

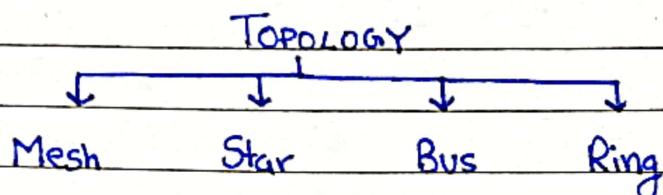


# UNIT-1 : INTRODUCTION CONCEPTS

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B) Explain the Bus, Star, Ring, Hybrid and Tree network topologies giving their advantages and disadvantages. 2019S

(b) Categorize three basic topologies and give an advantage and disadvantage of each type. 2019M

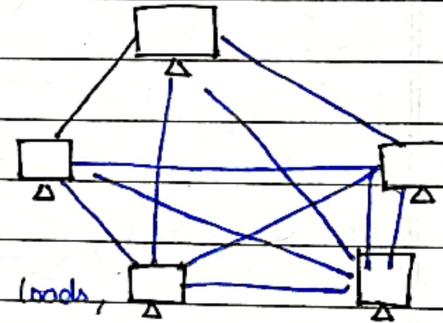


## MESH TOPOLOGY

In mesh topology, every device has a dedicated point to point link to every other device

$$\# \text{ cables} = nC_2$$

$$\# \text{ ports} = n(n-1)$$



### Advantages:

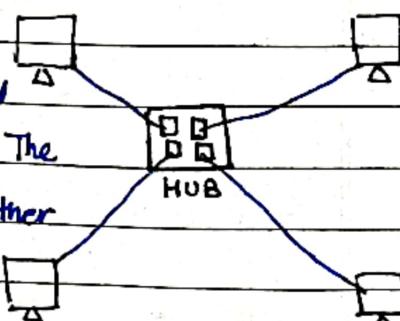
- Dedicated links insure individual data (pack) eliminating traffic problems.
- Robustness: System remains functional even if a link is broken.
- Enhance privacy and security due to dedicated links.
- Easy fault identification and isolation through point-to-point links.

### Disadvantages:

- Increased installation complexities due to the need for every device to connect to every other.
- Increased amount of cabling and potentially exceeding available space.
- High cost associated with the hardware for connecting each link.

## STAR TOPOLOGY

In star topology, each device has a dedicated p-to-p link only to a central controller (hub). The devices are not connected directly to each other



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# cables =  $n$

# ports =  $n+1$  (including the switch or hub)

### Advantages:

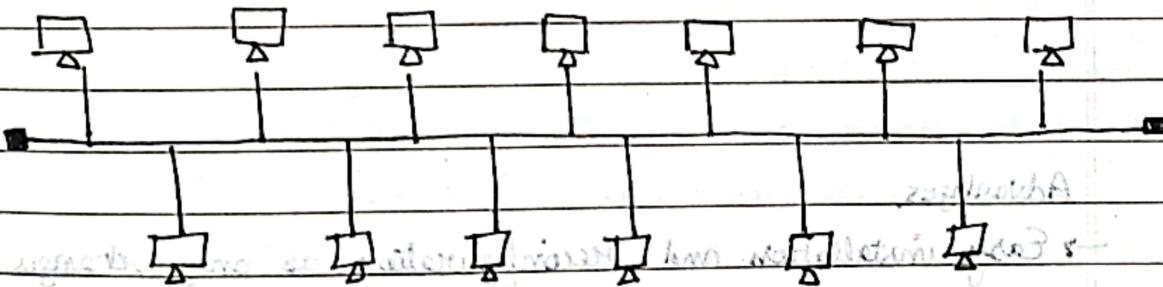
- Cost effective compared to mesh topology.
- Simple installation as each device needs one link and I/O ports.
- Robust as there is no single point failure.
- The hub enables monitoring and bypassing of defective links.

### Disadvantages:

- If the hub fails, the entire system is affected.
- Cable dependency.

## BUS TOPOLOGY

→ Bus topology, is a multipoint topology where one long cable acts as a backbone to link all devices in network.



# cables =  $n+1$

# ports =  $n$

### Advantages:

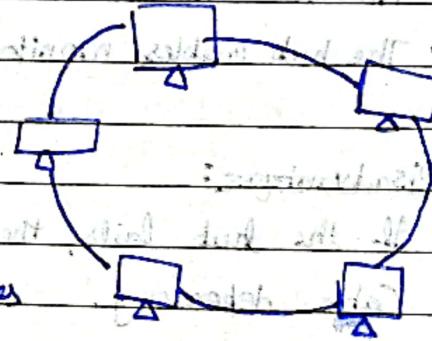
- Easy installation of nodes connected to nodes by drop lines.
- Reduced cabling compared to mesh and star.
- Elimination of redundant cabling.

### Disadvantages

- adding new devices is challenging → limited scalability
- Fault in the bus cable halts all transmission → degradation.
- Degradation in quality due to signal reflection at taps.

### RING TOPOLOGY

In a ring topology, each device on a single loop has a dedicated point-to-point connection with only two devices on either side of it. A signal is passed along the ring in one direction from device to device, until it reaches destination.



$$\# \text{ cables} = n$$

$$\# \text{ ports} = 2n$$

### Advantages

- Easy installation and reconfiguration as only changes to two connections for addition / removal of devices are required.
- Simplified fault isolation through circulating signals to issue alarms if no signal is received.
- Constraints on max. length allow to manage media and traffic.

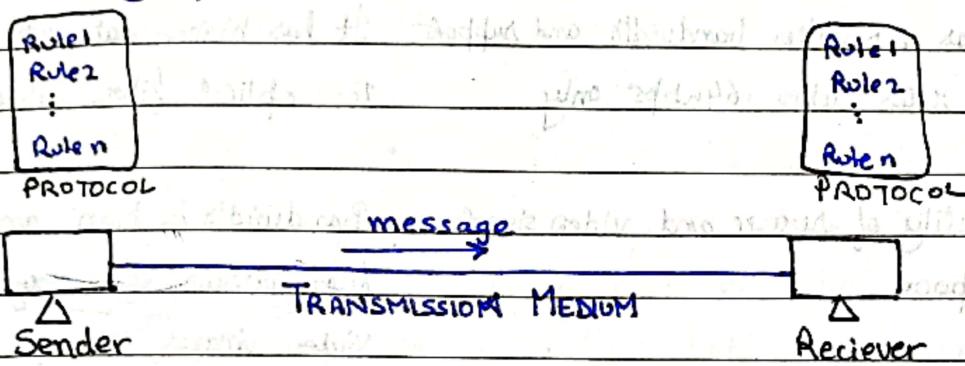
### Disadvantages

- Break in ring can disable entire network in simple unidirectional ring.
- Vulnerability in ring due to single connection to network.
- not wt.

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1(a) Explain the five components of a data communication system. 2020M

Data communication is the process of transferring data electronically from one place to other



The components are:-

- 1) Message: It is the data or information to be communicated. It may consist of text, number, picture, sound, video etc.
- 2) Sender: It is the device that sends the message. It is also called Source or transmitter which can be a computer, fax machine or mobile phone etc.
- 3) Reciever: It is the device that receives the message. It is called sink which must be able to accept the message. It can be a computer, printer, fax machine, mobile phone etc.
- 4) Transmission Medium: It is the path through which messages are transferred from one place to another. It is also called communication channel. It is a physical cable or a wireless medium.
- 5) Encoder and Decoder: Encoder is a device that converts digital signals in a form that can pass-through a transmission medium. Decoder converts the encoded signal into digital form using protocol which is a set of rules.

c) Differentiate Narrow band and broad band ISDN. 2023M [3] [CO1]

### NARROW BAND ISDN

→ It has a smaller bandwidth and supports data rates upto 64kbps only

→ Quality of voice and video signals is poor

→ N-ISDN is divided into two  
2B + 1D

**Application:** Small businesses for voice calls, basic internet, faxing etc.

### BROAD BAND ISDN

It has higher data rates upto 1Gbps due to optical fibre cable use

Bandwidth is high and can allow transmission of very high quality video images through it.

