ENDSEM IMP COMPUTER NETWORK SECURITY UNIT - 3

Q.1] Differentiate between Circuit Switching and Packet Switching ANS:

Circuit Switching:

- 1. Connection-Oriented: In circuit switching, a dedicated communication path is established between two parties before data transmission begins. This path remains active for the duration of the communication session.
- 2. Resource Reservation: The resources along the entire path, such as bandwidth, are reserved exclusively for the duration of the connection, ensuring a consistent and predictable transmission.
- 3. Sequential Data Transmission: Data is sent in a continuous stream, maintaining the sequence in which it was generated.
- 4. Telephone Networks: Traditional telephone networks are a classic example of circuit switching, where a physical circuit is established between the caller and the receiver.

Packet Switching:

- 1. Connectionless: Packet switching doesn't require a dedicated path for the entire communication session. Data is broken into small units (packets), and each packet travels independently through the network to reach its destination.
- 2. Resource Sharing: Unlike circuit switching, where resources are reserved, packet switching shares network resources among multiple users, allowing more efficient use of the available bandwidth.
- 3. Non-sequential Data Transmission: Packets can take different routes to reach their destination and might arrive out of order. They are reassembled at the receiving end.
- 4. Internet Communication: The internet predominantly uses packet switching, where data is divided into packets and routed across various paths to reach the intended destination.

Q.2] Give short note on RIP.

ANS: RIP, or Routing Information Protocol, is one of the oldest distance-vector routing protocols used in computer networks. Here's a quick overview:

- Purpose: RIP is designed to help routers dynamically share information about the best path to reach destinations within an IP network.
- Algorithm: It uses the Bellman-Ford algorithm to determine the most efficient path by calculating the distance (number of network hops) to various destinations.
- Metric: RIP measures distance based on hop count. Each router counts as a hop along the path to the destination network.
- Version: RIP has two versions, RIP v1 and RIP v2. The latter includes support for VLSM (Variable Length Subnet Masking) and authentication, addressing some limitations of the initial version.
- Convergence: One of its drawbacks is slow convergence. Changes in the network take time to propagate, potentially leading to routing loops or suboptimal paths.
- Use: RIP was widely used in small to medium-sized networks but has largely been replaced by more advanced routing protocols like OSPF (Open Shortest Path First) and EIGRP (Enhanced Interior Gateway Routing Protocol) due to its limitations in larger, more complex networks.

Q.3] 192.168.5.71 /26 for given address find out the i) subnet mask? ii) what is first ip address for given series? iii) what is last ip address for given series? ANS: The given IP address is 192.168.5.71 with a subnet mask of /26. Let's break down the details:

i) Subnet Mask:

A /26 subnet mask means that the first 26 bits of the IP address are used for the network portion, leaving 6 bits for the host portion.

ii) First IP Address:

For a /26 subnet, each subnet contains 64 IP addresses (2^(32-26)). The increment between subnets is 64.

For the given address 192.168.5.71/26, the subnet starts at 192.168.5.0. Therefore, the first IP address in this subnet would be 192.168.5.1.

iii) Last IP Address:

Since each subnet contains 64 IP addresses and the first IP in this subnet is 192.168.5.1, the last IP in this subnet would be the 64th IP in this range. So, the last IP address in this subnet would be 192.168.5.62 (with 192.168.5.63 being the broadcast address).

- Q.4] 192.168.5.131/26 for given address find out the i) Subnet mask? ii) What is first is first ip address for given series? iii) What is last ip address for given series? ANS: The IP address given is 192.168.5.131 with a subnet mask of /26. Let's break this down:
- ii) First IP Address: For a /26 subnet, each subnet contains 64 IP addresses (2^(32-26)). The increment between subnets is 64.

 The given address, 192.168.5.131, belongs to the subnet starting at 192.168.5.128.

 Therefore, the first IP address in this subnet would be 192.168.5.129.
- iii) Last IP Address: Since each subnet contains 64 IP addresses and the first IP in this subnet is 192.168.5.129, the last IP in this subnet would be the 64th IP in this range. So, the last IP address in this subnet would be 192.168.5.190 (with 192.168.5.191 being the broadcast address).

Q.5] Explain Path vector routing

ANS: Path Vector Routing is a type of routing protocol used in computer networks to determine the best path for data packets to travel from a source to a destination. Here's an overview:

Basic Concept:

Distance Vector + Additional Information: Path vector routing shares similarities with distance vector routing but includes additional information regarding the path or vector, unlike traditional distance-vector protocols.

