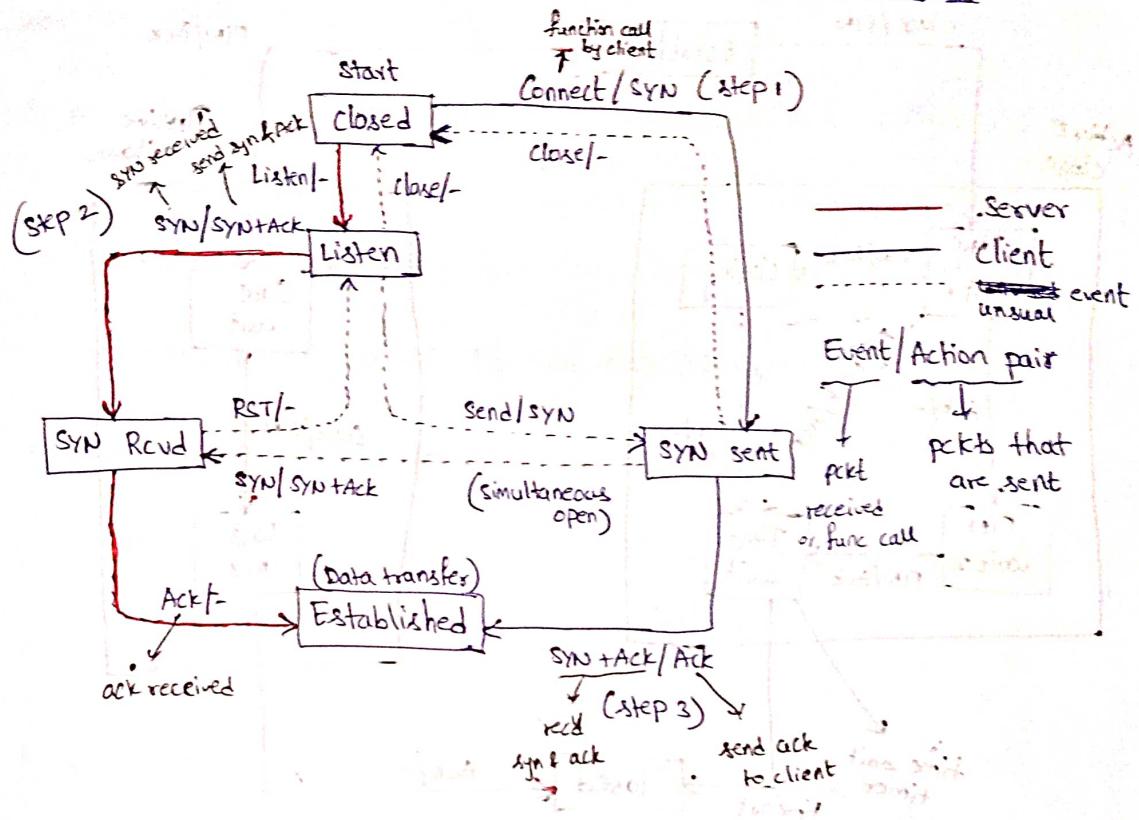


A decorative banner featuring large, bold, red letters spelling out "INDEX". The letters are stacked in a staggered arrangement, with each letter having a thin white border. The letters are positioned above a horizontal line of small, faint yellow stars.

NAME: K-Growtham STD.: \_\_\_\_\_ SEC.: \_\_\_\_\_ ROLL NO.: \_\_\_\_\_ SUB.: \_\_\_\_\_

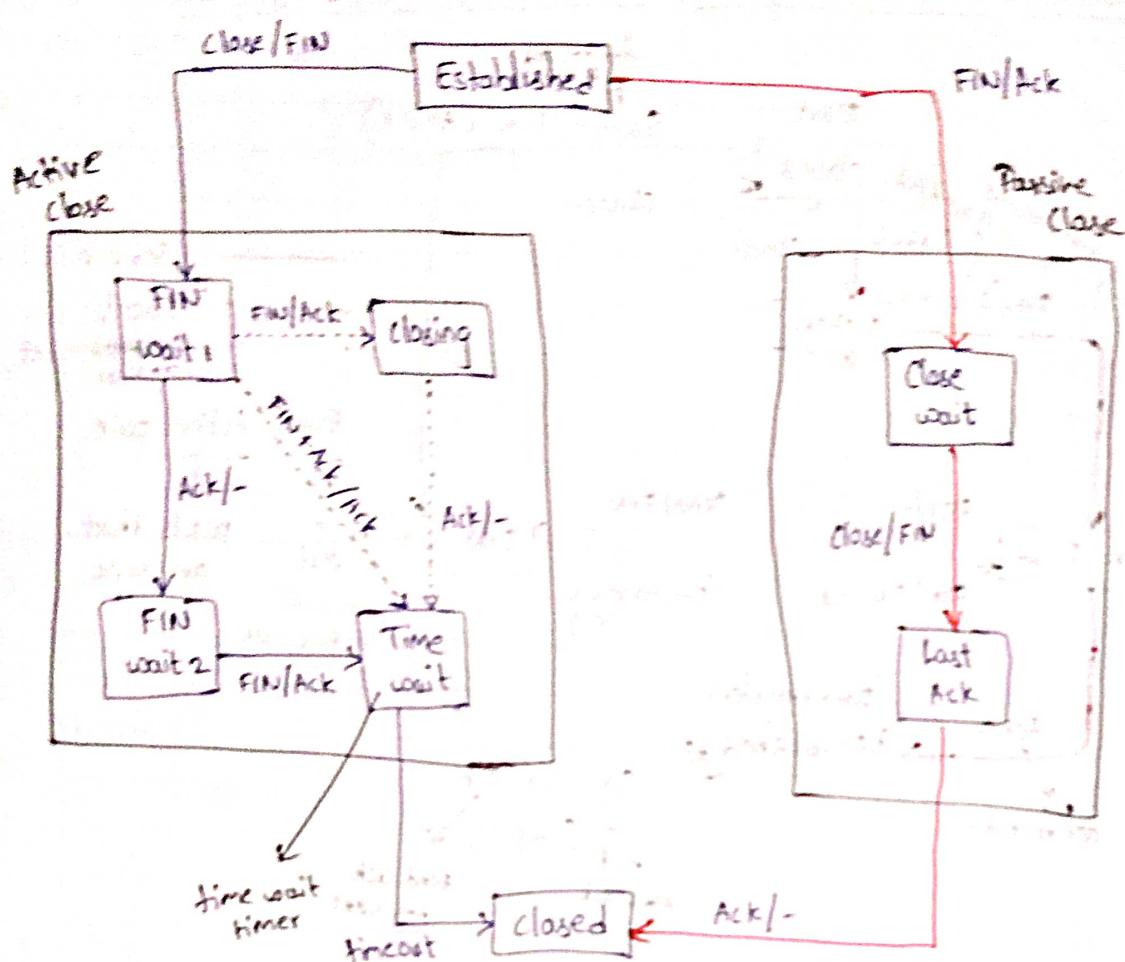
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## TCP State transition diagram: Connection Establishment

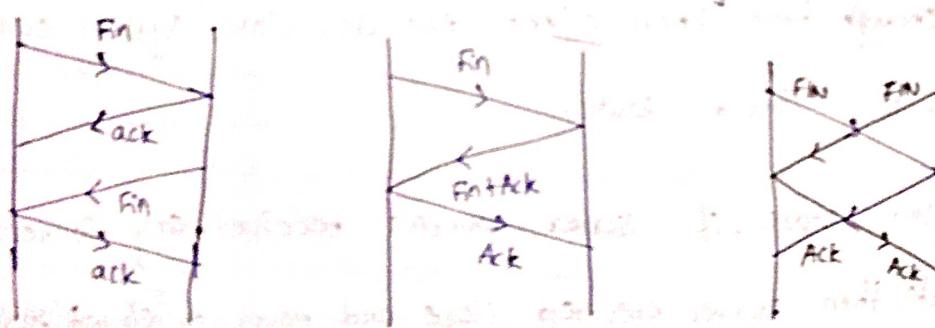


- At "syn sent" state, if client doesn't receive (SYN + ACK) for long enough time, then client executes close system call and moves to "closed" state.
- At "Listen" state, if server doesn't receive any connection requests then server executed close and moves to "closed" state.
- At "SYN RCVD", if server finds any problem, it calls ~~exit~~ and terminates the connection.
- Sometimes server may initiate connection. In this case server at "Listen" state sends SYN. Then client at "syn sent" sends (SYN + ACK) on receiving SYN from server. This is called Simultaneous open as both server & client wants to open connection at same time.

## TCP state transition diagram: Connection Termination



Termination of a connection may happen in any of below way



Both **FIN + Ack** are sent at time by server

Both **client** & **server** sends **FIN** at a time

All the above cases are shown in the transition diagram.

UDP

→ Need for some app when connect

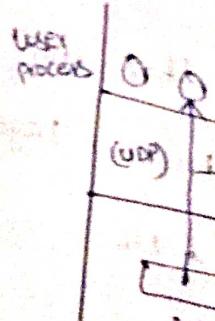
Eg: DNS

\* Broadcast  
group of host with same w

\* Some ap

using which

Eg: H



→ UDP header urgent pointer

## UDP (Null Protocol)

→ Need for UDP:

Some

- \* ~~In~~ applications ~~that~~ need one request & one reply.

when we need only one request & one reply, the connection establishment, connection termination are overheads

Eg: DNS, BOOTP, DHCP, Routing algorithms (for sharing DV)

- \* Broadcasting & Multicasting applications.

Here if we use TCP, we need to establish connection with each host and reserve buffers for each connection.

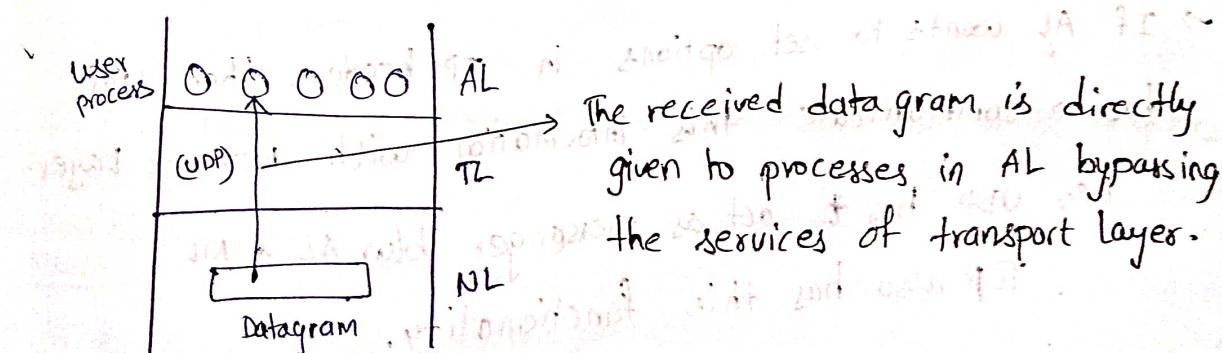
: we use UDP.

- \* Some applications require speed than reliability.

Using TCP applies end to end congestion control due to which speed fluctuates.

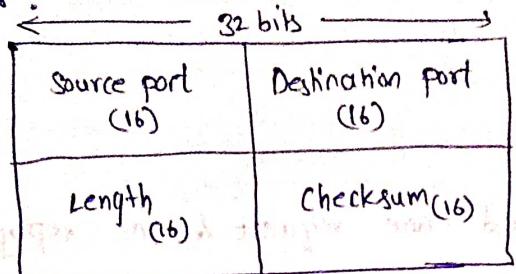
Eg: Multimedia applications (watching videos)

Online Gaming etc..



→ UDP header doesn't need seq num, ack, window size, flags, urgent pointer, options. ∵ no flow control

### UDP header:



Header size = 8 bytes

UDP has fixed header size

length: length of datagram, including header

Checksum: Checksum is computed on UDP header, UDP data, per pseudo header of IP.

→ Since UDP is unreliable, checksum may not be used.

when checksum is not used it is set to (000...0)

→ However, if the computed checksum itself is 000...0

then we store 111...1 in checksum.

Checksum is stored in 1's complement form.