B-ISDN is divided into several B channels (30 or 23) along a D channel.

Q.5

[a] How do guided media differ from unguided media? Explain with suitable examples. 2019S

[a] How do guided media differ from unguided media? Explain with suitable examples. 2018S

### GUIDED MEDIA

Wired communication occurs through bounded transmission media.

Signal propagates through wires.

It is used for point to point comm.

Signals are in form of voltage, current, photons

cost effective

(g) Twisted Pair Wires, Coaxial Cables

Optical fibre cable

### UNGUIDED MEDIA

Wireless communication occurs through unbounded transmission media.

Signal propagates through air.

It is suited for radio broadcast (in all dir).

Signals are in form of electromagnetic waves.

Expensive and fast aging of wave

Microwave, Radio waves / IR light

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Q.1

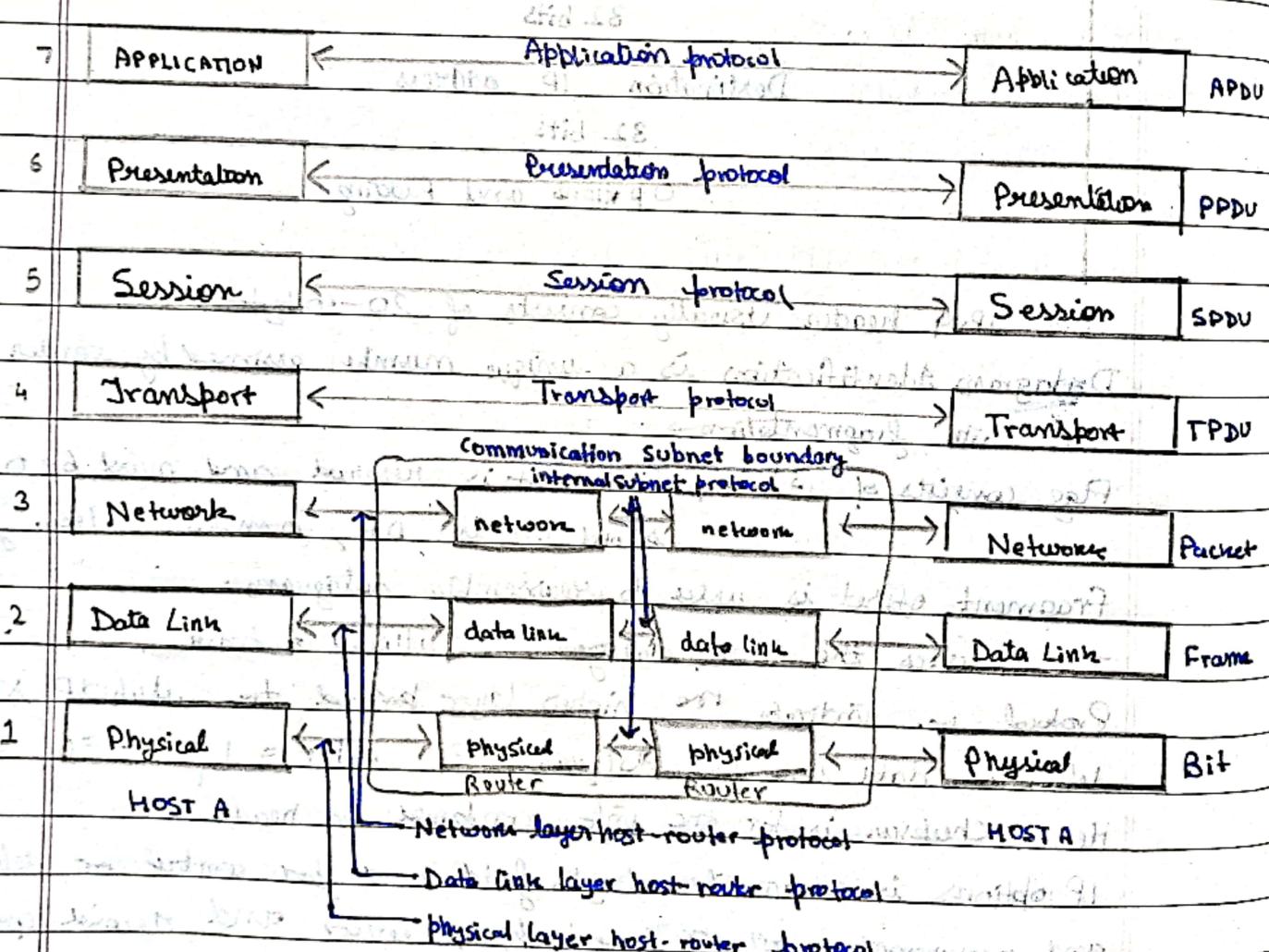
[a] What is OSI reference model? Explain responsibilities of various layers of OSI model. And also Compare and contrast OSI model with TCP/IP model. 2019S

Q.1

[a] What is OSI reference model? Explain responsibilities of various layers of OSI model. And also Compare and contrast OSI model with TCP/IP model. 2018 S

The OSI (Open Systems Interconnection) Reference Model, developed by ISO, is a conceptual framework with seven layers, each serving a distinct communication function.

It aims for international standardization, providing a structured approach for network protocol and design.



The responsibilities of various layers of OSI reference model are:

Q.1

A) What are the various layers of OSI model? Compare and contrast OSI model with TCP/IP model

2019S

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a. Explain OSI layers in Computer Networking? 2018S

### 1. Physical layer:

- Transmit raw bits over a communication channel.
- Address electrical signals, timing and physical transmission medium.

### 2. Data link layer:

- Transform raw transmission into a reliable line.
- Break data into frames for transmission.
- Control access to shared channels in broadcast networks.
- Manage error and flow control.

### 3. Network layer:

- Handle subnet operation.
- Determine routing paths from source to destination.
- Handle congestion and ensure quality of service.
- Overcome problems when packets travel across different networks.

### 4. Transport layer:

- Accept and Split data into smaller units.
- Ensure correct delivery of data at the destination.
- Provide end-to-end communication and isolation from h/w changes.
- Determine type of service (point-to-point, order of delivery) etc.

### 5. Session layer:

- Establish sessions between users on different machines.
- Manage Dialogue control, token management and synchronization.

### 6. Presentation layer:

- Manage syntax and semantics of transmitted info.
- Define abstract data structures and standard encodings for communication.

### 7. Application layer:

- Host various application protocols (HTTP, FTP, SMTP etc.)
- Facilitate common user needs such as - web browsing and communication.

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Q1) Differentiate OSI reference model with the TCP/IP reference model.