Routing Information: Routers in a network exchange information about the best path to reach a destination. This information includes not just the distance (hop count) but also the complete path (or vector) to reach that destination.

Key Characteristics:

Path Information: Unlike traditional distance vector routing, where routers share information only about the next hop, path vector protocols share information about the entire path taken to reach a particular destination.

Loop Prevention: Path vector routing incorporates loop prevention mechanisms to avoid routing loops by maintaining a record of the complete path, allowing routers to recognize and eliminate loops in the network.

Policy-Based Routing: Path vector routing often includes elements that enable routers to make decisions based on policies, such as preferring certain paths over others based on network policies or quality of service requirements.

Example:

The Border Gateway Protocol (BGP) is a prime example of a path vector routing protocol used in the internet. BGP operates between different autonomous systems (AS) and considers various factors in selecting paths, such as network policies, path attributes, and available bandwidth.

Advantages and Challenges:

Advantages:

Granular Control: Allows for more granular control over routing decisions, considering various factors beyond just distance or hop count. Policy Enforcement: Enables network administrators to enforce specific routing policies more effectively. Challenges:

Complexity: Implementing path vector routing can be more complex due to the need to manage and convey more detailed routing information.

Scalability: As networks grow, managing and sharing comprehensive path information for each destination can become resource-intensive.

Q.6] Give short note on: i) Mobile IP ii) MPLS ANS:

i) Mobile IP:

Mobile IP is a protocol designed to enable mobile devices to maintain connections as they move across different IP networks. Here's a brief overview:

- Purpose: Mobile IP allows a device to change its network attachment point (like switching from Wi-Fi to cellular networks) without changing its IP address, enabling continuous connectivity while roaming.
- Components: It involves three primary elements: home agent (which
 maintains the home address of the mobile device), foreign agent (in the
 network the device is currently visiting), and the mobile node (the device
 itself).
- Registration: When a mobile device moves to a new network, it registers its care-of address (the new network's address) with its home agent, which then redirects packets sent to the home address to the care-of address.
- Seamless Handover: Mobile IP facilitates seamless handover by allowing devices to maintain ongoing communications even while changing networks.

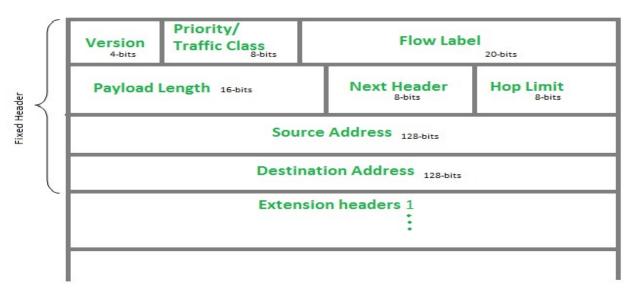
ii) MPLS (Multiprotocol Label Switching):

MPLS is a technique used in telecommunications networks to speed up and shape network traffic flow. Here's a brief summary:

- Purpose: MPLS is used to direct data packets along predetermined paths, called Label Switched Paths (LSPs), allowing for efficient and reliable data transmission.
- Labels: Instead of routing packets based on their IP addresses, MPLS labels packets with specific identifiers (labels), allowing routers to quickly make forwarding decisions based on these labels.
- Traffic Engineering: MPLS enables traffic engineering by allowing network operators to prioritize certain types of traffic, ensuring better Quality of Service (QoS) and optimizing network performance.
- Virtual Private Networks (VPNs): MPLS is commonly used in the creation of VPNs, enabling the creation of secure, private communication channels within a shared network infrastructure.
- Scalability: MPLS improves network scalability and efficiency by simplifying packet forwarding processes and enabling more effective use of network resources.

Q.7] Draw and explain Header format of IPV6.