∴ If 0 is represented as 000...0 ⇒ checksum not used

0 is represented as 111...1 ⇒ checksum is used

### Other functionalities of UDP:

→ If AL wants to set options in IP header, then UDP has to communicate this information with Network Layer.

i.e., UDP has to act as messenger b/w AL & NL

TCP also has this functionality.

→ ICMP pkts received at IP has to be informed to AL through UDP

Hardware

→ 2 types

Base

only

i.e.

be

at

: No

→ The wires

Wires

\*

\*

blocks

\*

The third

Wires

i.e.,

∴ be

Note:

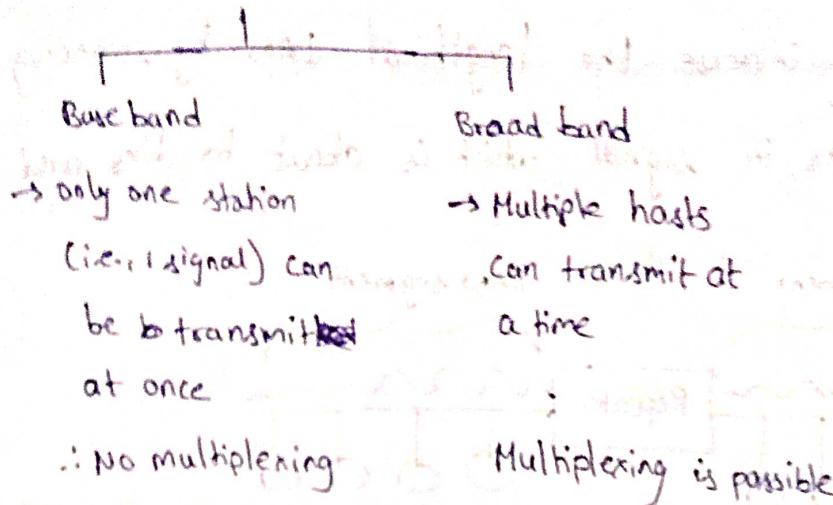
(i) All these

(ii) Attenuation

(iii) Collisions

## Hardware and other devices used in Networking

→ 2 types of channels



→ The wires come in different types. Few are shown below.

\* 10 Base T (10 Mbps, No multiplexing, 100m)

\* 10 Base 2 (10 Mbps, " " " , 200m)

\* 10 Base 5 (" " " , 500m)

\* 100 Base T (100 Mbps, " " " , 100m)

→ The third field is distance for which the wire can run.  
i.e., It is max distance for which signal can be transmitted without attenuation.

i. Long LAN Segment with 10 Base T can range only for 100 m  
↳ LAN connected to one wire

Note:

(i) All these wires operate at PL.

(ii) Attenuation is possible for all types of wires and cables.

(iii) Collisions are possible.

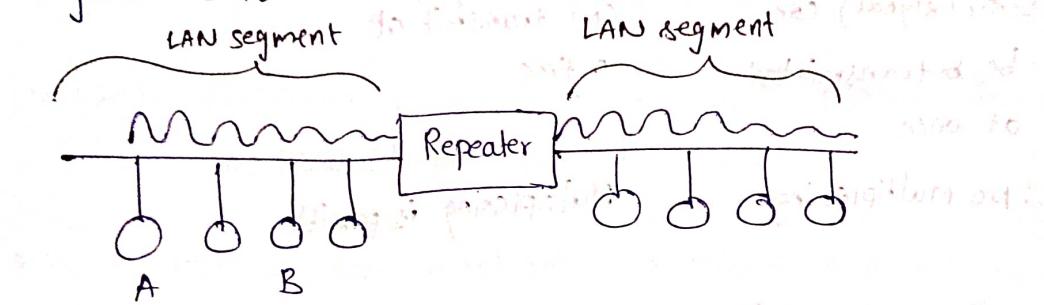
Collision Domain is n.

i.e., no of stations involving in collision

Here length of LAN depends on the type of wire.

### Repeater:

- This is used to increase the length of LAN by connecting 2 LAN segments.
- Repeater takes in signal which is about to die, and regenerates it



- Even if A want to send data to B, repeater still sends data to other side. i.e., It will not filter data.
- The LAN segments connected to repeater must be of same type. i.e., both should be ethernet or both should be token ring.
- Repeater is different from amplifier. Amplifier increases the amplitude whereas repeater just regenerate the original signal.



- Repeater runs at PL (Point of between wires)  
i.e., repeater is purely hardware.
- Collisions are possible in repeater and hence all the stations in the network are in one collision domain.  
∴ Repeater doesn't reduce collision domain. i.e., no

Hub:

- Hub is
- For example

Here

we

∴ To

→ HUB has

→ Collision

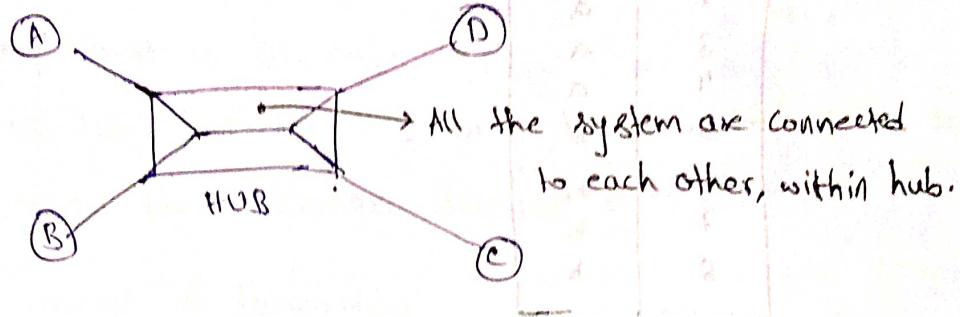
Adv: Hub

Bridge:

- Bridge is
- (Repeater)
- If a b
- Also the
- i.e.,
- Bridge o

## Hub:

- Hub is a multi-port repeater.
- For example, a 4-port hub can connect 4 stations.



Here if B needs to transmit a pkts to A, the pkts will be transmitted to every station  
 $\therefore$  Traffic is very high.

- Hub has only PL.
- Collision are possible inside hub.

$$\text{Collision Domain} = n$$

$\therefore$  Hub doesn't decrease collision Domain.

Adv: Hub is cheaper.

## Bridge:

- Bridge is used to connect 2 LANs of different types.

(Repeater connects 2 LAN segments of same LAN)

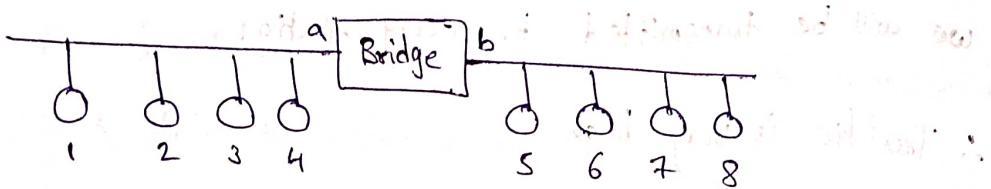
- If a bridge has  $n$  ports, then it can connect  $n$  LANs.
- Also the 2 LANs connected by bridge may be different i.e., one may be ethernet and other may be token ring.
- Bridge operates at PL & DLL.

- Since bridge works at DLL, it can look in MAC address.
- Every bridge has a forwarding table.

→ But dynamic host which h  
→ Bridge is

MAC	Port
1	a
2	a
3	a
4	a
5	b
6	b
7	b
8	b

Forwarding Table of Bridge



## Bridges

- └ Static Bridges
- └ Dynamic / Learning / Transparent bridge.

### Static Bridge :

- Here the forwarding table is static and whenever we need to make a change in the network we need to change the table manually.

### Dynamic Bridge :

- Here bridge will learn the MAC & port of a station.
- Whenever a station transmits data, the data reaches bridge and thus bridge will understand the MAC of the station and puts an entry in the forwarding table.

→ Bridge is cap

since

### Problems with

- If we co

bridges,

table is

Now if

sent PC

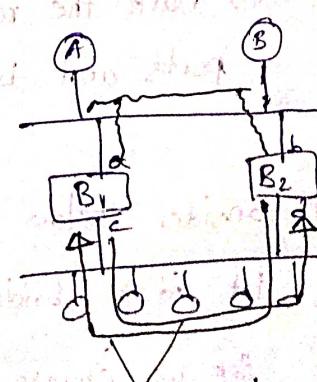
Another

with

a to

- MAC address<sup>16</sup>
- But dynamic bridge never knows the MAC address of a host which has never transmitted any data.
  - Bridge is capable of filtering. (i.e. Bridge has DLL)
    - i.e. It sends a pkt to LAN after that in which the req host is present.
    - If the dest host is present in the N/w of sender, then bridge discards the pkt.
  - Bridge is capable of forwarding.
    - i.e. sending data from one N/w to other N/w.
  - If a bridge doesn't know where the destination is present, then it floods the pkt.
  - ∴ Bridge is capable of Flooding.
  - Bridge is capable of Store & Forward.
    - since it can store, collisions between hosts of diff N/w are not possible.
    - ∴ Collision Domain is reduced.

### Problems with bridges

- If we connect two langs using bridges, and assume initially forwarding table is empty.
  - Now if A send data to B, this sent pkt is fall in infinite loop.
  - Another problem is that port of A for B, with this keeps on changing from a to c & c to a.
- 

→ If MTU of LANs connected is different, then bridges cannot do the job of fragmentation.

So the fact that bridges can connect different types of N/w is ~~more~~ theoretical but not much practical.

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### Spanning Tree Algorithm

→ This algorithm is used to avoid infinite loop that pkts fall into, when two LANs are connected by more than one bridge.

Algo:

i) Every bridge has a built-in ID. The one with smallest ID is taken as root bridge.

ii) Mark one port of each bridge which is closest to root bridge as root port.

iii) Every LAN chooses a bridge closest to it as a designated bridge for that LAN. make the corresponding port as designated port.

iv) Mark the root port and designated port as forwarding ports and block remaining.

Eg: Consider below N/w with 4 LANs and 5 bridges.

let id of bridge  $B_i$  be  $i$ .

so we choose  $B_1$  as root bridge.

→ Here closest is defined with some cost parameters.

Here we consider no of hops

root  
bridge

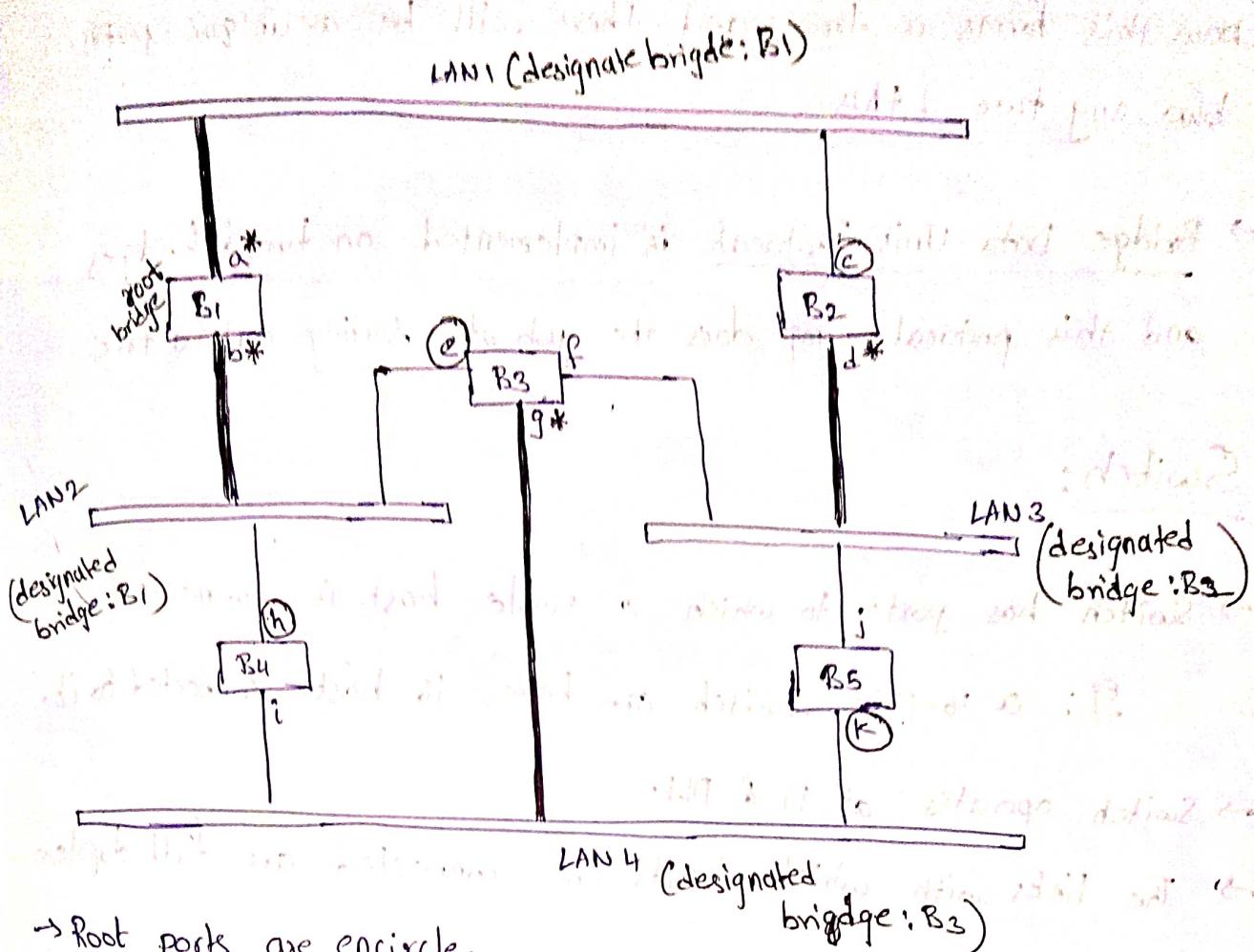
LAN 2  
(designated  
bridge:  $B_1$ )