2023 M [4] [COI]

### OSI Model

### TCP/IP Model

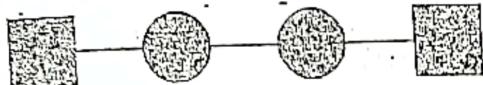
- 1) OSI stands for open system interconnection. TCP/IP implies Transmission Control Protocol / Internet Protocol.
- 2) It was developed by ISO in 1984. It was developed by ARPA/NET in 1982.
- 3) It consists of 7 layers : starting from bottom. It consists of 4 layers from bottom: Physical, data-link, network, transport, session, presentation and application. Network interface, internet, transport and application layer.
- 4) The OSI model follows a vertical approach. The TCP/IP model follows a horizontal approach.
- 5) In the OSI model, the transport layer provides a guarantee of delivery of the packets. In TCP/IP model, it doesn't provide such guarantees, but still we can say its a reliable model.
- 6) here, physical and data-link layers are separate layers. here, physical and data link layers are merged as a single network layer.
- 7) here, the session and presentation layers are separated such as both are different. here, both these layers are included in the application layer.

Diagram

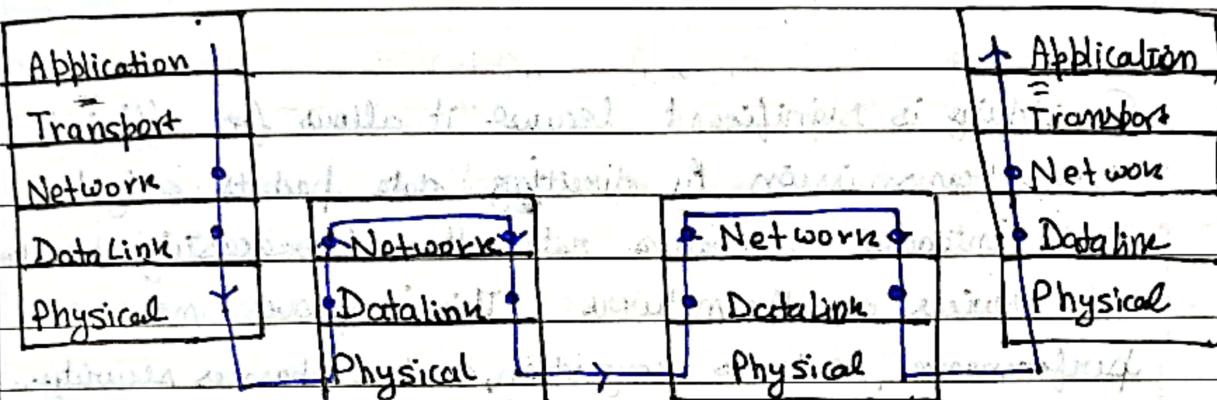
1. Explain OSI layers and with the help of diagram show the interaction among different layers of OSI. **2018 M**  
 Assume that source S and destination D are connected through two intermediate routers labeled R. Determine how many times each packet has to visit the network layer and the data link layer during a transmission from S to D.

7 marks

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GATE 2013



Clearly the packet visits :

- i) Data link Layer -  $1(S) + 2(R) + 2(R) + 1(D) = 6 \text{ times}$
- ii) Network layer -  $1(S) + 1(R) + 1(R) + 1(D) = 4 \text{ times}$ .

- [b] What are the responsibilities of Presentation layer and Session layer of OSI model? **2020 M**

### PRESENTATION LAYER

- It translates data b/w the formats the network requires and the format the computer expects (e.g. ASCII or EBCDIC.)
- It does the protocol conversion.

- For security, it carries out encryption at transmitter and decryption at receiver.
- It carries out data compression to reduce the bandwidth of the data to be transmitted.

### SESSION LAYER

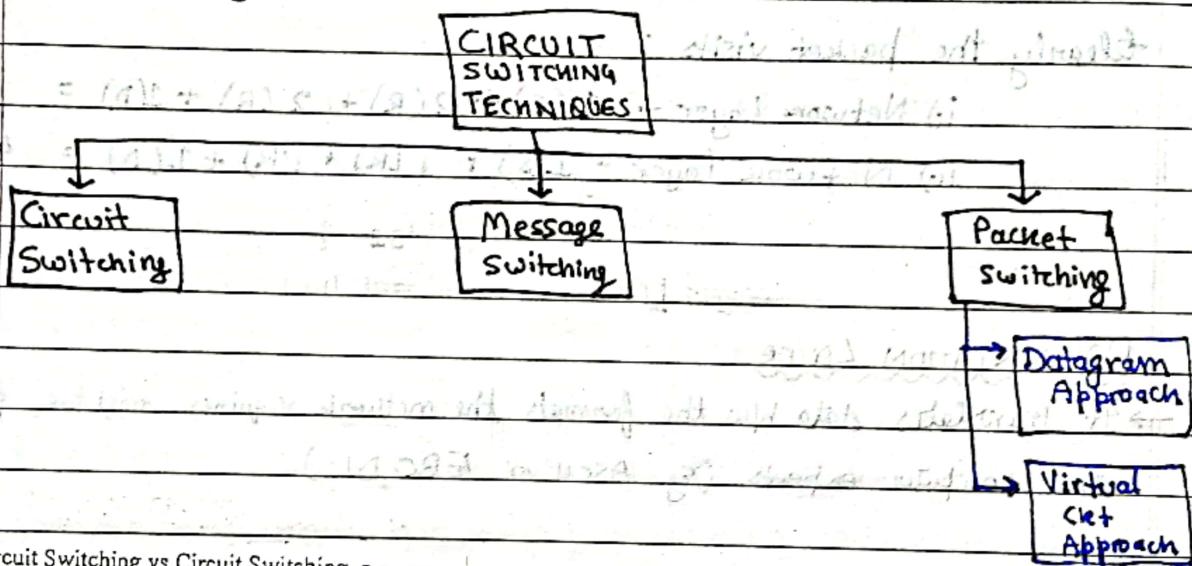
- It allows two systems to start a dialogue with each other. The communication initiated b/w two processes can be either in half / full duplex.
- It allows addition of checkpoints (i.e. synchronization points) into a stream of data. In case of crash, retransmission can start from checkpoint instead of start.

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b) Explain the significance of Switching? What are different switching techniques used in computer networks? Discuss. 2023 M [3] [CO1]

b. What is the difference between circuit switching and packet switching? What is Virtual Circuit Network? 2018 S (10 marks)

Switching is significant because it allows for efficient data transmission by directing data packets only to their intended destination rather than broadcasting them to all devices on the network. This improves network performance, reduces congestion, and enhances security by isolating traffic.



#### b. Virtual Circuit Switching vs Circuit Switching 2018 M

CIRCUIT SWITCHING	MESSAGE SWITCHING	PACKET SWITCHING
There is physical connection b/w transmitter and receiver.	No physical path is set b/w transmitter and receiver in advance.	No path physically is established b/w transmitter and receiver.
All the packets uses same path.	Packets are stored and forward.	Packets travel independently.
Need an end to end path before data transmission.	No need of end to end path before data transmission.	
There is one big entire data stream called a message.	There is one big entire data stream called message.	The big message is divided into a smaller number of packets.

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Message arrives in sequence.

Message arrives in sequence.

Packets do not arrive in sequence at the destination.

Low transmission capacity

Max transmission capacity

Max transmission cap.

Waste of bandwidth is possible.

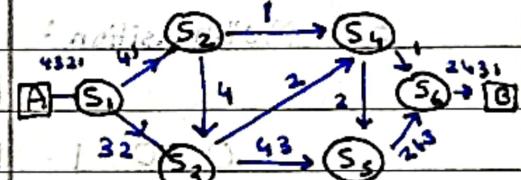
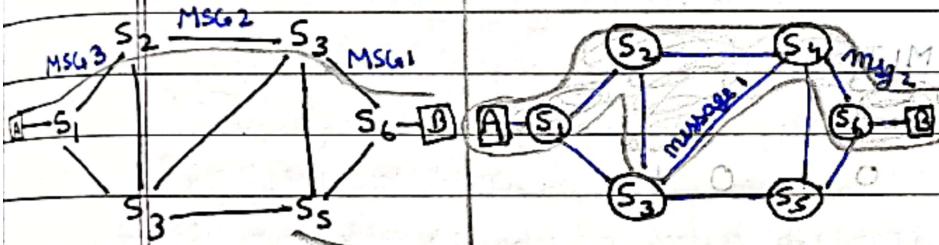
No waste of Bandwidth

No waste of bandwidth.