ANS: The IPv6 header format is structured to accommodate the expanded capabilities and improvements over its predecessor, IPv4. The header consists of various fields designed to handle routing, fragmentation, and options. Here's a breakdown of the IPv6 header format:



- 1. Version (4 bits): Specifies the IP version and in IPv6, the value is set to 6.
- 2. Traffic Class (8 bits): Similar to the IPv4 Type of Service (ToS) field, this field includes differentiated services or QoS (Quality of Service) for packet prioritization.
- 3. Flow Label (20 bits): Designed for labeling packets belonging to the same flow or stream, ensuring they receive the same treatment and handling.
- 4. Payload Length (16 bits): Indicates the length of the payload, which is the data after the header, measured in octets (8-bit bytes).
- 5. Next Header (8 bits): Similar to the IPv4 Protocol field, it identifies the type of header immediately following the IPv6 header. For example, it could point to an extension header or the upper-layer protocol (like TCP or UDP).
- 6. Hop Limit (8 bits): Similar to the IPv4 Time to Live (TTL) field, it's decremented by each router the packet passes through and helps in avoiding infinite loops.
- 7. Source Address (128 bits): Represents the source IPv6 address, providing a larger address space than IPv4.
- 8. Destination Address (128 bits): Represents the destination IPv6 address.
- 9. Extension Headers: Optionally present, these headers provide additional functionalities. There are various extension headers, each serving a distinct purpose:
 - Hop-by-Hop Options Header: Contains options that need to be examined by every node along the packet's path.
 - Routing Header: Assists in packet routing by specifying the route to follow.
 - Fragment Header: If fragmentation is required, this header handles it.
 - Destination Options Header: Options for the destination node.
 - Authentication Header (AH): Provides integrity and authentication for the packet.
 - Encapsulating Security Payload (ESP): Ensures confidentiality, integrity, and authenticity of data.

Q.8] Give short note on BGP

ANS: Border Gateway Protocol (BGP):

BGP, or Border Gateway Protocol, is a standardized exterior gateway protocol used to facilitate the exchange of routing information between different autonomous systems (AS) on the internet. Here's a brief overview:

- Autonomous Systems (AS): BGP is primarily used between different autonomous systems, which are networks operated by a single organization and have control over their routing policies.
- Routing Protocol: It's the protocol that helps routers in different ASs to share information about the best paths for reaching certain destinations on the internet.
- Path Vector Protocol: BGP is a path vector protocol, meaning it not only shares routing information but also includes the complete path information to reach a specific destination.
- Key Features:
 - Reliability: BGP is known for its stability and scalability, making it suitable for the large and complex structure of the internet.
 - Policy-Based Routing: BGP allows network administrators to apply policies for traffic routing decisions, enabling control over route selection based on factors like network policies, path attributes, and more.
 - Multiple Attributes: BGP considers various attributes in selecting paths, including AS path length, next-hop information, and additional path attributes for decision-making.
- Peering Relationships: BGP establishes peering relationships between different autonomous systems. There are different types of BGP peering, such as transit, peering, and customer relationships, each defining how traffic is exchanged.
- Internet Backbone Routing Protocol: BGP is the de facto protocol used for routing between internet backbone providers, enabling the global interconnectivity of the internet.
- Security and Policy Control: BGP's design allows for secure communication and the implementation of specific routing policies, ensuring that data is exchanged under controlled and secure conditions.

Q.9] List and explain functions of Network Layer.

ANS: The Network Layer, or Layer 3 in the OSI model, is responsible for various crucial functions in data communication across networks. Here's a breakdown of its key functions:

1. Routing:

- Determining the Best Path: The Network Layer is responsible for determining the best path for data packets from the source to the destination. Routing algorithms and protocols (like OSPF, BGP, or RIP) are used for this purpose.
- Forwarding and Switching: Once the path is determined, the network layer forwards packets by encapsulating data in headers containing routing information.

2. Logical Addressing:

 Assigning Addresses: The Network Layer provides logical addressing to devices in the form of IP addresses. IP addresses uniquely identify devices on a network, allowing for proper routing.

3. Fragmentation and Reassembly:

- Fragmentation: When data is too large to be transmitted within the Maximum Transmission Unit (MTU) of a network, the Network Layer can break it into smaller fragments for transmission.
- Reassembly: At the receiving end, these fragments are reassembled to reconstruct the original data.

4. Error Handling and Packet Filtering:

- Error Detection: The Network Layer can detect errors in transmitted packets and often includes error-checking mechanisms.
- Packet Filtering: Using information in packet headers, the Network Layer can filter incoming packets based on rules or criteria, enhancing network security.

5. Congestion Control:

 Managing Network Traffic: The Network Layer helps in controlling and managing network congestion by implementing various mechanisms to prevent network overload.

