

Netaji Subhas University of Technology

Lab Report

Advanced Computer Networks

Name Kushagra Lakhwani

Roll No. 2021UCI8036

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Abstract

The practical lab report "Advanced Computer Networks" is the original and unmodified content submitted by Kushagra Lakhwani (Roll No. 2021UCI8036).

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Index

1	IPv4 Address Conversion	3	
2	IP Address Classes	5	
3	Distance Vector Routing Algorithm	7	
4	Bellman-Ford Algorithm	9	
5	Dijkstra's Algorithm	11	

1 IPv4 Address Conversion

1.1 Objective

To convert a binary IP address into dotted decimal and vice versa.

1.2 Source Code

```
* Function to convert binary IP address to dotted decimal
 * @param binaryIP - binary IP address
 st Oreturn dottedDecimal - dotted decimal IP address
string binaryToDottedDecimal(const string &binaryIP) {
 string dottedDecimal = "";
 for (int i = 0; i < 32; i += 8) {
   bitset<8> octet(binaryIP.substr(i, 8));
   dottedDecimal += to_string(octet.to_ulong());
   if (i < 24)
      dottedDecimal += ".";
 }
 return dottedDecimal;
}
 * Function to convert dotted decimal IP address to binary
 * Oparam dottedDecimal - dotted decimal IP address
 * @return binaryIP - binary IP address
string dottedDecimalToBinary(const string &dottedDecimal) {
 string binaryIP = "";
 size_t start = 0;
 size_t end = dottedDecimal.find(".");
 while (end != string::npos) {
    int octet = stoi(dottedDecimal.substr(start, end - start));
   binaryIP += bitset<8>(octet).to_string();
   start = end + 1;
    end = dottedDecimal.find(".", start);
 int octet = stoi(dottedDecimal.substr(start));
 binaryIP += bitset<8>(octet).to_string();
 return binaryIP;
}
```

1.3 Output

1.3.1 Binary to dotted decimal IP address

```
$ ./ipv4
1. Binary to dotted decimal IP address
2. Dotted decimal to binary IP address
Enter your choice: 1
Enter binary IP address (32 bits): 1100000010100000000000010000001
Dotted Decimal IP address: 192.168.1.1
```

1.3.2 Dotted decimal to binary IP address

```
$ ./ipv4
1. Binary to dotted decimal IP address
2. Dotted decimal to binary IP address
Enter your choice: 2
Enter dotted decimal IP address (e.g., 192.168.1.1): 203.128.56.2
Binary IP address: 1100101110000000001110000000010
```

2 IP Address Classes

2.1 Objective

To identify the class of an IP address.

2.2 Theory

In IPv4, IP addresses are divided into five classes: A, B, C, D, and E. Each class has its own range of valid IP addresses and is used for specific purposes.

Class A: - Range: 1.0.0.0 to 126.255.255.255

- Subnet Mask: 255.0.0.0

Address Allocation: Class A addresses are typically used by large organizations and corporations. They can support a very large number of hosts on a single network.

Class B: - Range: 128.0.0.0 to 191.255.255.255

- Subnet Mask: 255.255.0.0

 Address Allocation: Class B addresses are used by medium-sized organizations. They offer a moderate number of network and host addresses.

Class C: - Range: 192.0.0.0 to 223.255.255.255

- Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.0

 Address Allocation: Class C addresses are commonly used by small organizations and businesses. They provide a limited number of network addresses but a larger number of host addresses.

Class D: - Range: 224.0.0.0 to 239.255.255.255

 Address Allocation: Class D addresses are reserved for multicast groups and are not used for traditional unicast communication. They are used for one-to-many or many-to-many communication.

Class E: - Range: 240.0.0.0 to 255.255.255.255

 Address Allocation: Class E addresses are reserved for experimental or research purposes and are not typically used in public networks. They are reserved for future use and not intended for general use.

2.3 Source Code

```
/**
 * Determine the class based on the first octet
 * Oparam ipAddress - IP address
 * @return - 'A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', or 'X'
char getIPv4Class(const string &ipAddress) {
  int firstOctet = stoi(ipAddress.substr(0, ipAddress.find(".")));
  if (firstOctet >= 1 && firstOctet <= 126) {</pre>
    return 'A';
  } else if (firstOctet \geq 128 && firstOctet \leq 191) {
    return 'B';
  } else if (firstOctet >= 192 && firstOctet <= 223) {
   return 'C';
  } else if (firstOctet \geq 224 && firstOctet \leq 239) {
    return 'D';
  } else if (firstOctet \geq 240 && firstOctet \leq 255) {
    return 'E';
  } else {
    return 'X'; // 'X' indicates an invalid IPv4 address
  }
}
```

2.4 Output

```
$ ./ipv4class
Enter an IPv4 address: 192.168.1.1
Class: C
```

3 Distance Vector Routing Algorithm

3.1 Objective

To implement the Distance-Vector Routing algorithm.

3.2 Theory

A distance-vector routing (DVR) protocol requires that a router inform its neighbors of topology changes periodically. Historically known as the old *ARPANET* routing algorithm or known as *Bellman-Ford* algorithm.

Each router maintains a Distance Vector table containing the distance between itself and *all* possible destination nodes. Distances, based on a chosen metric, are computed using information from the neighbors' distance vectors.