Not suitable for handling interactive traffic.

Suitable for handling interactive traffic.

Suitable for handling interactive traffic.



### VIRTUAL CIRCUIT NETWORK

It is a category of packet switching network where a virtual path is established between the source and destination systems for communications. It's not really a dedicated physical path but a logical circuit allocated from a managed pool of circuit resources as per traffic requirements.

Its phases are:

→ Set-Up Phase

→ Data Transfer

→ Tear Down Phase

White short notes:  
[a] Virtual circuit switching 2020M

# UNIT-2 : DATA LINK LAYER

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c) What is the significance of data link layer? Explain the design issues of data link layer.

2023M

[3] [CO2]

DLL is the second layer of OSI model of CN. It is responsible for node to node delivery of data between a network segment. Its significance is made clear by its functionalities:

1. **FRAMING:** divides stream of bits into manageable units called frames.
2. **PHYSICAL ADDRESSING:** Adds header to frame to define physical address of sender/receiver.
3. **FLOW CONTROL:** mechanism to avoid fast transmitter from overwhelming a slow receiver by buffering extra bits until receiver can accept them.
4. **ERROR CONTROL:** Achieved by adding a trailer at the end of frame. It uses a mechanism to avoid duplication of frames.
5. **ACCESS CONTROL:** It determines which of the devices has control over the link at any given time, when two or more devices are connected to the same link.

## DESIGN ISSUES

- 1) **Services provided for this layer:**
  - a) Unacknowledged and connectionless services: Sender sent frame w/o Ack or confirmation.
  - b) Acknowledged and connectionless services: frame Ack but no logical connection.
  - c) Acknowledged and connection oriented services: Logical connection established before data transfer, frames numbered for reliability.
- 2) **Frame Synchronization**: Ensuring standard of each frame for proper recognition by destination.
- 3) **Flow control**: Regulating data flow to prevent overwhelming the receiver.
- 4) **Error Control**: Detecting and correcting transmission error to prevent frame duplication.

## UNIT 2.2: LLC

(B) What are the different types of error detection methods? Write the steps to compute the Checksum in CRC code. If the frame is 110101011 and generator is  $x^4 + x + 1$  what would be the transmitted frame? 20185

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Q.2

[a] What are the different types of error detection methods? Write the steps to compute the Checksum in CRC code. If the frame is 110101011 and generator is  $x^4 + x + 1$  what would be the transmitted frame? 20185

Some types of error detection methods are

1. Vertical Redundancy Check (VRC) } Parity
2. Longitudinal Redundancy Check (LRC)
3. CheckSum
4. Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

Steps to compute checksum in CRC code

Let  $G(x)$  be the generator polynomial

$M(x)$  be the polynomial corresponding to frame bits.

1. Let  $n$  be the degree of  $G(x)$ . Append  $n$  zero bits to the low-order end of the frame so it now contains  $m+n$  bits and corresponds to polynomial  $x^n M(x)$ .
2. Divide the bit string corresponding to  $G(x)$  into bit string corresponding to  $x^n M(x)$ , using modulo 2 division.
3. Subtract the remainder ( $< n$  bits) from the bit string corresponding to  $x^n M(x)$  using modulo 2 subtraction. The resultant is the checksummed frame to be transmitted, call it  $T(x)$ .

Given,

$$G(x) = x^4 + x + 1$$

$\therefore$  Generator = 10011

frame = 110101011

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110000011

10011	11010101100000	(min.)
10011	11010101100000	
10011	11010101100000	
00000	11010101100000	
00000	11010101100000	
00001	11010101100000	
00000	11010101100000	
00011	11010101100000	
00000	11010101100000	
00110	11010101100000	
00000	11010101100000	
00000	11010101100000	
11000	11010101100000	
10011	11010101100000	
10110	11010101100000	
10011	11010101100000	
check sum → 0101	11010101100000	

$$\therefore \text{Transmitted frame} = 11010101100000$$

- 2[a] Define CRC. A bit stream 1001110101 is transmitted using the standard CRC method described in the text. The generator polynomial is  $x^3 + x + 1$ . Show the actual bit string transmitted. Suppose the fourth bit from the left is inverted during transmission. Show that this error is detected at the receiver's end. 2020M

CRC (Cyclic Redundancy Check) is an error-detection method in digital communication. It involves creating a checksum based on data content, which is then compared at the receiving end. A match indicates error-free transmission, while a mismatch signals potential errors, prompting corrective actions.

Given,  $G(x) = x^3 + x + 1$

generator = 1011

frame = 1001110101

Sender  
Side

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1011 \quad | \quad 1001110101000 \\
 \underline{1011} \quad | \quad \underline{0000} \\
 \underline{0101} \\
 \underline{0000} \\
 \underline{1011} \\
 \underline{0000} \\
 \underline{0000} \\
 \underline{0001} \\
 \underline{0000} \\
 \underline{0010} \\
 \underline{0000} \\
 \underline{0010} \\
 \underline{0000} \\
 \underline{1010} \\
 \underline{0011} \\
 \underline{1010} \\
 \underline{0010} \\
 \underline{0000}
 \end{array}$$

∴ transmitted string : 100111010100 0100 0000 100

Corrupt bit : 100011010100 (marked in red)

generator takes the remainder digits in frame and adds it with the frame at the end of frame. So if there is any error in frame then generator will add it to frame and correct it. So if transmitted frame is wrong then generator will give an error.

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Meciever  
side

1011

1000110101000

1011

1011

10000

1111

10111

1000

1011

0111

0000

000101110

0001011

0001011

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

0001000

Thus error is detected

P.I.O.

0001011001 = sum of all bits

Q.4(a) A bit stream 10011101 is transmitted using the standard CRC method. The generator polynomial is  $x^3 + 1$ . Show the actual bit string transmitted. Suppose the third bit from the left is inverted during transmission. 2019M

Generator : 1001

Frame : 10011101

Sender side

1001 | 100 11101000

1001 |

0000 |

1000 |

0011 |

0000 |

0110 |

0000 |

1101 |

1001 |

1000 |

1001 |

0010 |

0000 |

0100 |

0000 |

100 |

transmitted frame = 10011101100

Receiver side with error

1001 | 10011101100

1001 |

0111 |

0000 |

1111 |

1001 |

1100 |

1001 |

1011 |

1001 |

0101 |

0000 |

1010 |

1001 |

0110 |

0000 |

100 |

010 |

0000 |

Hence error detected.

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- Q1. a) Suppose a data link layer uses CRC (Cyclic Redundancy Check) to detect errors in transmitted data. If the data word is 101001 and the generator polynomial is  $x^3 + x + 1$ , what is the remainder obtained after performing CRC and Code word received at the receiver side? [3] [CO2]

dataword : 101001

generator : 1011

1011 | 101001000

1011 ↓ | | |

0010 | | |

0000 | | |

0101 | | |

0000 | | |

1010 | | |

1011 ↓ | | |

0010 | | |

0000 | | |

0100 | | |

0000 | | |

100 | | |

remainder = 100

Code word = 101001100

Q.6.