6. Quality of Service (QoS):

 Prioritization: Network Layer protocols and technologies allow for prioritizing certain types of traffic based on quality of service requirements, ensuring better performance for critical data.

7. Inter-Network Communication:

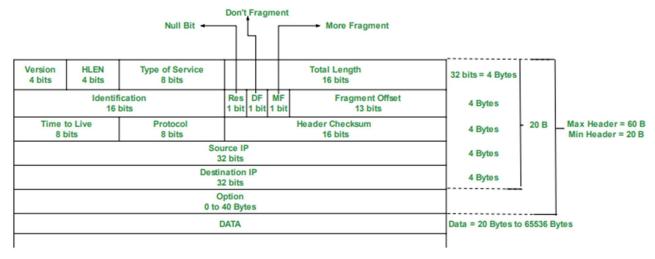
 Interconnecting Networks: The Network Layer enables communication between different networks, allowing data to pass through different types of networks, regardless of their internal structures.

8. Encapsulation and Decapsulation:

- Encapsulation: Data from upper layers is encapsulated into packets with header information at the Network Layer before transmission.
- Decapsulation: At the receiving end, this header information is stripped off, revealing the original data from upper layers.

Q.10] Draw and explain Header format of IPV4.

ANS: The IPv4 header contains essential information for routing and delivering packets across networks. Here's a breakdown of the IPv4 header format:



- 1. Version (4 bits): Specifies the version of IP being used. For IPv4, this field carries the value 4.
- 2. IHL (Internet Header Length) (4 bits): Represents the length of the IPv4 header in 32-bit words. The minimum value is 5, indicating a 20-byte header. This field allows for variable header length due to options.
- 3. Type of Service (8 bits): Originally designed for QoS (Quality of Service) information but is now part of the Differentiated Services field.
- 4. Total Length (16 bits): Indicates the total length of the IPv4 packet, including header and data, in bytes.
- 5. Identification (16 bits): Helps in the reassembly of fragmented packets, assigning a unique identification value to each fragmented packet originating from the same source.
- 6. Flags (3 bits) and Fragment Offset (13 bits):
 - Flags: The three bits are used to control fragmentation. The most significant bit (bit 0) indicates if the packet can be fragmented. The second bit (bit 1) denotes if more fragments follow.
 - Fragment Offset: Specifies the position of the fragment in the original unfragmented packet.
- 7. Time to Live (TTL) (8 bits): Represents the maximum number of hops or routers a packet can traverse before being discarded. Decremented by one at each hop to prevent packets from circulating indefinitely.
- 8. Protocol (8 bits): Identifies the protocol of the data payload carried in the packet (e.g., TCP, UDP, ICMP).
- 9. Header Checksum (16 bits): Helps verify the integrity of the header by performing a mathematical checksum calculation.
- 10. Source Address (32 bits) and Destination Address (32 bits): Represent the IP addresses of the source and destination, respectively.
- 11. Options (Variable): The options field allows for additional features such as record route, timestamp, and security options, among others.
- 12. Padding (Variable): If the header length is not a multiple of 32 bits, padding is used to fill the remaining bits.

Q.11] Give short note on OSPF.

ANS: OSPF (Open Shortest Path First) is a widely used link-state routing protocol designed for interior gateway routing in IP networks. Here's an overview:

1. Link-State Protocol:

- OSPF operates as a link-state routing protocol, meaning routers share information about their directly connected neighbors and the state of those links.
- Each router constructs a database called the Link State Database (LSDB) to map the network's topology.

2. Areas and Hierarchical Design:

- OSPF networks are divided into areas, enhancing scalability and reducing the amount of routing information shared between routers.
- Routers within an area have detailed knowledge of that area's topology,
 while summarized information is shared between areas.

3. Cost-Based Routing:

- OSPF uses a metric called cost, which is based on the bandwidth of links.
 Lower-cost paths are favored.
- The path with the lowest cost (sum of costs of all traversed links) to a
 destination is chosen.

4. Convergence and Fast Reaction to Network Changes:

- OSPF reacts quickly to network changes. When a change occurs, such as a link going down, routers immediately update their LSDB and propagate the changes.
- This rapid reaction helps in achieving quick convergence, ensuring that routers quickly update their routing tables.

5. Hierarchical Design and Scalability:

• OSPF's hierarchical structure with areas allows for scalability, as it limits the amount of routing information and updates that routers need to handle.