→ Root port

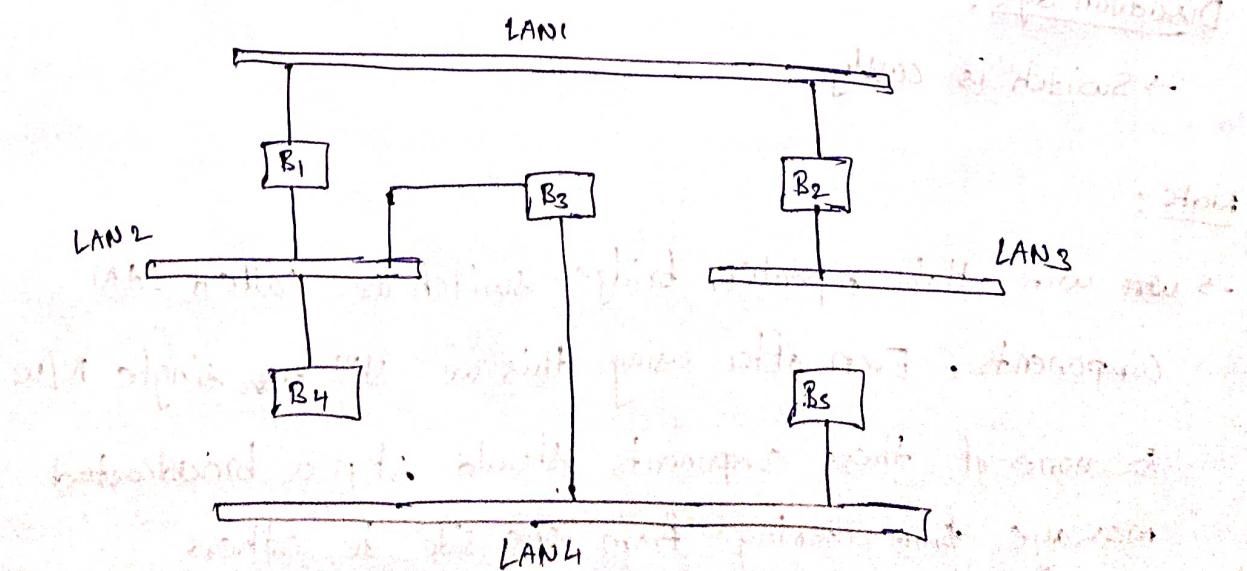
→ When to  
choose

→ Now we  
and block

LAN 2



- Root ports are encircled.
- When there is a conflict in choosing designated bridge, choose the bridge with least id.
- (thick line) → line that connects LAN's designated port (\*)
- Now we use root port & designated ports as forwarding port and block remaining



Now this forms a tree and there will be a unique path  
b/w any two LANs.

→ Bridge Data Unit Protocol is implemented on ~~bridges~~ bridges  
and this protocol ~~is~~ does the job of sorting out a tree

### Switch:

→ Switch has ports to which a single host is connected.

Eg: a 16-port switch can have 16 host connected to it.

→ Switch operates at PL & DLL.

→ The links with which hosts are connected are full duplex  
links.

→ Switch is designed in such a way that it can allow  
more than one communication occur at a time.

Switch can forward pkt to crct host. (∴ it has DLL)

→ ∴ No collisions are possible using a switch.

Collision Domain = 0.

→ Traffic is less with switch.

### Disadvantage:

→ Switch is costly.

### Note:

→ ~~wire~~ wire, Hub, repeater, bridge, switch are called LAN  
components. Even after using this we still have single N/W.  
So none of these components should stop a broadcasted  
message from entering from one side to other.

### Router:

→ Router

→ Rout



→ Router

i.e.

→ Router

→ Rout

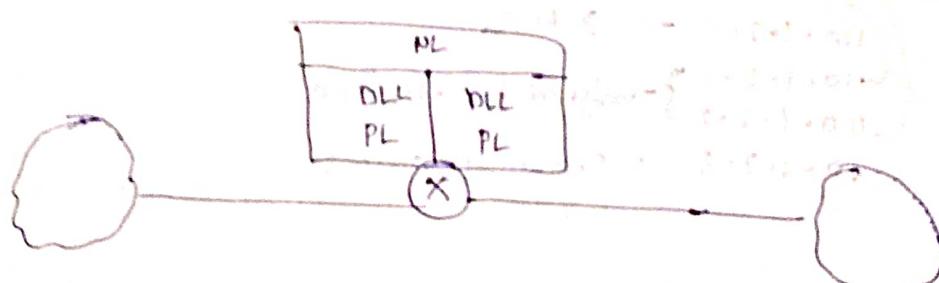
→ Wo co

These components doesn't change broadcast domain.

	Broadcast Domain	Collision Domain
Repeater	Same	Same
Hubs	Same	Same
Bridge	Same	reduces
Switch	Same	reduces
Routers	reduces	reduces
Gateway	reduces	reduces

### Router:

- Router is a device used to connect 2 networks of same type.
- Router has PL, DLL, NL

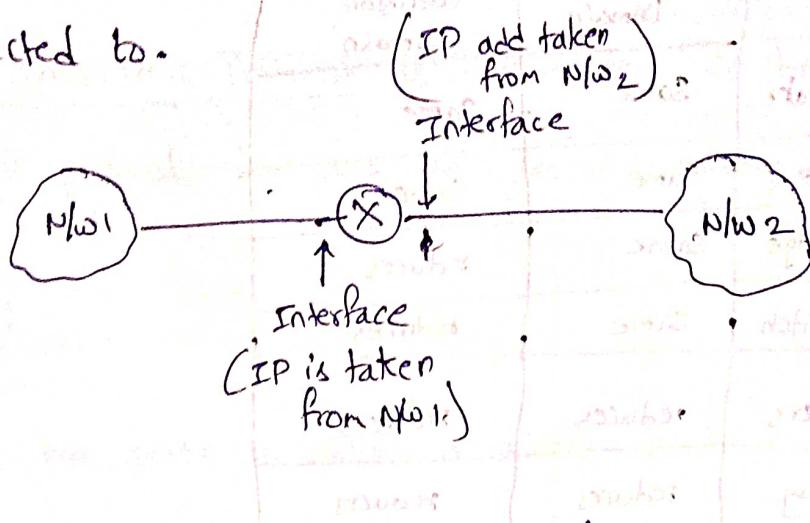


- Router does the job of filtering
  - i.e., broadcast, BOOTP, DHCP, ARP etc. are discarded and no are not let to cross other networks.

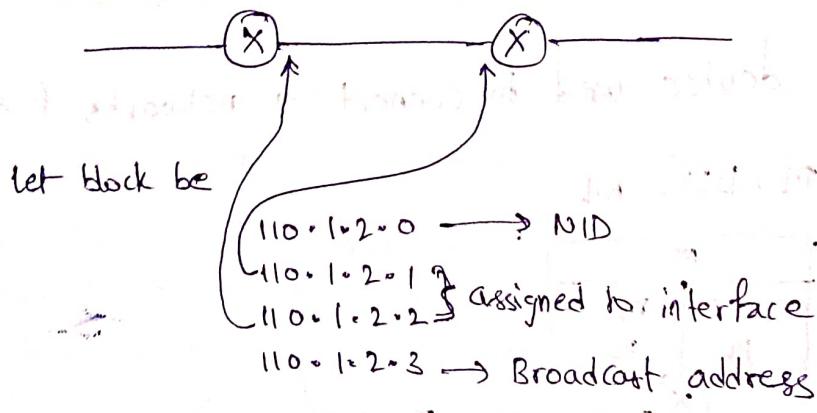
- Router can store & forward.
- Router can do flooding/routing.
- No collision are possible within a router.

→ Every interface of router has an IP address.

The IP address is taken from ~~one~~ the N/w that router is connected to.



→ However if two routers are connected, then we need to ~~buy~~ buy a block of IP add of size 4.



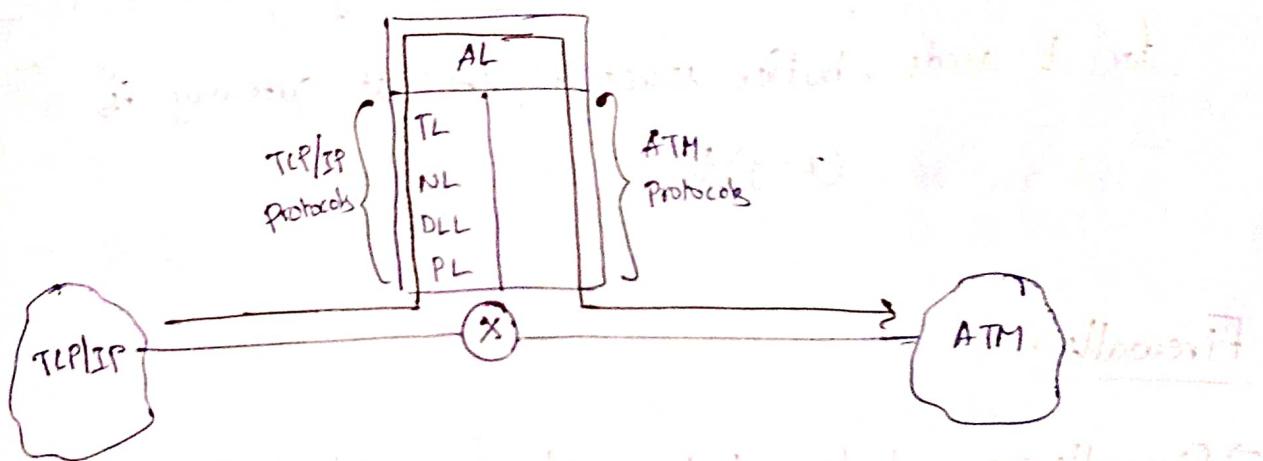
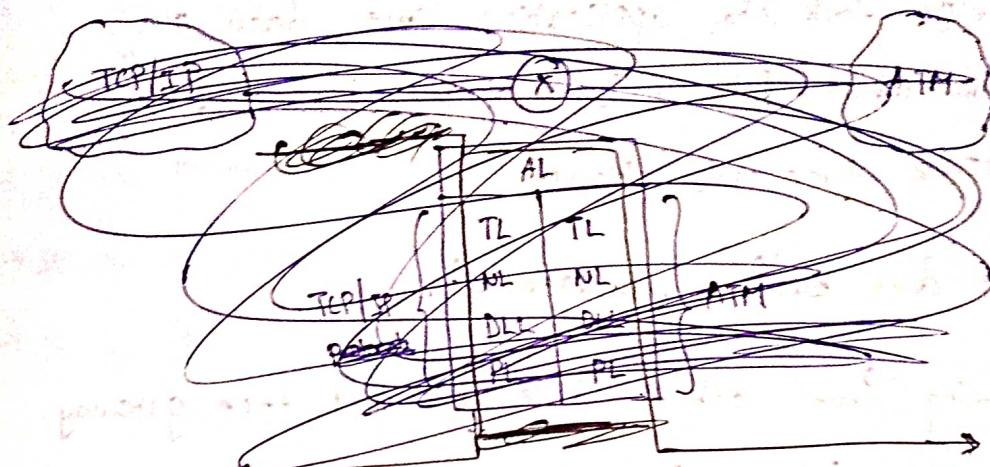
## GATEWAYS

Router is capable of connecting similar type of N/w's i.e., two TCP/IP N/w or two ATM N/w's

but not a TCP/IP and an ATM N/w

→ ~~In~~ For this need we use Gateways.