[a] Describe the following: 2018S

(i) Hamming Codes

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[b] What are different data encoding techniques? Explain and Encode data stream 00110101 by using Manchester, Differential Manchester and NRZ-L encoding methods. 2019S

Different data encoding techniques are:

1. Unipolar: Non-Return-to-zero (NRZ)

2. Polar: NRZ-L, NRZ-I, NRZ-J

Biphase : Manchester, Differential Manchester

3. Bipolar: AMI, pseudoternary

4. Multilevel: 2B/1Q, 8B/6T, 4U-PAM5

5. Mutitransition: MLT-3

0 0 1 1 0 1 0

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

← Manchester Encoding

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

← Differential Manchester Encoding

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

← NRZ-L Encoding

4[a] Draw the following encoding scheme for the bit stream: 0001110101

I. NRZ      II. Manchester coding

2020M

0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 1

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

← NRZ-L encoding

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

← Manchester

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(b) Sketch the waveform for the bit steam 10110010 in differential Manchester encoding scheme.

2019M

10110010



← Differential Manchester Encoding.

(ii) Burst of error

A burst error refers to a cluster of errors that occur closely together in Signal.

So, two or more bits in the data have changed from (1 to 0) or (0 to 1).

Length of Burst Error (8 bits)

Sent: 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

Received: 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1

Burst errors are common in data transmission and more likely to occur than single-bit-errors.

(iii) Parity check

Parity checking is an error detecting method to ensure integrity of data. It is a simple technique where an extra bit called parity bit is added to each word being transmitted. It can detect single bit errors.

odd parity: if #1s in code is odd then parity bit is set, otherwise uncheck even = : — even — set — uncheck

data      

1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

original data

parity bit (odd)

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Q.1 (a) Write the difference between bit stuffing and character stuffing.  
2019M

### BIT STUFFING

It is known as bit oriented stuffing.

The flag pattern of '0111110' is mostly used for starting and end of flag. But the data may contain this pattern. So, we stuff an extra 0 in data whenever there is a zero followed by 5 consecutive 1s in the data.

∴ Single bit stuffed.

### CHARACTER STUFFING

It is known as byte oriented stuffing.

Escape character of 1-byte (Esc) which was the predefined pattern of the bit is stuffed whenever there is a zero followed by 5 consecutive pattern as in the data.

∴ Single byte stuffed.

When receiver receives, they remove the extra bit for de-stuffing the data.

Disadvantage: code is unpredictable as it is dependent on transmitted data.

Disadvantage: only applied to 8-bit char and 8-bit char code is not used by all.

Q.2 a) Q1. The following character encoding is used in a data link protocol:  
A: 11010101; B: 10101001; FLAG: 01111110; ESC: 10100011  
Show the bit sequence transmitted (in binary) for the character frame: A B ESC C ESC FLAG FLAG D F each of the following framing methods are used:

2023M

- (i) Flag bytes with byte stuffing.
- (ii) Starting and ending flag bytes, with bit stuffing.

[4] [CO2]

let C = C

D = D

F = F

i) The modified character frame is:

FLAG A B ESC ESC C ESC ESC ESC FLAG FLAG D F FLAG

0111110 11010101 10101001 10100011 10100011 C 10100011  
10100011 10100011 10100011 0111110 10100011 0111110 DF 0111110

ii) We will stuff content bytes with 0 after 5 consecutive 1s

0111110 11010101 10101001 10100011 0111110 10100011 0111110 DF 0111110

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[b] If we want to detect two-bit errors, then what should be the minimum Hamming distance?

2020M

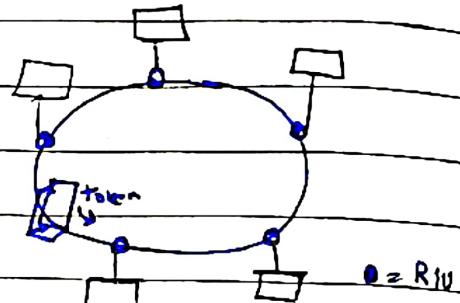
$$t=2$$

$$\therefore d_{\min} = t+1 = 2+1 = 3$$

(d) IEEE 802.5 2019M

Token Ring is a LAN protocol where nodes are connected in ring topology.

In this, data is transmitted sequentially from one node to another in a unidirectional manner, i.e. access control method is token passing. Each node must wait for token before transmitting, ensuring orderly data flow and collision avoidance. The node may transmit one or more data frames but before the expiry of token holding time (THI).



- Data transfer rate is 4 Mbps - 16 Mbps.
- piggybacking acknowledgement is used.
- Differential Manchester encoding is used.

Frame Format.

Data

SD(1)	AC(1)	FC(1)	DA(6)	SA(6)	DATA	CRC(6)	EN(1)	FS(1)
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------	--------	-------	-------

Token

SD(1)	AC(1)	ED(1)
-------	-------	-------

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[b] Explain the IEEE 802 standard. How does Fast Ethernet and Gigabit Ethernet differ from standard Ethernet  
2018S

The IEEE 802 is a collection of networking standards and layered architecture that covers the physical and LLC of tech. such as Ethernet and wireless. It is set up in 1980. These specifications apply to LANs & MANs.

These are:

IEEE 802.1	Architecture, Management, Networking	802.9	IDVN
802.2	Logical Link Control (LLC)	802.10	SWG
802.3	CSMA/CD	802.11	WLAN working group
802.4	Token Bus	802.12	DPWG
802.5	Token Ring	802.13	-
802.6	MANs	802.14	CMWG
802.7	B-TAG	802.15	WPAN working group
802.8	FOTAG	802.16	BWA Spec. Committee

	STANDARD ETHERNET (10 Base-T)	FAST ETHERNET (100 BASE-T)	GIGABIT ETHERNET (1000 BASE-T)
Year	10 Mbps	100 Mbps	1 Gbps
Types	10 Base-T	100 Base-T4, 100 Base-TX, 100 Base-FX	1000Base-SX, -LX, -CX, -T
IEEE	802.3	802.3u	802.3z, 802.3ab, 802.3ah
Delay	Most delay (longest)	More Delay → Shorter	Less Delay
Coverage	100m	10Km	< 70 Km
	Cheep	Cost = x	Cost = 2x

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(B) What is Ethernet 802.3 standard? Discuss in detail the frame format and the channel access method used. 2019S

[c] IEEE 802.3

2020M

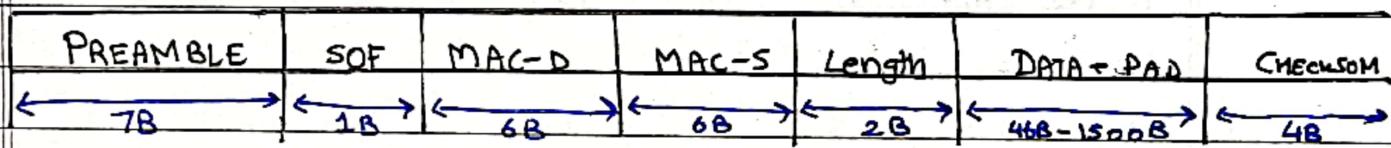
The IEEE 802.3 standard is a set of constantly evolving set of specifications which form the foundation of wired Ethernet networks.

→ It is constantly evolving offering speeds like 2.94Mbps, 10Mbps, 100Mbps, 1Gbps, 40Gbps, 400Gbps and so on.

→ It uses Bus topology.

→ It uses Manchester coding and uses coaxial cable, Twisted Cable and Optical cable as channel.

### FRAME FORMAT



→ Preamble + SOF: It is added by physical layer and isn't technically in frame.

It is a series of bits as per 10101010...101011, last 11 bits → SOF

These 7+8 bits are used for clock synchronization.