6. Security and Authentication:

 OSPF supports authentication between OSPF routers to prevent unauthorized routers from joining the OSPF network.

7. Types of OSPF Routers:

- Internal Routers: Those with all interfaces in a single OSPF area.
- Area Border Routers (ABR): Connect multiple areas and have interfaces in more than one OSPF area.
- Autonomous System Boundary Routers (ASBR): Connect OSPF to other routing domains, exchanging routing information between OSPF and other protocols.

Q.12] Explain distance vector routing algorithm.

ANS: Here's a simplified explanation of the distance vector routing algorithm:

- 1. Initialization: Each router starts by knowing its directly connected neighbors and their distances (costs).
- 2. Exchange of Distance Vectors: Routers periodically exchange their distance vectors with their neighbors. A distance vector includes the distance (cost) to each destination known by the router.
- 3. Updating Distance Vectors: When a router receives a distance vector from a neighbor, it updates its own distance vector based on the information received. It calculates the shortest distance to each destination by adding the cost received from the neighbor to the distance from itself to the neighbor.
- 4. Distance Vector Updates: After updating its distance vector, if any changes occur, such as a shorter path to a destination, the router sends its updated distance vector to its neighbors.
- 5. Convergence: Routers continue to exchange and update their distance vectors until no more changes occur. This process is known as convergence, and it ensures that all routers have consistent and up-to-date information about the network topology and shortest paths.
- 6. Handling Changes: If there are changes in the network, such as link failures or changes in link costs, routers detect these changes through the absence of updates or through the reception of new distance vectors with different costs. They then adjust their distance vectors accordingly and propagate the changes to their neighbors.
- 7. Loop Prevention: To prevent loops, routers use techniques such as split horizon and poison reverse. Split horizon prevents a router from advertising a route back to the neighbor from which it was learned, and poison reverse advertises a route with an infinite metric (cost) back to the neighbor from which it was learned.
- 8. Periodic Updates: Routers periodically exchange their distance vectors to ensure that their routing tables remain up to date, even if there are no changes in the network topology.

- Q.13] A host was given the 192. 168.2.64 /25 IP address, indicate:
- i) Net mask of the network in dotted decimal notation.
- ii) The network address to which the host belongs.
- iii) The network broadcast address to which the host belongs.
- iv) The total number of hosts available in the network.

ANS: Sure, let's break it down:

- i) Net mask of the network in dotted decimal notation:
 - The subnet mask for a /25 network is 255.255.128 in dotted decimal notation.
- ii) The network address to which the host belongs:
 - To find the network address, you can obtain it by performing a bitwise AND operation between the IP address and the subnet mask. In this case: Network address = IP address AND Subnet mask = 192.168.2.64 AND 255.255.255.128 = 192.168.2.0
- iii) The network broadcast address to which the host belongs:
 - The broadcast address for the network can be calculated by taking the network address and setting all the host bits to 1. In this case, the last bit of the host portion of the address is 1, so the broadcast address would be: Broadcast address = Network address OR (2^host bits - 1) = 192.168.2.0 OR 127 = 192.168.2.127
- iv) The total number of hosts available in the network:
 - For a /25 subnet, you have 7 bits available for hosts (32 25 = 7). This gives a
 total of 2^7 2 = 126 usable host addresses, because the network address and
 broadcast address cannot be assigned to hosts.

Q.14] What is ARP? How it works?

ANS: ARP stands for Address Resolution Protocol. It's a fundamental protocol used in computer networks, specifically in the Internet Protocol (IP) suite, to translate IP addresses into physical addresses (MAC addresses) within a local network. Here's how it works in simple points:

- 1. Purpose: ARP helps devices on a local network find the hardware (MAC) address of a device when given its IP address.
- 2. Scenario: Imagine you want to send data to another device on your local network. You have its IP address but need its MAC address to send the data directly to it.
- 3. ARP Request: Your device broadcasts an ARP request packet onto the network, asking, "Who has this IP address?"
- 4. Device Response: The device with the matching IP address replies with its MAC address directly to the requesting device.
- 5. ARP Cache: Your device stores this mapping (IP to MAC address) in its ARP cache for future use, preventing the need for repeated ARP requests for the same device.
- 6. Address Resolution: Once your device receives the MAC address, it can encapsulate the data packet with the MAC address of the recipient and send it directly over the local network.
- 7. Dynamic Process: ARP is dynamic; the mappings in ARP caches expire after a certain time to accommodate changes in the network, and ARP requests are sent as needed to update or obtain mappings.
- 8. Broadcast Nature: ARP operates at the data link layer and uses broadcast messages, meaning ARP requests are sent to all devices on the local network, but only the device with the matching IP address responds.