→ Gateway is used as protocol converter.



→ Gateway is used as proxy.

\* i.e. A proxy can monitor every pkt that is going out of the network.

\* Proxy also does the job of buffering / caching  
↓  
i.e. recent accesses are stored.

→ Gateway is used as NAT server

↳ used to conserve IP addresses.

→ Gateway is also used as firewall.

Firewall monitors every incoming & outgoing pkts and can impose some restrictions.

→ Another use of gateway is Deep Packet Inspection (DPI)

DPI helps look into application layer data and thus know what data is being transmitted and can also impose some restrictions.

→ Gateway also does buffer management.

If data coming from other end is too fast, then gateway can buffer the data and sends us data at required rate.

\* If  $x$  is incoming rate of data &  $y$  is outgoing rate then for  $t$  seconds, buffer space required at gateway is

$$(x-y)t^2$$

## Firewalls:

→ Firewalls are used to protect a network from outside internet.

→ Any incoming/outgoing packet has to go through firewall.

Firewalls are of 3 types

(i) Layer 3 Firewall

(ii) Layer 4 Firewall

(iii) Layer 5 Firewall (Proxy)

## Layer 3 Firewall:

→ It has PL, DLL, NL

This firewall can

(i) Block hosts (using SIP, DIP)

(ii) Block certain protocols (TCP, UDP, ICMP, IGMP)

\* Block ICMP can save from ICMP attacks.

iii) A protocol from particular host can be blocked.

### Layer 4 Firewall:

- It has PL, DLL, NL, TL
- It can do everything a Layer 3 Firewall can do
- It can:
  - i) Block a service (by looking into port number)
  - ii) Block a particular service from particular host.

### Layer 5 Firewall / Proxy Firewall:

- It has all 5 layers.
- It can do ~~any~~ everything a layer 4 firewall can do.
- It can:
  - i) give authentication (it can look into username & password using AL)
- Here a rule table is maintained.  
A pkts is discarded if it matches which with atleast one rule.

# Application Layer Protocols

→ DNS, HTTP, FTP, SMTP, POP

## DNS (Domain Name Service)

⇒ port No: 53

→ Given a domain name, DNS gives its IP address.

Even if we remember IP add, there is no guarantee that the IP address of a website doesn't change.

### Types of domains:

#### (i) Generic Domain:

'com', 'edu', 'mil', 'org', 'int'	↓
used by commercial organizations	used by non-profit organization

#### (ii) Country Domain:

.in, .us, .uk

#### (iii) Inverse Domain:

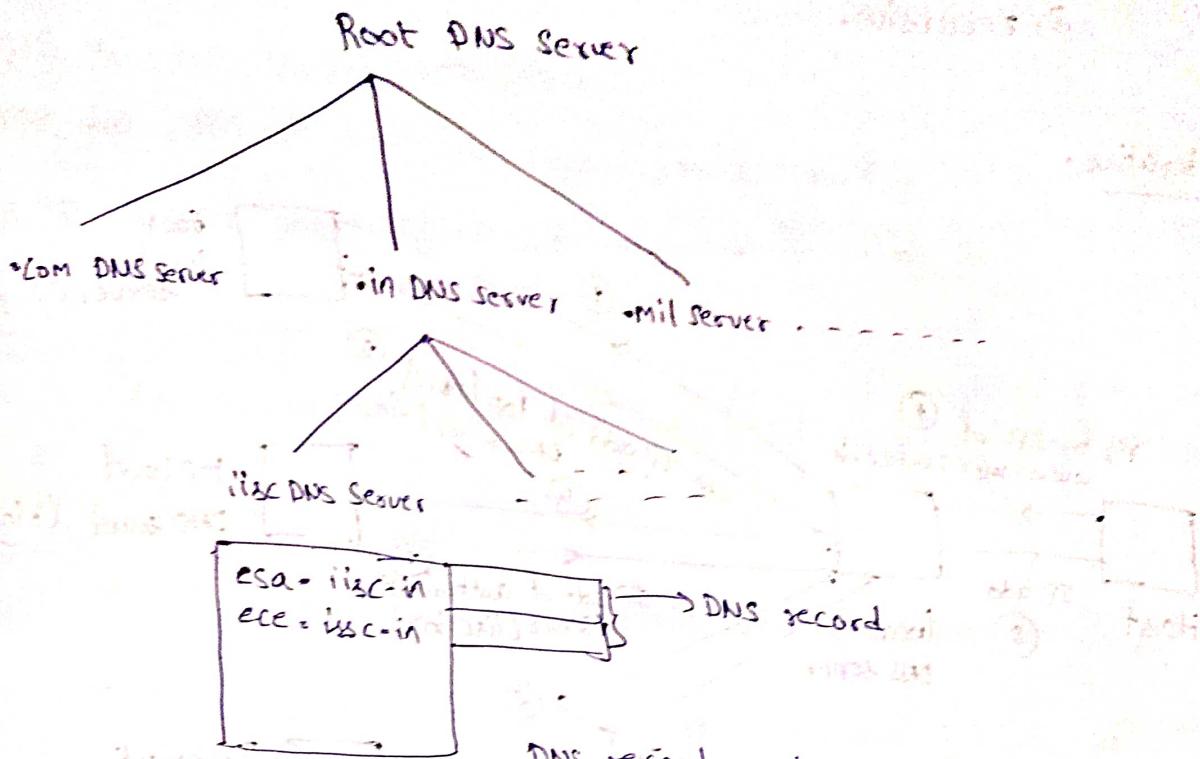
Given an IP address, DNS can also give domain name.

→ DNS also does load balancing.

i.e., if a website have more than one IP add (more than one server) then each time we access the website it will take us to a different server.

## Data organization in DNS

24



DNS record contains information like  
how long the IP address will be assigned  
to that domain, etc.

→ Data of DNS is distributed.

→ There are 13 root DNS servers

so that even if one server doesn't work there will be no problem

### Note :

However, we don't need to go to Root DNS server everytime.

→ ISP provides local DNS which has most frequently used websites.  
If local DNS can't help then we go to root DNS server.

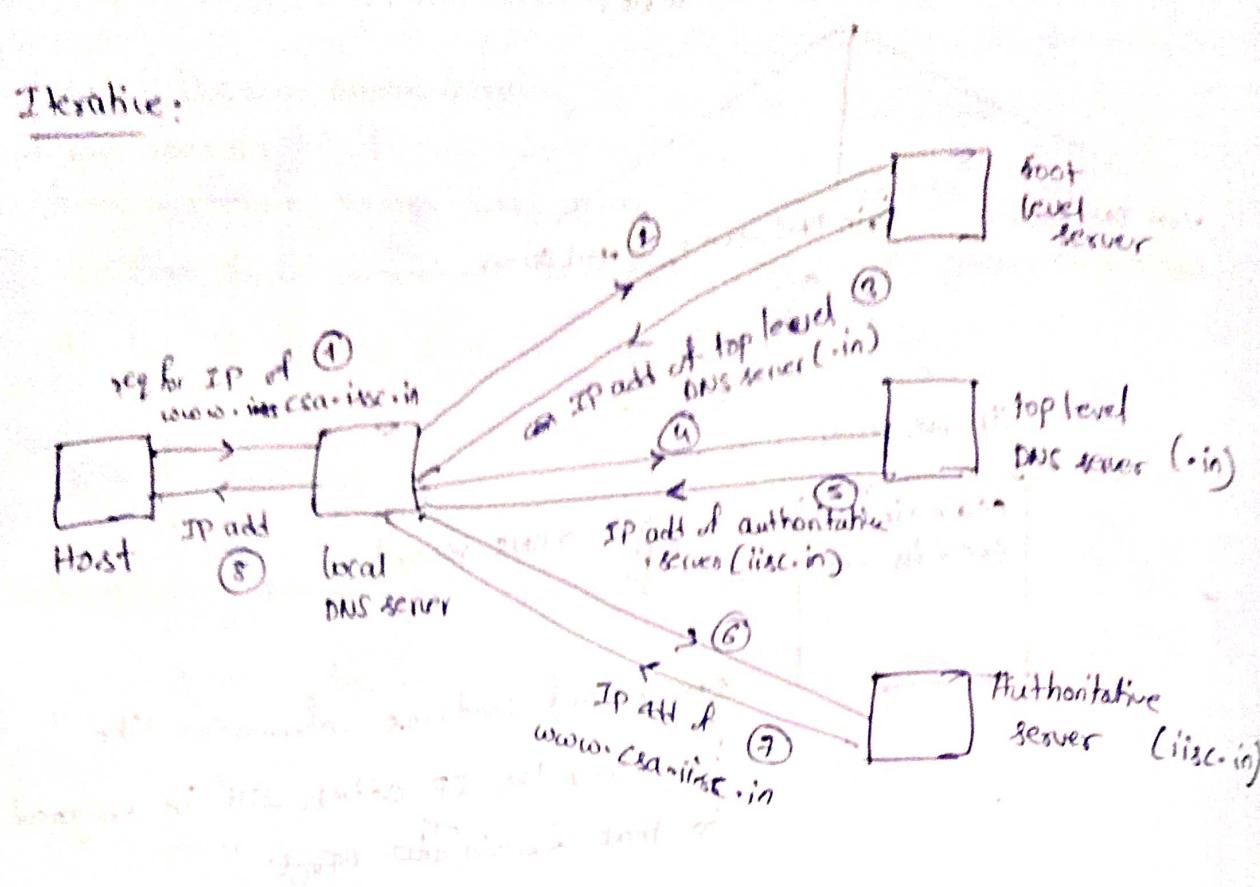
→ The record of local DNS has a field ~~to~~ Time to Live, after which entry is deleted.

There are 2 ways through which local DNS contacts root DNS servers.

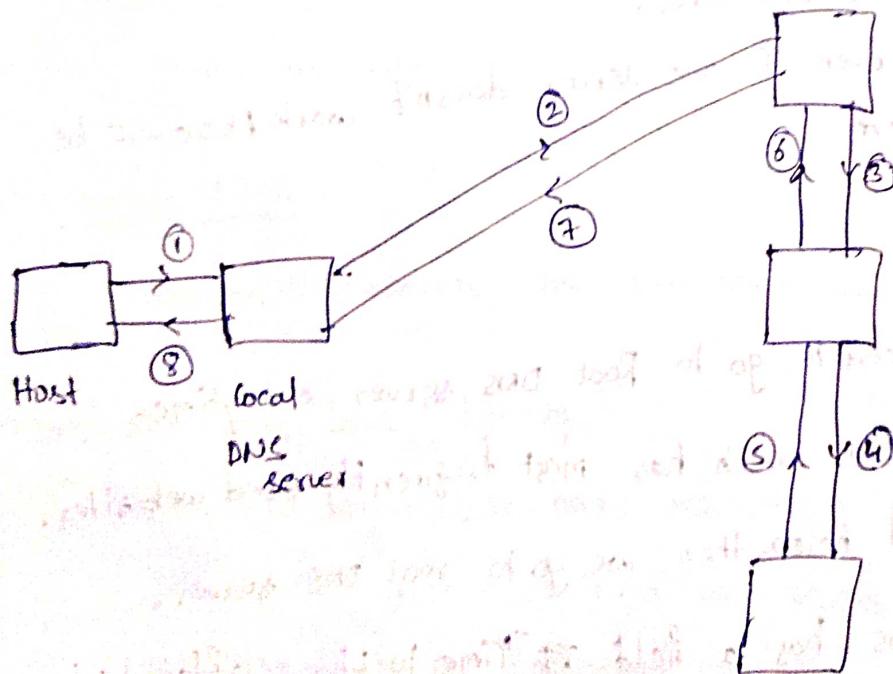
i) Iterative

ii) Recursive

Iterative:



Recursive:



→ ~~All~~ DNS uses UDP (since all the messages are single req & reply)

## HTTP:

- port number 80
- HTTP is used to get web pages.
- HTTP uses TCP at transport layer (for reliability)
  - HTTP doesn't have any built mechanism for reliability.
- HTTP is stateless protocol
  - i.e., commands & data are transferred using same connection.
- HTTP is stateless protocol
  - i.e., it is not going to maintain any information about user.
  - HTTP uses a cookie to know the previous history of communication. These cookies are stored at user's end.
- HTTP 1.0 uses non-persistent connection
  - i.e., a separate connection is used to fetch each object.
  - For example if a web page has 10 images, we need 11 connections (one for each image & one for web page).
  - Here server doesn't need to hold connection for long time.
- HTTP 1.1 uses persistent connection.
  - i.e., a single connection is used to fetch all the data.
  - Here server holds connection for long time. So here congestion window grows and thus we have high bandwidth utilization.