→ Source/Dest. Address: It is a MAC address of src and destination node.

Size of MAC is 6B = 48 bits = 12 digit Hex address.

→ Length: It gives the length of frame.

→ Data + Pad: If the data size is smaller than min size associated with every frame (46B) then padding bits will be added  
∴ Min size = 46B | Max size = 1500B.

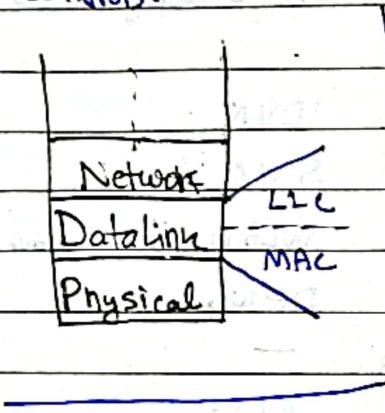
→ FEC: 4Byte CRC is used to detect errors in a given frame.

Media Access Control used is CSMA/CD (no acknowledgement), back off method with CSMA/CS for random wait time

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[b] The data link layer in IEEE standard is divided into sub layers LLC and MAC.  
Justify statement with example. 2019 S

The data link layer in IEEE standard is divided into two sublayers, LLC (Logical Link Control) and MAC (Media Access Control).



LLC manages communications between devices over a single line of network. It controls data flow among various applications and services, as well as provides acknowledgement and error checking mechanisms.

MAC manages the transmission of data between two devices. It controls the hardware responsible for interaction with the medium of transmission. It is also responsible for the physical addressing of frames.

(GPT Ex.) Scenario: printing two documents (data packets) on a shared network (printer).

MAC Sublayer: Acts as a queue manager by assigning unique number to each document and ensure only one doc is printed at a time to avoid collisions.

LLC Sublayer: Like a document handler, takes each document and adds information like name (src address) and printer's name (dest address) to doc header (frame). It may add error corr codes for reliable printing.

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[b] Explain the dynamic channel allocation model in details. And also explain pure and slotted aloha

2018S

out of syllabus

Question 3 (Q3)

Book ref:

Point

with ST field

(extra question)

Answered after break

in standard frame

left from 9 second 2

(ATC)

all

channel

SAT

all

second

channel

saturation

all

third

channel

2nd

all

fourth

channel

3rd

all

fifth

channel

4th

all

sixth

channel

5th

all

seventh

channel

6th

all

eighth

channel

7th

all

ninth

channel

8th

all

tenth

channel

9th

all

eleventh

channel

10th

all

twelfth

channel

11th

all

thirteenth

channel

12th

all

fourteenth

channel

13th

all

fifteenth

channel

14th

all

sixteenth

channel

15th

all

seventeenth

channel

16th

all

eighteenth

channel

17th

all

nineteenth

channel

18th

all

twentieth

channel

19th

all

twenty-first

channel

20th

all

twenty-second

channel

21st

all

twenty-third

channel

22nd

all

twenty-fourth

channel

23rd

all

twenty-fifth

channel

24th

all

twenty-sixth

channel

25th

all

twenty-seventh

channel

26th

all

twenty-eighth

channel

27th

all

twenty-ninth

channel

28th

all

thirtieth

channel

# UNIT 2.1 : Medium Access Sublayer

Content

Q.3

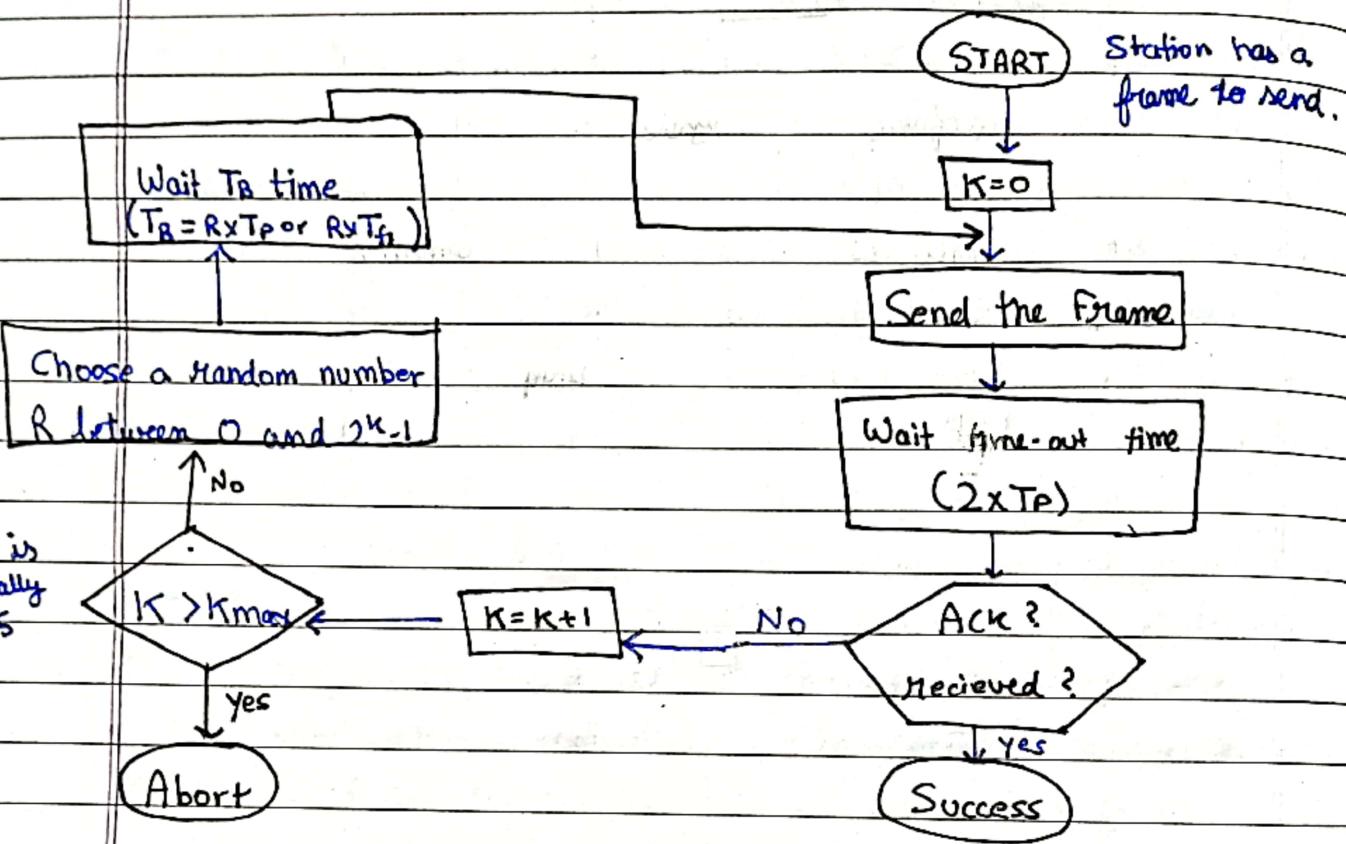
(A) Explain pure and slotted aloha in detail. 2019S