Q.15] Suppose a router has built up the routing table as shown in the following table. The router can deliver packets directly over interfaces ethO and eth1, or it can forward packets to other routers in the table.

Destination Netmask Gateway 156.26.10.0 255.255.255.192 Etho 156.26.10.128 255.255.255.128 Eth1 156.26.0.0 255.255.0.0 156.26.10.1

156.26.0.0 255.255.0.0 156.26.10.1 0.0.0.0 156.10.1.30

Describe what the router does with a packet addressed to each of the following destinations

i) 156.26.10.66

ii) 156.26.10.226

iii) 168.130.12.27

ANS: Sure, here's a breakdown of the routing table:

- 1. Destination: 156.26.10.0
 - Netmask: 255.255.255.192
 - Gateway: Etho
 - This entry indicates that any packet with a destination address falling within the range of 156.26.10.0 to 156.26.10.63 (since the subnet mask is 255.255.255.192, which allows for 64 addresses) should be sent out through interface EthO directly.
- 2. Destination: 156.26.10.128
 - Netmask: 255.255.255.128
 - Gateway: Eth1
 - This entry specifies that any packet with a destination address in the range of 156.26.10.128 to 156.26.10.255 (since the subnet mask is 255.255.255.128, allowing for 128 addresses) should be sent out through interface Eth1 directly.
- 3. Destination: 156.26.0.0
 - Netmask: 255.255.0.0
 - Gateway: 156.26.10.1
 - This entry suggests that any packet with a destination address within the range of 156.26.0.0 to 156.26.255.255 (since the subnet mask is 255.255.0.0, allowing for 65,536 addresses) should be forwarded to the gateway address 156.26.10.1, presumably another router, for further routing.
- 4. Destination: 0.0.0.0
 - Netmask: 0.0.0.0
 - o Gateway: 156.10.1.30
 - This is a default route entry, indicating that any packet with a destination address not matching any specific entries in the routing table should be sent to the gateway address 156.10.1.30, which likely represents an exit point to another network or the internet.

Sure, let's break it down:

- i) 156.26.10.66
 - The destination IP falls within the range of the first entry in the routing table (156.26.10.0 with netmask 255.255.192).
 - Therefore, the router delivers the packet directly over interface etho.

ii) 156.26.10.226

- The destination IP falls within the range of the second entry in the routing table (156.26.10.128 with netmask 255.255.128).
- Hence, the router delivers the packet directly over interface eth1.

iii) 168.130.12.27

- The destination IP does not match any of the entries in the routing table.
- In such cases, the router looks for the most specific match, which in this case is the default route (0.0.0.0 with netmask 0.0.0.0).
- The packet is then forwarded to the gateway specified for the default route, which is 156.10.1.30.

Q.16] Explain Network Address Translation (NAT) process.

ANS: here's a simple breakdown of the Network Address Translation (NAT) process:

1. Introduction: NAT is a process used in routers to modify network address information in packet headers while they are in transit across a traffic routing device.

2. Private and Public IP Addresses:

- NAT is often used to allow devices with private IP addresses to communicate with devices on the internet using public IP addresses.
- Private IP addresses are reserved for use within private networks and are not routable over the internet. Public IP addresses are routable over the internet.

3. Translation Table:

- The NAT device maintains a translation table that maps private IP addresses to public IP addresses.
- When a packet arrives at the NAT device, it looks up the source IP address in its translation table to determine if it needs to translate the address.

4. Types of NAT:

- There are different types of NAT, including:
 - Static NAT: Maps a private IP address to a specific public IP address.
 - Dynamic NAT: Maps private IP addresses to public IP addresses from a pool of available addresses.
 - PAT (Port Address Translation): Maps multiple private IP addresses to a single public IP address by using different port numbers.

5. Translation Process:

- When a packet from a device with a private IP address wants to communicate with a device on the internet, the NAT device replaces the private source IP address with a public IP address from its translation table.
- It also modifies the source port number if using PAT.

6. Routing:

 The packet is then forwarded to its destination on the internet with the modified address information.