## Methods used in HTTP:

(i) Head: used to obtain header (meta data) of a webpage.

Usage: Gateway caches frequently used data.

So by getting head, gateway knows whether the data is modified or not. If not modified, data from gateway cache can be sent.

There are many other uses

(ii) Get: Used to get the webpage

(iii) Post: post is used to send data when we use fill forms

(iv) Put: used to upload something

(v) Delete: used to delete an object.

(vi) Trace: Used to know the servers involved in sending data.

(vii) Options: Opti used to know whether the above functionalities are provided by a server or not.

(viii) Connect: used for security (authentication).

## FTP (File Transfer Protocol)

→ Protocol port number: 21

→ Example applications: Techia, Filezilla

→ FTP uses TCP

→ To FTP uses out of band connection  
i.e., <sup>separate</sup> connections are established for commands & data.

Control Connection (used for commands) (port: 21) (Persistent)

Data Connection (used for data) (port: 20) (non-persistent)

\* : separate connection is opened for each data file

FTP server: data of FTP server is used by FTP client.

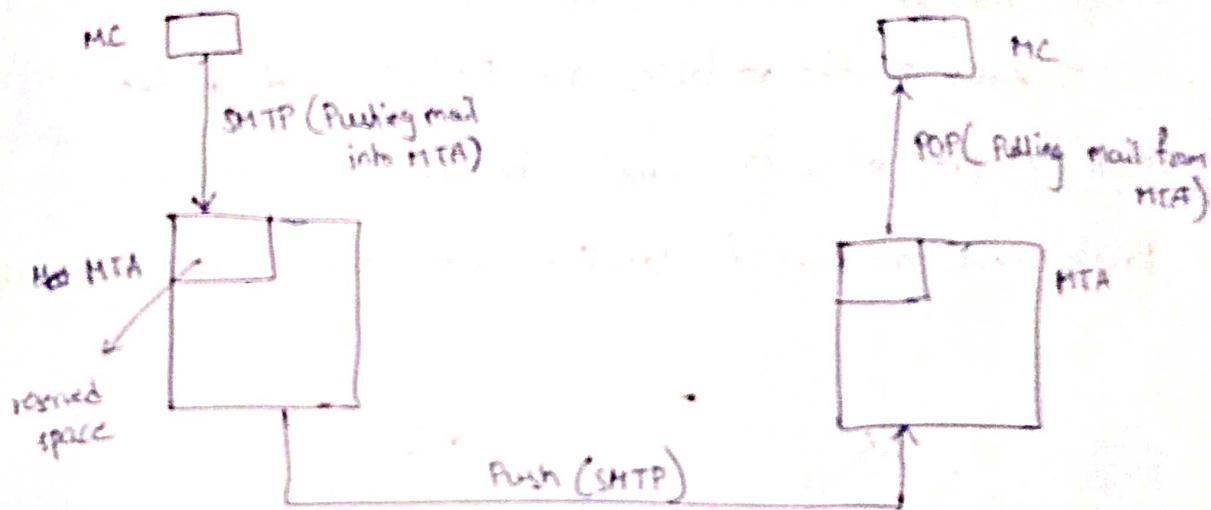
→ FTP is stateful protocol.

∴ FTP is going to log every activity.

## SMTP (Simple Mail Transfer Protocol) and POP (Post Office Protocol)

→ FTP requires both the stations to be online while file transfer.

→ But SMTP doesn't need this. So we don't use FTP for emails.



MTA: Mail Transfer Agent

MC: Mail Client

→ SMTP & POP uses TCP for reliability.

→ To send data other than text, this ~~to~~ non-text data has to be converted into text format on sender side and ~~back~~, it has to be converted back into non-text format on receiver side.

The protocol used for this conversion is MIME.

MIME: Multipurpose Internet Mail Extension.

→ SMTP & POP are inband protocols.

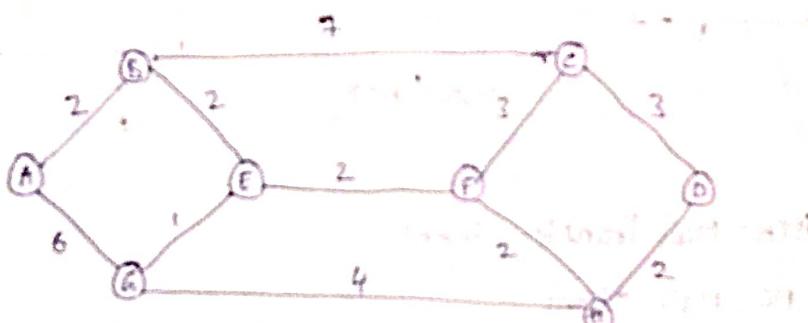
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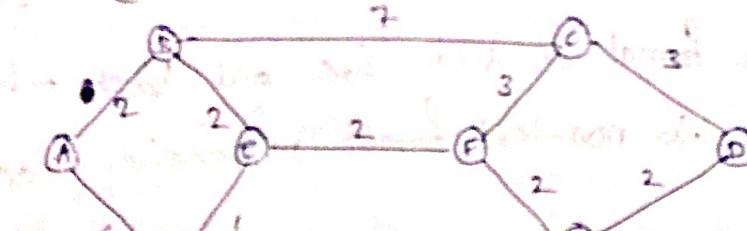
## Routing : Shortest Path Algorithm

- This works on dijkstra's algorithm
  - This is a fixed routing algorithm (static)
  - Here we find shortest path based on dijkstra's algorithm.
  - Here cost may be no of hops or physical distance or it may depend on bandwidth traffic etc.
  - A label may be tentative or permanent.
- Initially all the labels are tentative and as the algorithm proceeds few labels become permanent. Labels that are part of shortest path are made permanent.

Q:



(2,A)



(6,H)

{A}

8

{A,B}

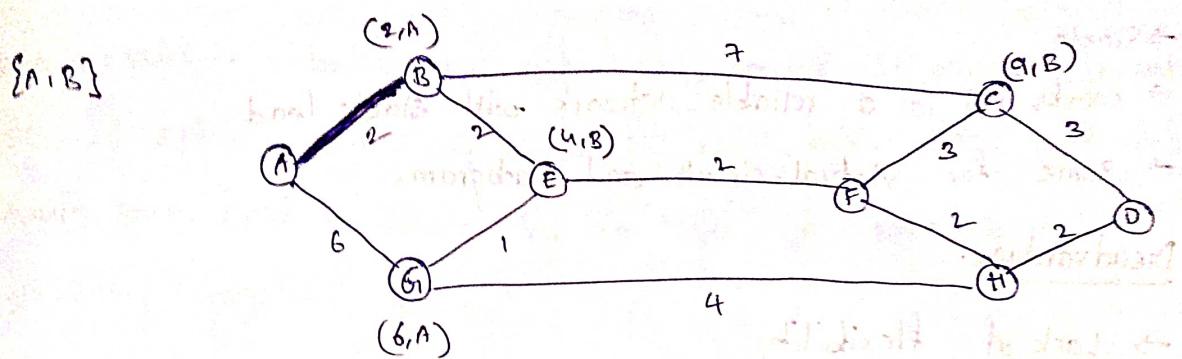
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{A,B,E}

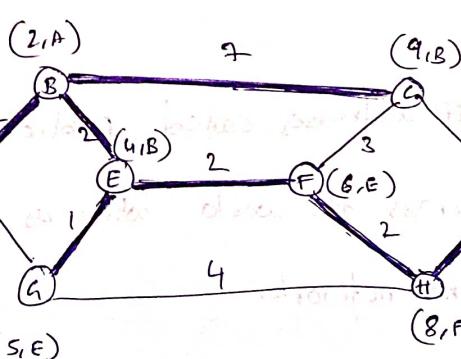
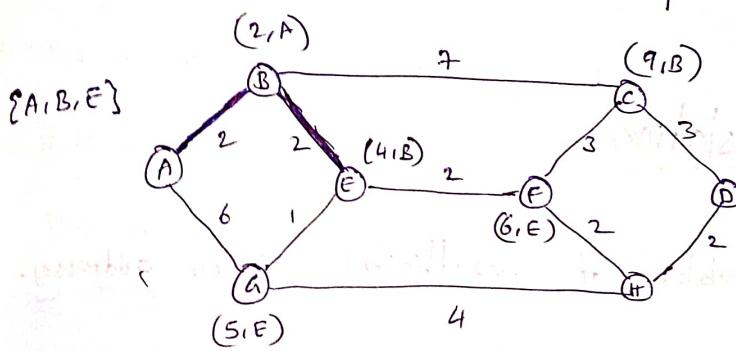
G

A

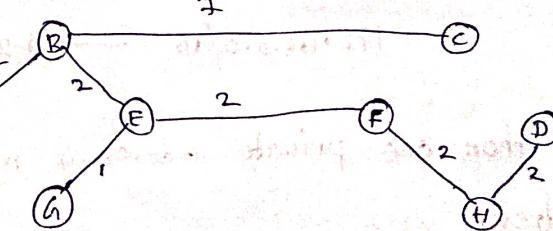
Include \$B\$ in the set and now edge \$AB\$ becomes permanent



Include \$E\$ and now \$BE\$ becomes permanent



$\therefore$  Routing is done with below tree



## Advantages of Fixed Routing

- Simple
- works well in a reliable network with stable load
- same for virtual-circuit and Datagram.

## Disadvantage:

- Lack of flexibility
- Does not react to failure or network congestion.

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## Network Address Translation

- NAT addresses the problem of insufficient IPv4 addresses.
- Every network is connected to a NAT box.
- Systems within the network have unique IP addresses called private address
- NAT has one or a few IP addresses called public addresses.
- Public address is unique across the world whereas private address is unique across the network.

The range of private addresses given are:

$10 \cdot 0 \cdot 0 \cdot 0 / 8$  —  $2^{24}$  hosts

$172 \cdot 16 \cdot 0 \cdot 0 / 12$  —  $2^{20}$  hosts

$192 \cdot 168 \cdot 0 \cdot 0 / 16$  —  $2^{16}$  hosts

- Now, more than one private address is mapped to a single public address

### & Working:

- When a pkt is being sent out, the source IP, which is private IP, is replaced with public IP by NAT box. Along with this, source port field is replaced by an index of NAT box's  $2^{16}$ -entry translation table.
- By replacing source port we will be able to distinguish two machines using same source port
- When a packet is incoming, the destination port is used to index into translation table to get the private IP and port of the station in the network.

within NW

(IP, Port)	NAT Box
(x, 20)	Private IP      Port      Public IP x      20      A
(y, 20)	y      20      A
(z, 30)	z      30      A

Table indices

Internet

$$m \rightarrow (A, m)$$

$$n \rightarrow (A, n)$$

$$p \rightarrow (A, p)$$

Say packet with dest IP = A and dest port = n is incoming,

using port=n, we index into table and get the pair (y, 20)

### Issues with NAT:

- Since mapping in NAT box is built by outgoing pkts, incoming pkts can't be accepted until after outgoing ones.
- NAT maintain information even for connectionless service.

- NAT breaks independence b/w layers.  
i.e., for example if TCP or is upgraded and no of bits in port change, then NAT fails.
- If a protocol other than ~~NAT~~ TCP or UDP (for example, for some multimedia application) then NAT won't able to locate TCP port correctly.