5. Write Short notes on any two:  
a. Flow diagram of Pure Aloha

2018M

$3.5 \times 2 = 7$  marks

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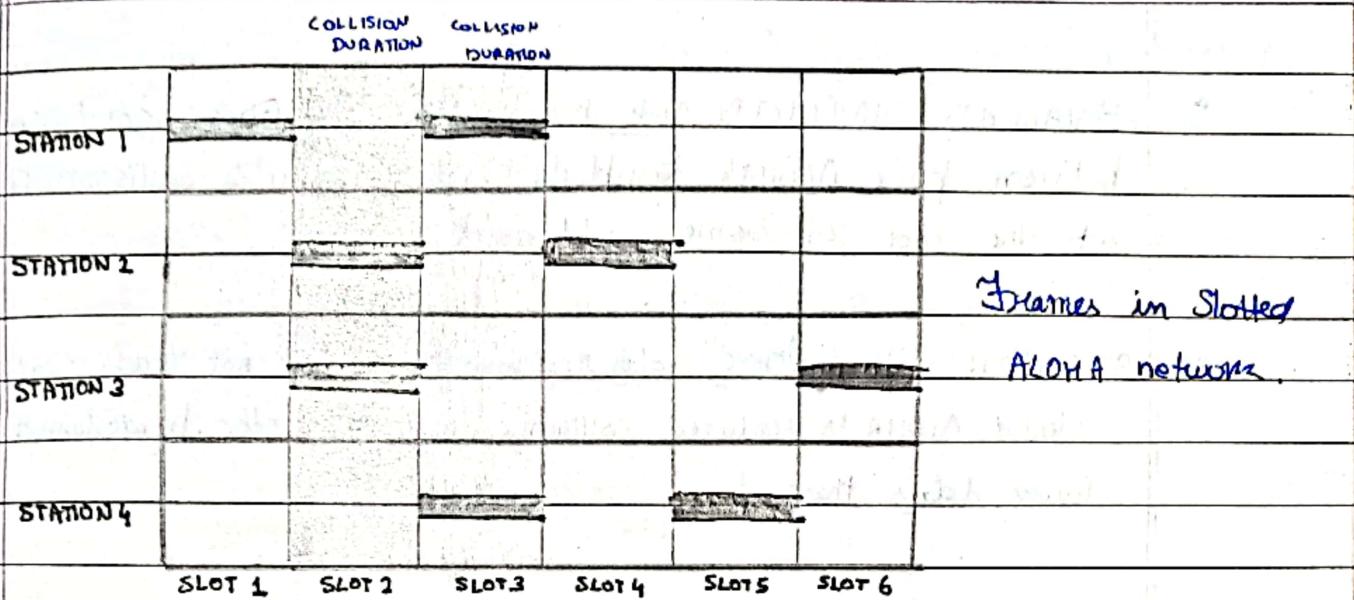
Pure Aloha is a simple random access protocol in data communication. It allows stations to transmit data whenever they have it, without checking for collisions. However, collisions are likely, leading to high retransmissions and decreased efficiency. It served as a foundation for more sophisticated protocols like Slotted Aloha and CSMA.

[b] Slotted ALOHA. 2019S

Slotted ALOHA is a random access protocol invented to improve the efficiency of pure ALOHA (pure ALOHA has vulnerable time of  $2 \times T_p$  as there is no rule that defines when a station can send).

In Slotted ALOHA, we divide the time into slots of  $T_f$  seconds and force the station only to send at the beginning of time slot. If a station misses this moment, it must wait until the beginning of next time slot. This reduces collisions compared to ALOHA.

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There can still be collisions if multiple nodes transmit in the same slot.

Throughput,  $S = G \times e^{-G}$

Vulnerable time,  $T = T_{gr} \times \log_2 n$

b) List out the situations in which pure ALOHA and slotted ALOHA performs better. Justify your answer.

2023 M

[3] [CO2]

PURE ALOHA performs better in the case of:

- Light traffic: When few devices are communicating, the chance of collisions is low, and pure ALOHA offers decent efficiency.
- Simple Implementation: Requires minimal synchronization and coordination amongst devices, making it easy to set up and use.
- Cost-Sensitive Application: Due to its simple nature, pure ALOHA can be implemented with less complex and h/w making it budget conscious.

SLOTTED ALOHA performs better in case of:

- Moderate Traffic: The use of time slots reduces collisions as compared to pure ALOHA in scenarios with more active devices.

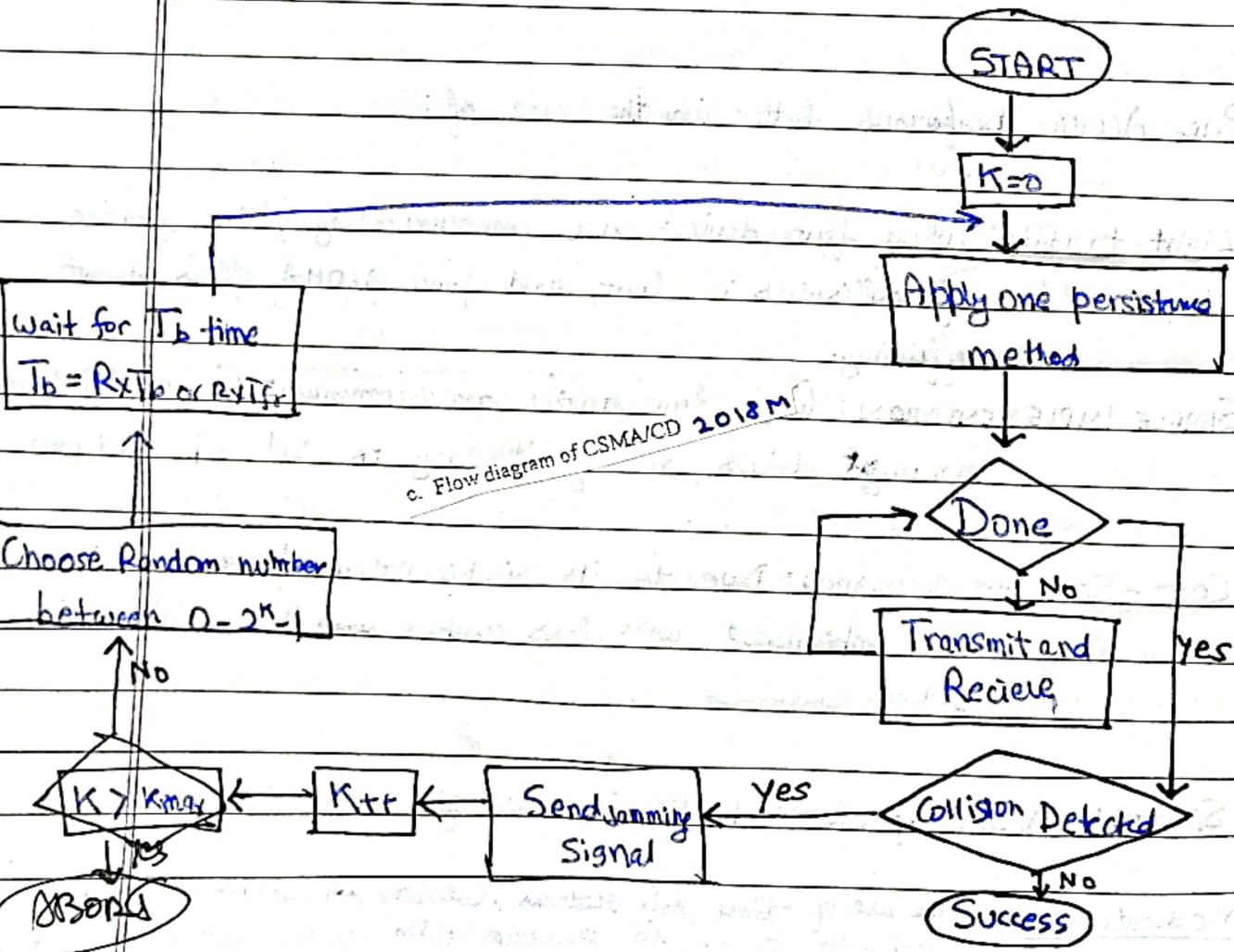
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- BALANCING SIMPLICITY AND PERFORMANCE: Offers a good compromise between pure ALOHA's simplicity and CSMA's collision avoidance at the cost of some additional complexity.
- APPLICATIONS WITH MODERATE DELAY REQUIREMENTS: While not truly real-time, Slotted ALOHA's reduced collisions lead to better predictability and lower delays than pure.