7. Response Handling:

 When the response packet comes back from the internet, the NAT device uses the translation table to determine which private IP address the packet should be forwarded to.

8. Conclusion:

- NAT helps conserve public IP addresses and adds an extra layer of security by hiding the internal network structure.
- It's a fundamental part of how networks manage the limited availability of public IP addresses.

Q.17] Give short note on:

- i) ARP
- ii) RARP

ANS: here's a brief overview of ARP (Address Resolution Protocol) and RARP (Reverse Address Resolution Protocol) in simple point form:

ARP (Address Resolution Protocol):

- 1. Purpose: ARP is used to map a known IP address to a corresponding MAC (Media Access Control) address on a local network.
- 2. Operation: When a device needs to communicate with another device on the same network, it sends out an ARP request packet containing the IP address it wants to reach.
- 3. Response: The device with the corresponding IP address replies with its MAC address, allowing the requesting device to establish communication.
- 4. Cache: ARP maintains a cache (ARP table) of recently resolved IP to MAC address mappings to speed up future communications.

RARP (Reverse Address Resolution Protocol):

- 1. Purpose: RARP performs the opposite function of ARP by mapping a known MAC address to an IP address.
- 2. Use Case: RARP was primarily used in diskless workstations to obtain an IP address at boot time.
- 3. Operation: A device sends out a RARP request packet containing its MAC address and waits for a response containing the corresponding IP address.
- 4. Deprecated: RARP has been largely replaced by DHCP (Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol) for IP address assignment in modern networks due to its limitations and security concerns.

Q.18] Explain Distance vector routing.

ANS: here's a simple breakdown of distance vector routing:

- 1. Basic Concept: Distance vector routing is a type of routing algorithm used in computer networks to determine the best path for data packets to travel from one node to another.
- 2. Routing Table: Each node in the network maintains a routing table that lists the available destinations and the cost (or distance) to reach them.
- 3. Neighbor Communication: Nodes periodically exchange information with their neighboring nodes. They share their routing tables, which include information about the cost to reach various destinations.
- 4. Updating Routes: When a node receives information from its neighbor about a better route to a destination, it updates its routing table accordingly. This process continues iteratively, with nodes continually updating their routing tables based on the latest information received from neighbors.
- 5. Distance Calculation: The "distance" in distance vector routing typically refers to some metric, such as the number of hops (number of intermediate nodes) or the latency (time delay) between nodes.
- 6. Bellman-Ford Algorithm: Distance vector routing is often implemented using the Bellman-Ford algorithm, which calculates the shortest path from one node to all other nodes in the network.
- 7. Convergence: Over time, with nodes exchanging information and updating their routing tables, the network converges to a state where each node has the most efficient routes to all destinations.
- 8. Issues: Distance vector routing algorithms can suffer from problems like slow convergence and the "count-to-infinity" problem, where incorrect routing information propagates through the network.
- 9. Examples: The Routing Information Protocol (RIP) is a common example of a distance vector routing protocol used in older networks. It's relatively simple to implement but less efficient than more modern protocols like OSPF (Open Shortest Path First).

Q.19] Differentiate between Circuit Switching, Message Switching and Packet Switching.

ANS: here's a simple point-wise comparison:

Circuit Switching:

- 1. Dedicated Path: Establishes a dedicated communication path between sender and receiver.
- 2. Resources Reservation: Resources (bandwidth) are allocated for the entire duration of the communication.
- 3. Fixed Route: Once established, the route remains fixed until the communication ends.
- 4. Example: Traditional telephone networks.

Message Switching:

- 1. Store-and-Forward: Messages are stored at intermediate nodes before being forwarded to the next node.
- 2. No Dedicated Path: Each message can take a different path to reach its destination.
- 3. Variable Delivery Time: Delivery time can vary depending on network congestion and routing decisions.
- 4. Example: Email and early computer networks like ARPANET.

Packet Switching:

- 1. Data Divided into Packets: Data is divided into small packets for transmission.
- 2. Routing Decisions: Each packet can take a different route to reach its destination.
- 3. Shared Resources: Bandwidth is shared among multiple users, and packets may be interleaved.
- 4. Example: Internet Protocol (IP) networks like the modern internet.