### Advantages:

- Supports more systems.
- Allow easy interchange b/w ISPs by changing IP addresses in NAT boxes without changing internal system address.
- IP masquerading: Mapping single public IP to multiple hosts  
This is known as port based NAT (PNAT)
- NAT can do load balancing.

### Note:

NAT are of 3 types:

- (i) static NAT: one to one mapping from private to public addresses  
It doesn't solve the problem of less no of IP addresses
- (ii) dynamic NAT: one to one mapping from active private IP address to public address. Solve the problem of less IP addresses to some extent.
- (iii) PNAT: The NAT that's been' discussed till now is PNAT and it solves the problem of less no of IP addresses.

## Circuit Switching & Packet Switching

### Packet Switching:

→ No reservations of resources is made.

→ Store & forward mechanism is used.

→ packetization is done.

→ Queuing Delay is present.

for every outgoing link of a switch, a queue (Q/P buffer) is maintained. The amount of time packet spends in this queue is called queuing delay.

Queuing delay depends on congestion level in the network.

→ If arriving pckt has no space in the queue then pckt loss occurs. when queue is full either arriving pckt or an existing pckt may be dropped.

### Circuit Switching:

→ For every connection, reservations are made and path is set. The time involved in this is called setup time.

→ Circuit switch N/w's are implemented in 2 ways:

(i) Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

(ii) Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)

## → FDM:

- \* The available frequency is divided among the connections established.

## TDM:

- Here time is divided into ~~frequency~~ slots of fixed size.

- Each connection (sender-receiver pair) is given a slot to transfer. The set slots of the connections forms a frame.

- \* In both FDM & TDM the allocated bandwidth or time slot remains unused if the host doesn't want to transfer. This leads to wasteage of resources.

## Circuit Switching

- \* suitable for real time services. (telephone calls etc.)

- \* more costly

## Packet Switching

- \* provides better sharing

- \* simple & efficient

- \* less costly

# Computer Networks

## Classfull IP address Classification:

Class A :	Class B	Class C	Class D	Class E
$\underline{10}$ ) * NID: 8; HID: 24 * $2^7$ - 2 N/w * $2^{14}$ - 2 Hosts $(0_1 - 126)$	$\underline{101}$ ) * NID: 16; HID: 16 • $2^{14}$ N/w's • $2^{16}$ - 2 hosts $(128 - 191)$	$\underline{110}$ ) * NID: 24; HID: 8 • $2^{21}$ N/w's * $2^8$ - 2 Hosts $(192 - 223)$	$\underline{1110}$ ) * No NID & HID * used for multicasting $2^{28}$ addresses $(224 - \cancel{239})$	$\underline{1111}$ ) * No NID & HID * Reserved * $2^{28}$ address $(240 - 255)$

- NID 0 & 127 of class A are not used.
- For every N/w starting add is n/w id
- LBA : 255.255.255.255
- DBA : NID • (All 1's)

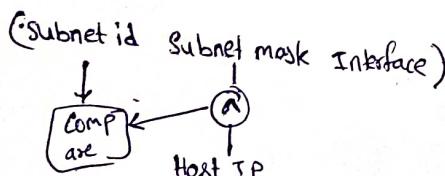
## Subnetting

- \* Divide N/w by borrowing sufficient no of bits from host id part.
- \* Think abt confusion in interpreting certain IP add by insider N/w and outside N/w
- \* no of hosts = no of IP add -  $(2 * \text{no of subnets})$

Subnet mask: Nid + subnet id  $\rightarrow$  All 1's  
Hid  $\rightarrow$  0's

Subnet Mask  $\wedge$  Host IP  $\rightarrow$  subnet ID

## Routing table structure



- If more than 1 match then subnet id with more 1's.
- Fixed Length Subnetmasking
- Variable Length Subnetmasking (VLSM)
- Larger the subnet, smaller the size value of subnet mask.

## CIDR (Classless Inter Domain Routing)

- \* IP add representation: a.b.c.d/n
- n is no of bits in NID
- \* CIDR block forming rules:
  - IP add are contiguous
  - Block size is power of 2.
  - Start IP add / block size,

- \* Subnetting in CIDR is also same.

## Supernetting / Aggregation

- \* Rules:
  - Contiguous blocks
  - equal size can be combined at once.
  - Start IP / total size

- 
- Using subnet mask a host determines whether a given IP add is in the same N/w or not (Think how).  
If yes, then pkts will be sent directly otherwise through router.

## FLOW CONTROL

plays:

$$\text{Transmission Delay} = \frac{L}{B}; \quad \text{Propagation Delay} = \frac{d}{V}$$

→ Queuing delay; processing delay.

Stop Wait:

→ pkt is sent and sender waits until ack is received

$$n = \frac{T_t}{T_t + 2T_p} = \frac{1}{2(1+2\alpha)} \quad (\text{assuming queuing, processing delay, ack transmission time are negligible})$$

distance  $\uparrow \Rightarrow n \downarrow$

size of pkt  $\uparrow \Rightarrow n \uparrow$

$$\text{no of pkts transmitted} = n + np + np^2 + \dots \quad \rightarrow \text{some for SR also}$$

$p \rightarrow \text{probability of error.}$

Sliding Window Protocol / Pipelining:

$$n = \frac{1}{1+2\alpha} \Rightarrow \text{Min window size} = \lceil 1+2\alpha \rceil = \lceil \frac{1}{n} \rceil \quad \text{for 100% efficiency}$$

$$\text{no of bits of seq num} = \lceil \log_2 (1+2\alpha) \rceil$$

→ But this not possible practically.

→ GBN, SR are implementations of sliding window.

No Back N ( $N > 1$ )

Sender window size =  $N$ ; Receiver window size = 1;

→ out of order pkts not accepted. So for retransmission we need to go back  $N$  and retransmit.

$$n = \frac{N}{1+2\alpha}$$

→ GBN uses cumulative ack.

→ Buff =  $N+1$ ; Seq num =  $N+1$ ; Bandwidth req = high

CPU req = low; Implementation difficulty = easier than SR.

Selective Repeat:

Sender window size = Receiver window size =  $N$

→ out of order pkts accepted.

$$n = \frac{N}{1+2\alpha}$$

→ uses independent ack.

→ Buff =  $2N$ ; Seq =  $2N$ ; Bandwidth req = moderate

CPU req = high; Implementation is complex.

Note:

→ seq num  $\geq$  sender win + receiver win

→ no bits in seq. num.  $\rightarrow$  sender window =  $\min(1+2\alpha, 2^n)$

→ Ack

Cumulative: ack timer is started (when a pkt is received) and ack is sent for group

Independent: 1 per pkt. SR sends negative ack and allows early retransmission.

Problem	Soln
Data pkt lost	Timeout timer
Duplicate pkt problem (Ack lost)	Seq number
Delayed Ack (Missing pkt problem)	Seq num for Ack

Capacity of channel: Max no of bits present on the channel.

$$\therefore \text{capacity of channel} = \text{BW} * T_p$$

High capacity channel is called "thick pipe" and low capacity channel is called "thin pipe".

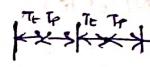
## Access Control Methods

If  $T_p$  is given in bits then divide with bandwidth " " " " " meters " " " velocity.

→ when channel is broadcast channel we need access control methods.

Time Division Multiplexing:

$$n = \frac{T_t}{T_t + T_p}$$



If a station doesn't transmit, then the slot is wasted.

Polling:

$$n = \frac{T_t}{T_{poll} + T_t + T_p}$$

Stations that are interested participate in polling.

CSMA/CD: (Carrier Sense Multiple Access Collision Detection)

→ Every host, before sending, sense carrier. Carrier sensing is done as long as data is transmitted

$$\Rightarrow T_t \geq 2T_p \Rightarrow L \geq 2T_p * BW$$

→ No acks are used.

If no sufficient data, extra bits are padded.

$$n = \frac{T_t}{C * (2T_p) + T_t + T_p} = \frac{T_t}{T_t + (2C+1)T_p} = \frac{1}{1+6 \cdot 4 \cdot C}$$

Probability of successful transmission is  $= nC_1 P(1-P)^{n-1}$

( $P$  is probability to transmit)

This maximum when  $P = 1/n$ .

$$\Rightarrow \text{Max value} = (1 - 1/n)^{n-1} = e^{-1} \text{ (for large values)}$$

Backoff Aloha / Binary Exponential back off algorithm:

→ Every pkt has a collision num initialized to 0.

→ If collision occurs, then collision num is incremented.

Now system choose a num b/w  $[0, 2^{n-1}]$  when  $n$  is collision num. Now system waits for this amount of time and retransmit.

→ As collision num increases, probability of collision exponentially.

→ Drawback: Capturing Effect.

## Token Passing:

- Stations are connected in ring topology
- Every system transmits whenever it gets a token.

Ring  $\text{Ring latency} = \frac{d}{v} + N * T_t$   
 $t \rightarrow \text{delay at every station}$

Efficiency,  $\eta = \frac{N * T_t}{T_p + N * THT}$

Delayed token reinsertion      Early token reinsertion

$THT = T_t + \text{ring latency}$

$$= T_t + T_p + 0$$

↓

$$= T_t + T_p \quad (\text{assuming } t=0)$$

$$\eta = \frac{N * T_t}{T_p + N(T_t + T_p)}$$

$THT = T_t$

$$\eta = \frac{N * T_t}{T_p + T_t}$$

## ALOHA:

→ any station can transmit any time. So collision is possible.

→ ACKs are used; No collision detection.

### Pure Aloha

• vulnerable time =  $2T_t$

$$\eta = G_1 * e^{-2G_1}$$

$G_1 \rightarrow$  no. of stations who wants to transmit in  $T_t$

$$N_{\max} = \frac{1}{2e} = 0.184$$

(at  $G_1=1/2$ ) i.e., 18.4%

### Slotted Aloha

• vulnerable time =  $T_t$

$$\eta = G_1 * e^{-G_1}$$

$$N_{\max} = \frac{1}{e} = 0.368$$

(at  $G_1=1$ ) i.e., 36.8%

## ERROR CONTROL METHODS

### Error Detection: Detect and req for retransmission

- send data twice (D+D)
- parity check
- CRC
- checksum

CRC: Both sender and receiver will have CRC generator.

→ An n-bit CRC generator is represented using a polynomial of degree  $n-1$ .

For data we append ' $n-1$ ' bits and perform XOR division.

→ The obtained remainder is called CRC and it appended to original data.

→ Now receiver gets remainder 0 if data is received correctly.

## Checksum:

→ To compute n-bit checksum, divide data into groups of n-bits each.

→ Now add all these. (If carry occurs add to the LSB).

→ If checksum field is present in data, consider it 0.

→ Now negate the result and store it in checksum.

→ Now receiver must get 0 when added all these.

Note:

Meaningful errors are possible.

## Error Correction:

### L-Hamming Code (Refer Note)

## ISO-OSI Layers

→ A host need not contain NLW layer but TL is present on every host and NL is present on every router.

### Physical layer:

→ signal conversion b/w different transmission media.

→ transmission modes: simplex, half-duplex, full duplex.

→ Topologies: bus, star, ring, mesh, hybrid.

→ Encoding: Manchester, Differential Manchester Encoding

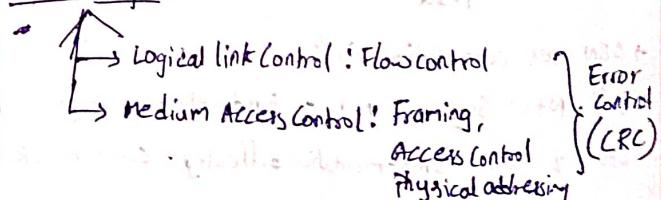
0: [ ] : ]

1: [ ] : ]

→ It provides bit synchronization, bit rate control.

band rate = 2 × bit rate

### Datalink layer:



### Transport layer:

→ End to End connection, Service point addressing.

→ Flow control

→ Error control

→ Segmentation & reassembly

→ Multiplexing & Demultiplexing

→ Congestion control

### Network Layer:

→ Host to Host connectivity

→ Logical addressing

→ Switching

→ Routing

→ Congestion control

→ Fragmentation

Session Layer

- Authentication & Authorization
- checkpointing
- Synchronization
- Dialog control, logical grouping
- Connection establishment, maintenance, termination.