3.3 Information Kept by DV Router

- Each router has an ID.
- Associated with each link connected to a router, there is a link cost (static or dynamic).
- Intermediate hops.

3.4 Distance Vector Table Initialization

- Distance to itself = 0
- Distance to all other routers = infinity number.

3.5 Distance Vector Algorithm

- 1. A router transmits its distance vector to each of its neighbors in a routing packet.
- 2. Each router receives and saves the most recently received distance vector from each of its neighbors.
- 3. A router recalculates its distance vector when:
 - It receives a distance vector from a neighbor containing different information than before.
 - It discovers that a link to a neighbor has gone down.

4. The DV calculation is based on minimizing the cost to each destination:

Dx(y) = Estimate of least cost from x to y

C(x, v) = Node x knows cost to each neighbor v

 $Dx = [Dx(y) : y \in N] = \text{Node } x \text{ maintains distance vector}$

Node x also maintains its neighbors' distance vectors:

For each neighbor v, x maintains $Dv = [Dv(y) : y \in N]$

4 Bellman-Ford Algorithm

4.1 Objective

To implement the Bellman-Ford algorithm to find the shortest path in a weighted graph.

4.2 Theory

The Bellman-Ford algorithm is used to find the shortest paths from a single source vertex to all other vertices in a weighted graph, even when the graph contains negative weight edges. While it's not the most efficient algorithm for all cases (especially for graphs with non-negative weights, where Dijkstra's algorithm is typically faster),

4.3 Source Code

```
struct Edge {
  int source, destination, weight;
};
class Graph {
 int V, E;
 vector<Edge> edges;
public:
 Graph(int vertices, int edges);
 void addEdge(int source, int destination, int weight);
 void bellmanFord(int source);
};
Graph::Graph(int vertices, int edges) : V(vertices), E(edges) {}
void Graph::addEdge(int source, int destination, int weight) {
  edges.push_back({source, destination, weight});
}
void Graph::bellmanFord(int source) {
 vector<int> distance(V, numeric_limits<int>::max());
 distance[source] = 0;
 for (int i = 1; i < V; ++i) {
   for (const Edge &edge : edges) {
      int u = edge.source, v = edge.destination, w = edge.weight;
      if (distance[u] != numeric_limits<int>::max() &&
          distance[u] + w < distance[v]) {</pre>
        distance[v] = distance[u] + w;
   }
 }
```

```
// Check for negative weight cycles
for (const Edge &edge : edges) {
   int u = edge.source, v = edge.destination, w = edge.weight;
   if (distance[u] != numeric_limits<int>::max() &&
        distance[u] + w < distance[v]) {
      cout << "Graph contains a negative weight cycle.\n";
      return;
   }
}

// Print shortest distances from the source vertex
cout << "Vertex\tDistance from Source\n";
for (int i = 0; i < V; ++i) {
   cout << i << "\t" << distance[i] << "\n";
}
}</pre>
```

4.4 Output

```
Enter the number of vertices and edges: 3 4

Enter edge 1 (source, destination, weight): 0 1 5

Enter edge 2 (source, destination, weight): 1 0 3

Enter edge 3 (source, destination, weight): 1 2 -1

Enter edge 4 (source, destination, weight): 2 0 1

Enter the source vertex: 2

Vertex Distance from Source

0 1

1 6

2 0
```

5 Dijkstra's Algorithm

5.1 Objective

To implement Dijkstra's algorithm to find the shortest path in a weighted graph.

5.2 Theory

Dijkstra's algorithm is an algorithm for finding the shortest paths between nodes in a graph, which may represent, for example, road networks. It was conceived by computer scientist Edsger W. Dijkstra in 1956 and published three years later.

Its time complexity is $O(|E| + |V| \log |V|)$, where |E| is the number of edges and |V| is the number of vertices. However, this algorithm is only applicable to graphs with positive edge weights.

5.3 Source Code

```
void dijkstra(vector<vector<pair<int, 11>>> &G, int src, vector<11> &dist) {
 vector<bool> used(G.size(), false);
 dist[src] = 0;
 auto cmp = [&](int i, int j) { return dist[i] > dist[j]; };
 priority_queue<int, vector<int>, decltype(cmp)> pq(cmp);
 pq.push(src);
 while (!pq.empty()) {
   auto u = pq.top();
   pq.pop();
   used[u] = true;
   for (auto [v, w] : G[u]) {
      if (!used[v] \&\& dist[v] > dist[u] + w) {
        dist[v] = dist[u] + w;
        pq.push(v);
     }
   }
 }
}
int main() {
 int n, m; // Number of nodes and edges respectively
 cin >> n >> m;
 vector<vector<pair<int, 11>>> G(n); // Initialize the graph with n nodes
 // Read the edges and their weights
 for (int i = 0; i < m; ++i) {
   int u, v;
   11 w;
   cin >> u >> v >> w;
    G[u].emplace_back(v, w);
```

5.4 Output

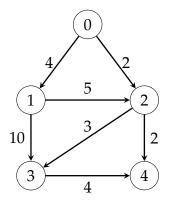


Figure 1: Graph

```
5 7
    0 1 4
    0 2 2
    1 2 5
    1 3 10
    2 3 3
    2 4 2
    3 4 4

0

Shortest distances from node 0:

Node 0: 0

Node 1: 4

Node 2: 2

Node 3: 5

Node 4: 4
```