Q.20] Give short note on:

- i) ICMP
- ii) IGMP

ANS: here's a short note on ICMP (Internet Control Message Protocol) and IGMP (Internet Group Management Protocol) in simple point form:

ICMP:

- 1. Purpose: ICMP is used for communication between network devices to report errors and exchange control messages.
- 2. Error Reporting: It helps in reporting errors like unreachable hosts or network, time exceeded during packet transmission, etc.
- 3. Ping: ICMP is also used for the popular ping utility, which sends echo requests to check if a host is reachable and measure round-trip time.
- 4. Traceroute: Traceroute uses ICMP to trace the path that packets take to reach a destination, helping diagnose network issues.
- 5. Router Advertisement/Detection: ICMP messages are used by routers to advertise their presence and by hosts to detect routers on the network.

IGMP:

- 1. Purpose: IGMP is used by hosts and multicast routers to manage multicast group membership within a network segment.
- 2. Multicast Groups: It enables hosts to join or leave multicast groups, allowing them to receive multicast traffic for specific applications.
- 3. Membership Queries: Routers periodically send membership queries to determine which multicast groups have active members on their attached networks.
- 4. Joining and Leaving Groups: Hosts send IGMP messages to join multicast groups when they want to receive multicast traffic, and they send leave messages when they no longer wish to receive traffic for a particular group.
- 5. Snooping: IGMP snooping switches listen to IGMP messages to optimize multicast traffic forwarding, only sending multicast packets to ports with interested receivers.

Q.21] Explain Link state routing.

ANS: here's a simple explanation of link-state routing in point form:

- Nodes and Links: In link-state routing, a network is represented as a graph where nodes represent routers or switches, and links represent the connections between them.
- 2. Topology Information: Each node in the network maintains a map of the entire network topology, including all nodes and links. This map is called a Link State Database (LSDB).
- 3. Link State Packets (LSPs): Periodically, each node broadcasts small packets called Link State Packets (LSPs) to inform other nodes about its directly connected links and their status.
- 4. LSDB Synchronization: All nodes in the network exchange LSPs to build and update their LSDBs. This ensures that each node has an accurate and consistent view of the network topology.
- 5. Shortest Path Calculation: Using the information from the LSDB, each node independently calculates the shortest path to every other node in the network using algorithms like Dijkstra's algorithm.
- 6. Routing Table Construction: Based on the shortest path calculations, each node constructs its routing table, which contains information about the next hop for reaching each destination node in the network.
- 7. Dynamic Updates: Link-state routing protocols, such as OSPF (Open Shortest Path First) and IS-IS (Intermediate System to Intermediate System), dynamically update routing information in response to changes in the network topology, such as link failures or additions.
- 8. Scalability and Convergence: Link-state routing protocols provide fast convergence and scale well to large networks because each node only needs to maintain information about its directly connected neighbors and the overall network topology, rather than the entire routing table of the network.

Q.22] 192.168.5.51 / 26 for given address find out the i. subnet mask? ii. what is first ip address for given series?, iii. what is last ip address for given series?

ANS: Sure, let's break it down:

i. Subnet Mask:

- Given IP address: 192.168.5.51/26
- The subnet mask is represented by the "/26" notation, which means the first 26 bits of the address are the network portion, and the remaining bits are for hosts.
- To convert "/26" to a subnet mask:
 - A subnet mask of /26 means 26 bits are for the network and the remaining 6 bits are for hosts.
 - o In binary, the first 26 bits are all 1s, followed by 6 Os: 11111111.11111111.111111111.1100000
 - Converting this binary to decimal gives us the subnet mask:
 255.255.255.192

ii. First IP Address:

- To find the first IP address in the given series, we need to identify the network address and add 1 to it.
- Network address:
 - The given IP address is 192.168.5.51/26.
 - The subnet mask is 255.255.255.192, which means the network address increment is 64 (2⁶).
 - So, the network address for this IP is 192.168.5.0.
- Adding 1 to the network address gives us the first usable IP address: 192.168.5.1

iii. Last IP Address:

- To find the last IP address in the given series, we need to identify the broadcast address and subtract 1 from it.
- Broadcast address:
 - The broadcast address is the last address in the network range and is obtained by setting all host bits to 1.
 - For the given subnet mask /26, the host bits are 6, so the increment between addresses is 64.
 - The broadcast address is 192.168.5.63 (the last address before the next network starts).
- Subtracting 1 from the broadcast address gives us the last usable IP address: 192.168.5.62

So, summarizing:

i. Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.192ii. First IP Address: 192.168.5.1iii. Last IP Address: 192.168.5.62