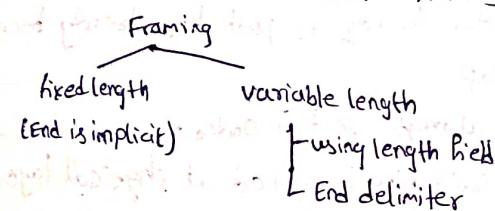
Presentation Layer:

- character translation
- Encryption & Decryption
- Compression.

How all layers work together (pg: 70)

Framing:

- SFD is used at the beginning of every frame  
     $\rightarrow (10)^*11$
- we also need to detect end of frames



End delimiter may match with data pattern.

Character stuffing

- Add null ('0') as prefix to every null and 'ED' appeared in string

bit stuffing

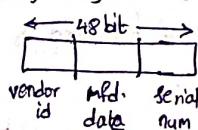
- If ED is 01111, then add '0' after every 0111.

Physical Addressing:

Logical add: unique globally

Physical add: unique with NW.

- MAC is unique globally and used as physical address.



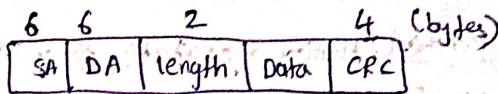
Unicast MAC: LSB bit of 1st byte is 0

Multicast MAC: LSB bit of 1st byte is 1

Broadcast MAC: all bits are 1's.

LAN TechnologiesEthernet (IEEE 802.3)

- Bus topology; CSMA/CD; No acks; Manchester Encoding
- BW: 10Mbps, 100Mbps, 1Gb/s  
     $\uparrow$  fast ethernet    $\uparrow$  gigabit ethernet

Ethernet Frame Format:

- PL adds 1 byte SFD (10101011) and 7 bytes preamble 101010...10

→ Preamble & SFD provides synchronization.

→ Since CSMA/CD is used,  $T_E \geq 2T_p$

$$\Rightarrow L \geq 2T_p * BW \text{ or } L \geq 64B$$

→ To avoid monopolization, max data  $\leq 1500B$

	Min	Max
Data	46	1500
Frame	64	1518

Disadv:

→ not suitable for real time applications

→ not applicable for interactive applications

$$\because \text{min data size} = 46B$$

→ not good for client server applications ( $\because$  no priorities)

Token Ring (IEEE 802.5)

- Ring topology; token passing; piggy backed; Differential Manchester

Sender side problems:

Orphan pkt problem: sender goes down

Stray pkt problem: pkts get corrupted and cannot be identified by sender.

Soln: Monitor & Monitor bit (Thick)

Destination side Problems:

- Destination Down    A=available    C=copied
- Destination Busy    E=Error
- Packet corrupted    L=lost    E=Error
- Copied    I=invalid

→ while retransmitting sender has to reject monitor bit

## Token Problems:

(i) Captured token: a station may hold token and retransmit it for indefinite long.

Issue: imposes restriction on max TAT

$$ETR \geq T_{TAT}$$

$$ETR \geq T_{TAT} - RL$$

(ii) Token Lost: Monitor regenerates token after waiting for maximum token return time.

$$\text{max token return time} = \text{ring latency} + N \times T_{TAT}$$

(iii) Token Corrupted: monitor identifies this and regenerates a new token after waiting for max token return time.

## Monitor Problems

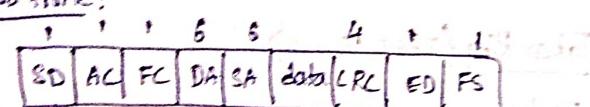
(i) Monitor goes down: monitor sends AMP frame as long as it is active. Every station expects AMP frame in regular intervals.

→ If monitor goes now, new monitor is chosen using polling based standard.

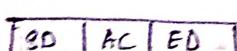
(ii) Monitor hacked: monitor is hacked and

## Token ring frame format:

Data frame:

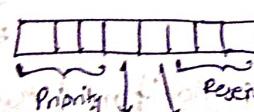
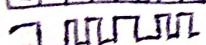
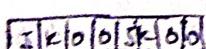


Token frame: (2 bytes)



ED:

## Access Control:



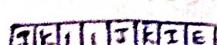
## Frame Control:



00 - data frame (all 8 bits are 0's)

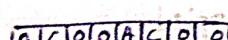
11 - control frame (e.g: AMP)

## End Delimiter:



Information Error bit

## Frame Status:



## Minimum length of token ring:

If all the stations are down, then there is a chance that sent token comes back even before it is fully transmitted.

To prevent this,

minimum propagation delay  $\geq$  transmission delay of token

or)  
Capacity  $\geq$  size of token.

## Switching

### Circuit Switching

- For every connection, reservations are made & path is set. Time required for this is called setup time.

- No header is req as path has already been set up

- Data is always sent in order.

- Circuit switching is applied at physical layer.

- Circuit switching is implemented in 2 ways:



### Freq. Division Multiplexing

### Time Division Multiplexing

- freq is divided among the connections

### Time Division Multiplexing

- time is divided into slots and each connection is given a slot.

## Packet Switching:

- No reservation; store & forward is used;

- packetization is done.

- Queuing delay is present and pkt may be discarded if there is no space in the queue.

- No setup time is required.

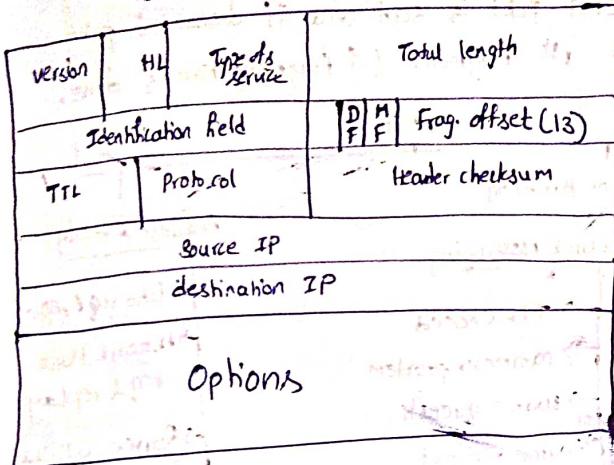
- 2 types of packet switching:

virtual circuit	Datagram
• connection oriented	• connection less
• pkts follow same path	• diff paths
• reservations are made by 1st pkt	• no reservations
• pkts arrive in order	• out of order
• 1st pkt has global header	• all need global header
• reliable	• not reliable

### Note:

- Circuit switching may result in wastage of resources if ~~the~~ the connection is idle.
- Circuit switching is costlier than pkts switching.
- Circuit switching is more suitable for real time applications.

## Internet Protocol



Header length =  $4 * (\text{HL field})$

TOS:  

 Priority, Delay, Cost, Throughput, Reliability  
 unused.

Total length: length including headers.

Identification field: numbering to datagrams  
 helps in ordering received datagrams

Protocol: used to discard less imp pkts when there is space.

ICMP < IGMP < UDP < TCP

Header checker: divide into 2 byte slots, add and negate.

### Options:

i) Record route: each router put its address

ii) Source routing < Strict source routing  
 loose source routing

iii) Padding: to make size a multiple of 4

iv) timestamp: Every router in path adds in-time and out-time.

## Fragmentation:

- Max Transmittable Unit: Max size that can be transmitted (including IP header)
- Segmentation is done at TL such that frag. will not be need at host. So fragmentation is done only at routers.
- After fragmentation pkts are routed independently.
- Max payload at TL = MTU - IP header - TL header
- original fragment offset =  $8 * (\text{fragment offset field})$   
 so next payload size at IP must be a multiple of 8 in all the pkts except the last.
- Reassembling is done only at destination.

### Reassembly algo:

Starting from 1st fragment calculate fragment offset of next pkt and identify next pkt using this calculated value. Continue this until last fragment is met.

MF	offset
1	0 → 1st fragment
1	≠ 0 → intermediate fragment
0	≠ 0 → last fragment
0	0 → no fragmentation

$$\text{Offset of next fragment} = \left( \frac{\text{current fragment offset}}{8} + \frac{\text{TL} - \text{HL} * 4}{8} \right)$$

## Other Concepts at Network Layer:

### Implementation of BroadCasting

#### Limited Broadcasting:

S-IP = source IP

S-MAC = source MAC

D-IP = All 1's

D-MAC = All 1's

#### Directed Broadcasting:

S-IP = Source IP

S-MAC = Source MAC

D-IP = NID + (All 1's)

D-MAC = MAC of gateway router.

Once this reaches gateway router, then it replaces D-IP with all 1's and D-MAC with all 1's.

## Address Resolution Protocol (used to find MAC given IP)

### Receiver

### Receiver on N/w:

ARP req Pkt is broadcasted with

S-IP = Source IP

S-MAC = MAC of sender

D-IP = dest. IP

D-MAC = All 1's

## Receiver on diff N/w:

→ In this case sender can never know the MAC of receiver.

→ Here sender just finds the MAC of default router and forwards pkt to the router.

Note : ARP req is broadcast message

ARP reply is unicast message.

## Special Address 127 (Loopback address)

→ If we need to check if NIC and other layers of system we used this address.

→ we can use every address except

127.0.0.0 and 127.255.255.255

→ This pkt will go through all layers except physical layer and comes back to app. layer.

→ This is also used to test working of client server by using different ports.



## RARP (Reverse ARP) :

→ Used to know IP, given its MAC.

→ RARP server is maintained at every N/w.  
It contains mapping b/w IP & MAC.

→ RARP req:

S. IP = All 1's      D. IP = 255.255.255.255  
S. MAC = Source MAC    D. MAC = All 1's

→ RARP server sends reply.

disadv: → Mapping is static.

→ Data is not centralized.

## BootP (Bootstrap Protocol)

→ same as RARP except that it may not have bootp server at every N/w.

In this case relay agents are used.

→ Adv: Data is centralized

Disadv: Mapping is static.

## DHCP :

→ Here we maintain 2 mappings (static & dynamic)

→ IP addresses are dynamically assigned from a pool of address and lease time is given after which renewal request has to be done.

Adv: • Data is centralized

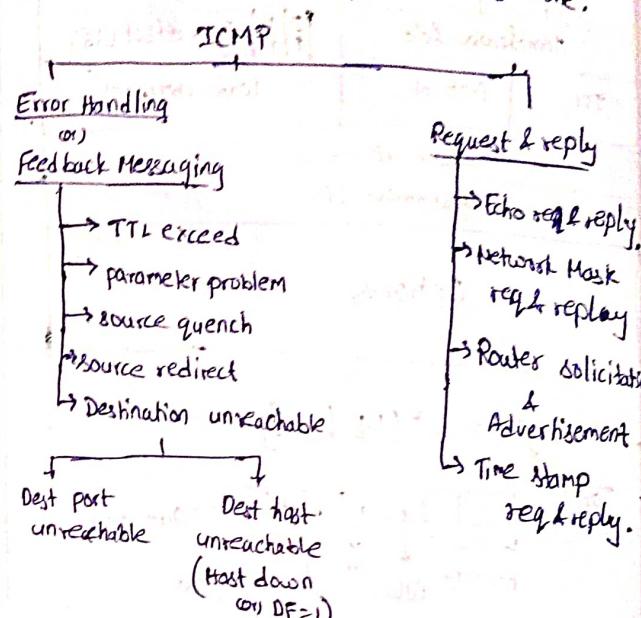
• Mapping is dynamic

Note: to make DHCP compatible with TCP/IP, port of BootP=port of DHCP.

## ICMP (Internet Control Message Protocol)

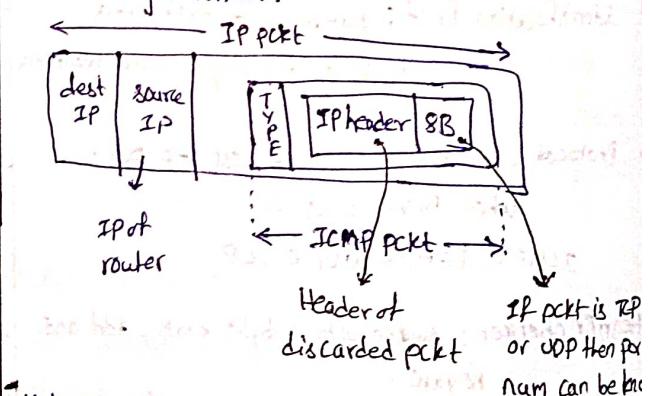
• ICMP is sent only if the discarded pkt is TCP or UDP.

