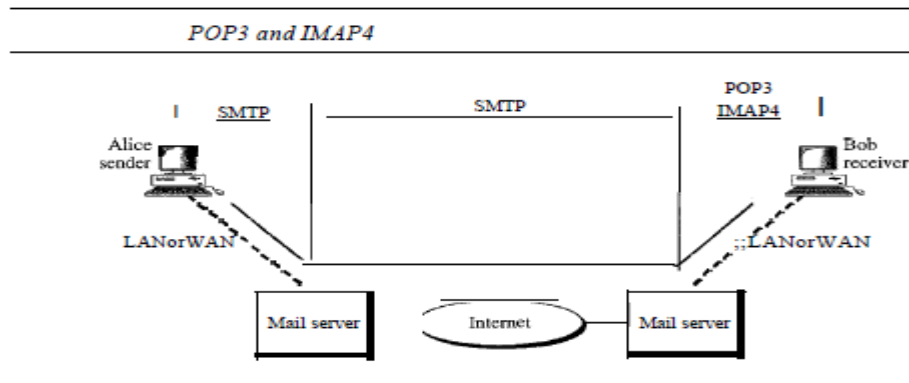
*Commands*

<i>Keyword</i>	<i>Argument(s)</i>
HELO	Sender's host name
MAIL FROM	Sender of the message
RCPT TO	Intended recipient of the message
DATA	Body of the mail
QUIT	
RSET	
VERFY	Name of recipient to be verified
NOOP	
TURN	
EXPN	Mailing list to be expanded
HELP	Command name
<i>Keyword</i>	<i>Argument(s)</i>
SEND FROM	Intended recipient of the message
SMOLFROM	Intended recipient of the message
SMALFROM	Intended recipient of the message

**Responses:** Responses are sent from the server to the client. A response is a three digit code that may be followed by additional textual information.

Positive Completion Reply	
211	System status or help reply
214	Help message
220	Service ready
221	Service closing transmission channel
250	Request command completed
251	User not local; the message will be forwarded
Positive Intermediate Reply	
354	Start mail input
Transient Negative Completion Reply	
421	Service not available
450	Mailbox not available
451	Command aborted: local error
452	Command aborted: insufficient storage
Permanent Negative Completion Reply	
500	Syntax error; unrecognized command
501	Syntax error in parameters or arguments
502	Command not implemented
503	Bad sequence of commands
504	Command temporarily not implemented
550	Command is not executed; mailbox unavailable
551	User not local
552	Requested action aborted; exceeded storage location
553	Requested action not taken; mailbox name not allowed
554	Transaction failed

**Message Access Agent: POP and IMAP :** The first and the second stages of mail delivery use SMTP. However, SMTP is not involved in the third stage because SMTP is a push protocol; it pushes the message from the client to the server. In other words, the direction of the bulk: data (messages) is from the client to the server. On the other hand, the third stage needs a pull protocol; the client must pull messages from the server. The direction of the bulk data is from the server to the client. The third stage uses a message access agent. Currently two message access protocols are available: Post Office Protocol, version 3 (POP3) and Internet Mail Access Protocol, version 4 (IMAP4).



**POP3:** Post Office Protocol, version 3 (POP3) is simple and limited in functionality. The client POP3 software is installed on the recipient computer; the server POP3 software is installed on the mail server. Mail access starts with the client when the user needs to download e-mail from the mailbox on the mail server. The client opens a connection to the server on TCP port 110. It then sends its user name and password to access the mailbox. The user can then list and retrieve the mail messages, one by one. Figure 26.20 shows an example of downloading using POP3.

**IMAP4:** Another mail access protocol is Internet Mail Access Protocol, version 4 (IMAP4). IMAP4 is similar to POP3, but it has more features; IMAP4 is more powerful and more complex.

POP3 is deficient in several ways. It does not allow the user to organize her mail on the server; the user cannot have different folders on the server. (Of course, the user can create folders on her own computer.) In addition, POP3 does not allow the user to partially check the contents of the mail before downloading.

IMAP4 provides the following extra functions:

- o A user can check the e-mail header prior to downloading.
- o A user can search the contents of the e-mail for a specific string of characters prior to downloading.
- o A user can partially download e-mail. This is especially useful if bandwidth is limited and the e-mail contains multimedia with high bandwidth requirements.
- o A user can create, delete, or rename mailboxes on the mail server.
- o A user can create a hierarchy of mailboxes in a folder for e-mail storage.