• ICMP pkt is sent only if discarded pkt is 1st fragment (if fragmentation is done).



• ICMP pkt never meets app-layer and TL.

## ICMP message format:



## Note:

Before any communication starts, host must do below steps:

i) getting IP address (RARP, BootP, DHCP)

ii) knowing default router (router adv./solicitation)

iii) knowing N/w mask (N/w mask req & reply)

## Applications of ICMP:

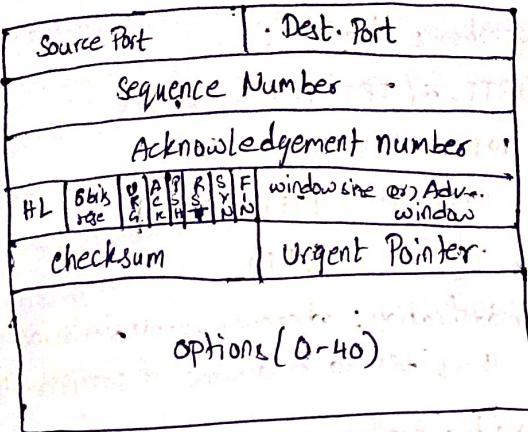
i) Trace route

ii) PMTUD (Path MTU Discovery)

Refer notes for Routing

# TCP

- TCP ensures end to end communication



Port number:

0-1023: well known

1024-49151: reserved

49152-65535: public usage.

Seq number: Contains number given to 1st byte in the segment.

• TCP is a byte stream protocol.

Ack number: Contains byte num of next expected byte.

$$\text{no of bytes in segment} = TL_{IP} - HL_{IP} - HL_{TCP}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Ack num} = n + \text{seq num}$$

Note:

• seq num doesn't always start with 0. Instead we start with some random number (think why)

wrap around time: It is time taken to use up all seq numbers.

life time: It is max amount of time for which pkts can be in network.

• to avoid conflicts

wrap around time > life time.

• For given ~~No~~ bits bandwidth, if no of bits in seq num field are not sufficient to satisfy above condition, then we take extra bits from options field. This option is called timestamp.

Header length: scaled down by 4.

Flags:

PSH: pushes data as soon as it is received without buffering. Useful for interactive applications.

RST: Used when there is something wrong in connection.

SYN: receiver receives unexpected seq num.

URG: when this flag is set, the data is sent faster and it will reach dest even before the pkts that are sent earlier.

For this purpose, we set priority to 7 in type of service field. (as routers can't look into TCP header).

Urg pointer: Used when only some part of data is urgent.

$$\text{last byte of urgent data} = \text{seq num} + \text{urgent pointer}.$$

SYN: used to synchronize sequence numbers.

Ack: If this is set then only the ack number field is considered.

If pure ack is to be sent then, only header will be sent.

FIN: used when we need to terminate the connection.

Note: Refer connection establishment, connection termination in notes. Also refer state transition diagram.

• TCP is full duplex connection.

• At the time of connection establishment information like initial seq num, MSS, window size are exchanged.

• Window sizes are set based on MSS shared.

Note:

• pure ack doesn't use seq num.

• FIN pkt uses a seq num

• If no data is received, still we send ack for old data.

<u>SYN</u>	<u>ACK</u>
0 1	0 → 1 <sup>st</sup> packet
1	1 → 2 <sup>nd</sup> packet
0	1 → ACK present in header
0	0 → Invalid

window size / Adw window:

• used for flow control.

• receiver sends available window size.

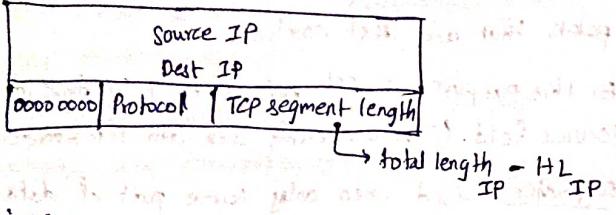
• If window size received by sender 0, then sender starts persistent timer and waits until receiver notifies or the timer finishes. If timer finishes sender sends 1 byte of data. If sender gets reply then communication continues otherwise persistent timer is started again.

• window size chosen by sender =  $\min\{\text{receiver window}, \text{congestion window}\}$

• window size field has only 16 bits, if more than that  $2^{16}$  is available then window extension size extension option is used.

### Checksum:

- checksum is computed on TCP header & pseudo IP header



### Options:

- timestamp
- window size extension
- Parameter Negotiation E.g.: MSS
- padding

### Retransmissions in TCP:

- In TCP, if ack num 'x' is received then sender assume all the data before x is correctly received.
- Retransmission is done in 2 cases
  - (i) receiving 3 dup acks (excluding original ack) within TO timer. --- low congestion  
This is known as early retransmission
  - (ii) Time out timer. --- high congestion.

### Congestion Control:

$$\text{Sender window} = \min\{\text{Wr}, \text{Wc}\}$$

Wc - congestion window Wr - Receiver window

### Working:

- slow start phase until threshold is reached.  
Here window size is doubled.
- Congestion avoidance phase after threshold. Here congestion window is incremented by 1. initial threshold  $\leftarrow \text{Wr}/2$ .
- Congestion detected due to TO times  $\Rightarrow$  threshold  $\leftarrow \lceil \text{Wc}/2 \rceil$  & enter slow start phase.
- Congestion detected due to 3 dup acks  $\Rightarrow$  threshold  $\leftarrow \lceil \text{Wc}/2 \rceil$  & enter congestion avoidance phase.

### TCP time Management:

#### (i) time wait timer: (think of its purpose)

$$\text{time wait timer} = 2 + \text{life time}$$

#### (ii) keep alive timer:

#### (iii) persistent timer

#### (iv) Ack timer

#### (v) Time out timer:

- static TO timer leads to problems.

Dynamic TO timer is given by below algorithm

### i) Basic algorithm:

$$\text{NRTT} = \alpha(\text{IRTT}) + (1-\alpha)\text{ARTT}$$

$$\text{TO} = 2 * \text{RTT}$$

### ii) Jacobson's Algorithm:

$$\text{NRTT} = \alpha(\text{IRTT}) + (1-\alpha)(\text{ARTT})$$

$$\text{ND} = \alpha(\text{ID}) + (1-\alpha)(\text{AD})$$

where AD = |IRTT - ARTT|

$$\text{TO} = \text{RTT} + (4 * \text{D})$$

Karn's modification: whenever retransmission

- is seq. set TO to double of previous TO.

### Silly window syndrome:

- occurs in 3 cases:

(i) Receiver advertises a window size. But the problem is temporary. If this continues for long time RST flag is used.

(ii) occurs when sender transmits less amount of data.

solt: Nagle's algo

• transmit once for each RTT or transmit in advance if data sufficient for 1 MSS is available.

(iii) receiver accepts only 1 byte.

Clark's soln: don't advertise until half of window is available (or) 1 MSS is available.

### Traffic Shaping:

- Another congestion control that controls rate at which pkts enter N/w.
- During connection establishment sender and receiver negotiates traffic pattern.

### ii) Leaky Bucket:

• Data comes into Q at any rate but comes out at const. rate.

• If Q is full data is discarded.  
(think discadv)

### iii) Token Bucket:

• Each pkts gets a token before it goes on the N/w.

• off rate = token filling rate.

• If capacity is full then no more token will be added.

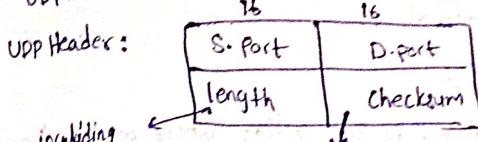
• If capacity is c and token filling rate is g then max no of tokens that can be sent in time 't' is

$$\frac{C * g}{t}$$

In leaky bucket pkts are discarded when bucket is full but here tokens are discarded.

## UDP (Null Protocol)

- Used in application that need single req & reply.  
Eg: DNS, BOOTP, DHCP, dist. vector routing etc.
- broadcasting & multicasting application.
- used in applications that req speed over reliability.  
Eg: multimedia, gaming etc.
- If AL needs to set any priorities then UDP has to communicate this to NL. TCP should also do this.
- ICMP pkts received are informed to AL through UDP.



- Since UDP is not reliable, checksum is not used in general. In that case it is set to 0.
- Checksum is stored in its comp form.
- 000...00  $\Rightarrow$  checksum not used
- 111...11  $\Rightarrow$  checksum used.

## Hardware in Networking

### Hub

- 2 types of channels
  - baseband (no multiplexing)
  - broadband (multiplexing)
- 10 base T (10Mbps, no multiplexing, wan)
- 10 base 2 ( " " 200m)
- 10 base 5 ( " " 500m)

Attenuation is possible here.

### Repeater:

- used to increase length of LAN by connecting 2 lan segments of same type.
- Repeater takes dead signal & regenerates it.
- Runs at PL and collision domain remains same.

### Hub:

- Hub is a multiport repeater. An n-port hub connects n stations.
- If pkt to be sent is transmitted to every station.  $\therefore$  traffic is high.
- Runs at PL and collision domain remains same.

Adv: cheap

## Bridge:

- Used to connect 2 lan segments. LAN segment can even be different types but MTU must be same since bridge cannot do fragmentation.
- operates at PL & DLL (can see MAC).
- Collision domain is reduced.
- Every bridge has forwarding table. Based on how this table is built we have 2 types of bridges i) static ii) dynamic.
- Dynamic bridge never knows MAC of a station until it transmits.
- Bridge is capable of filtering, forwarding, store & forward, flooding.

## Problems:

- If connection forms cycle then packets may go into infinite loop.

## Spanning tree algo:

- choose bridge with least id as root bridge.
- for each bridge, choose root port.
- for every LAN, choose designated bridge and make corresponding port as designated port.
- Mark root port and designate ports as forwarding ports and block remaining.
- Bridge Data unit protocol (BDUP) is implemented to sort out this tree.

## Switch:

- A n-port switch can connect n stations.
- operates at PL & DLL.
- Switch ~~is~~ allows more than one communication at a time. So collision within switch = 0. Traffic is less.
- Collision domain is reduced.

Disadv: costly.

## Router:

- Connects 2 networks of same type.
- operates at PL, DLL, NL.
- Filters broadcasted pkts.
- collision domain & broadcasted domain are reduced.

- Every interface of router has an IP address.  
The address is taken from the Netw the  
interface is connected to.  
However if 2 routers are connected then  
we need a CIDR block of size 4.

## GATEWAYS:

- capable of connecting phys of 2 diff types.
  - operates at PL, DLL, TUL, TL, AL
  - ~~optm~~ reduces collision domain & broadcasting domain

## Uses:

- protocol converter
  - proxy.
  - NAT server.
  - firewall
  - Deep packet inspection.
  - Buffer management (think of its use)

## Application Layer Protocols

DNS (Domain Name Service):

- port : 53
  - given a domain, it gives IP address.
  - DNS also does load balancing
  - Data of DNS is distributed.
  - There are 13 root DNS servers.
  - Local DNS server contacts root DNS server in 2 ways
    - i), iterative.
    - ii) Recursive.
  - DNS uses UDP.

## HTTP (Hyper Text Transfer Protocol)

- port: 80
  - used to get web page.
  - uses TCP for reliability. No any inbuilt mechanism for reliability.
  - Inband protocol
  - stateless protocol

It rather uses cookies which are stored at the user end.

• HTTP 1.0 uses non-persistent connection  
no of connections = no of objects + 1

• HTTP 1.1 uses persistent connection.

HTTP has no any inbuilt security mechanism

Since connection is held for long time,

congestion window grows and high B/w is available.

is available.  
Suitable for when objects are small and many in number.

methods: Head, Get, Post, Put, Delete

trace, options, connect  
(think of their functionalities)

## FTP (File Transfer Protocol)

- port 21, 20 ; Uses TCP  
↓      ↓  
commands    data

- ## • Outband protocol

- Control connection (port 21) is persistent
  - Data connection (port 20) is non-persistent.
  - Stateful Protocol

## SMTP & PGP:

- FTP req stations, to be online where as HTTP doesn't
  - Mail Client (Mc) pushes mail into Mail Transfer Agent (MTA) using SMTP.
  - Mail client (Mc) at the other ends takes mail from MTA using POP.
  - SMTP & POP uses TCP
  - To send data other than non-text, we need to convert it into text format and send it. This will be converted back to non-text at receiver's end.
  - inband protocol.