(b) How is CSMA a clear improvement over ALOHA? How is it further improved by implementing CSMA/CD?

2018 M

Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA) is an improvement over ALOHA because it has the mechanism to sense the channel for carrier signal before transmitting, reducing the likelihood of collisions.



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CSMA/CD (CSMA with collision detection) further improves CSMA by detecting multiple collisions while they are happening and takes steps to resolve them. If a collision is detected, station stops transmitting and waits a random amount of time, and then attempts to retransmit. This helps to minimize the impact of collisions and increase overall efficiency compared to CSMA alone.

[b] Suppose in a CSMA/CD LAN, the maximum end to end propagation delay is 25.6  $\mu$ sec. If the line is operating in 100Mbps then what will be the minimum frame length (in bytes) of the LAN? 2020M

(Given,

$$\text{Bandwidth, } BW = 100 \text{ Mbps}$$

$$\text{propagation time, } T_p = 25.6 \mu\text{s} = 25.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}$$

Now, for CSMA/CD

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{transmission time } \geq 2 \times T_p \\ \Rightarrow & T_t \geq 2 \times T_p \end{aligned}$$

$$T_t = \frac{1}{BW} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

from (1), (2)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{L}{BW} & \geq 2 \times T_p \Rightarrow L \geq 2 \cdot T_p \cdot BW \\ & \Rightarrow L \geq 2 \times 25.6 \times 10^{-6} \times 10^8 \text{ bps} \\ & \Rightarrow L \geq 5120 \text{ bits} \\ & \Rightarrow L \geq 640 \text{ bytes } (\because 8 \text{ bits} = 1 \text{ byte}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, minimum size of frame for LAN is 640 bytes.

A CSMA/CD network has a data rate of 100 Mbps and a propagation delay of 5  $\mu$ s. The minimum frame size is 512 bytes. What is the minimum packet transmission time? 2023E [3][CO2]

Given,

$$BW = 100 \text{ Mbps} = 100 \times 10^6 \text{ bps} = 10^8 \text{ bps}$$

$$T_p = 5 \mu\text{s} = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}$$

$$L = 512 \text{ bytes}$$

$$\therefore T_t \geq 2 \times T_p \quad \therefore T_{t\min} = 2 \times T_p = 10^{-5} \text{ s} ?$$

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(b) A sender transmits 10 packets to a receiver using the Stop-and-Wait protocol. The propagation delay is 100 ms and the transmission time for each packet is 10 ms. If the acknowledgement delay is negligible, what is the time taken to transmit all the packets? Explain steps? [3][CO3]

$$T_p = 100 \text{ ms}$$

$$T_t = 10 \text{ ms}$$

### 1. Sending packet 1

$$\text{transmission time} = 10 \text{ ms}$$

### 2. Wait for ACK

$$\text{prop delay} = 100 \text{ ms}$$

$$\text{ACK transmission time} = 0 \text{ (given)}$$

$$\therefore \text{total time for packet 1} = 10 \text{ ms} + 100 \text{ ms} = 110 \text{ ms}$$

### 3. Similarly for all packets

$$\# \text{ packets} = 10$$

$$\text{total trips time} = 110 \text{ ms / packet}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total time} &= 10 \times 110 \text{ ms} \\ &= 1100 \text{ milliseconds} \end{aligned}$$

[b] Why is acknowledgement numbered in Stop-And-Wait protocol? Discuss the situation when unnumbered acknowledgements can create confusion in the sender and receiver end. 2020M

Acknowledgements are numbered in STOP-AND-WAIT because they are needed for

→ Detecting Lost Packets: Sender knows which packet to resend if the acknowledgement doesn't arrive.

→ Handling out-of-order ack: Numbers prevent misinterpretations and maintain data order.

→ Preventing deadlocks: Numbers distinguish new packets from retransmissions.

Situations with Unnumbered ACK:

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Lost Ack: if ack for packet X is lost, sender won't know if its sent.  
It might wait indefinitely or retransmit unnecessarily, efficiency.

Delayed Ack: If ack for X is delayed and ack for Y comes first, sender wont understand which one to send next leading to out of order delivery.

4. Explain Go back N protocol. In Stop and wait protocol, derive the relation between the length of the packet (L), bandwidth of the Channel (B) and time of propagation ( $T_p$ ) to achieve 50% efficiency. 7 marks  
2018M

### Go Back-N Protocol

Go Back N is a Sliding window protocol, (N is the window size, i.e. the no. of frames sender will send before waiting for Ack).

If the acknowledgement of a frame is not received within the agreed upon time period, then all the frames in the current window will be retransmitted.

It overcomes the inefficiency of 'stop and wait' by allowing the transmitter to continue sending enough frames so the channel is kept busy while transmitter waits for acknowledgement.

### Drawbacks:

- transmit lot of frames even if only 1 is lost
- error if ACK is lost.

### DERIVATION

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Total useful time}}{\text{Total cycle time}} = \frac{T_t}{T_t + 2T_p} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

where  $T_t$  = transmission time

$T_p$  = propagation time

also Bandwidth =  $\frac{L}{T_t}$

put in

$$2 \leq n \Rightarrow T_t/T_t \Rightarrow n = \underline{\underline{1}}$$

$$\frac{(T_t + 2T_p)}{T_t} = \frac{1 + BW T_p}{L}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \eta \leq \frac{1}{1 + BW \cdot T_p \cdot 2}$$

for 50% efficiency,  $\eta = 1/2$

$$\Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow$$

$$L \geq 2 \cdot T_p \cdot (B.W)$$

Q.3 (a) A channel has a bit rate of 4kbps and propagation delay of 20ms. What is the minimum size of frame does stop-and-wait give efficiency of atleast 50%?  
2019M

Given,

$$\text{Propagation time, } T_p = 20 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$$

$$\text{Bandwidth, } B.W = 4 \text{ kbps}$$

$$\text{Efficiency, } \eta = 0.5$$

$$\therefore \text{Transmission time, } T_t = L / B.W$$

$$\therefore \frac{\eta}{1 + \frac{B.W \cdot T_p \cdot 2}{L}} \Rightarrow 0.5 \leq \frac{1}{1 + \frac{B.W \cdot T_p}{L}}$$

$$\Rightarrow L \geq 2 \cdot T_p \cdot B.W \Rightarrow L \geq 160 \text{ bits}$$

- Q.2  
A) What are the functions of Data link layer? A channel has a bit rate of 4kbps and a propagation delay of 20 msec. For what range of frame sizes does stop-and-wait give an efficiency of at least 50 percent?

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- Q3. a) Suppose there are 5 stations in a CSMA p-persistent network. The channel is idle with a probability 0.2 and each station has a probability of 0.5 of transmitting in a given time slot. If station 1 is ready to transmit, what is the probability that it will successfully transmit on the first attempt?

2023E

[4][CO2]

probability that channel is idle =  $0.2 = i$

" " Station transmit =  $0.5 = p$

?

Probability of successful transmission (no collision)

$$= P(\text{channel is idle}) \times \prod_{i=2}^5 P(\text{station } i \text{ doesn't transmit})$$

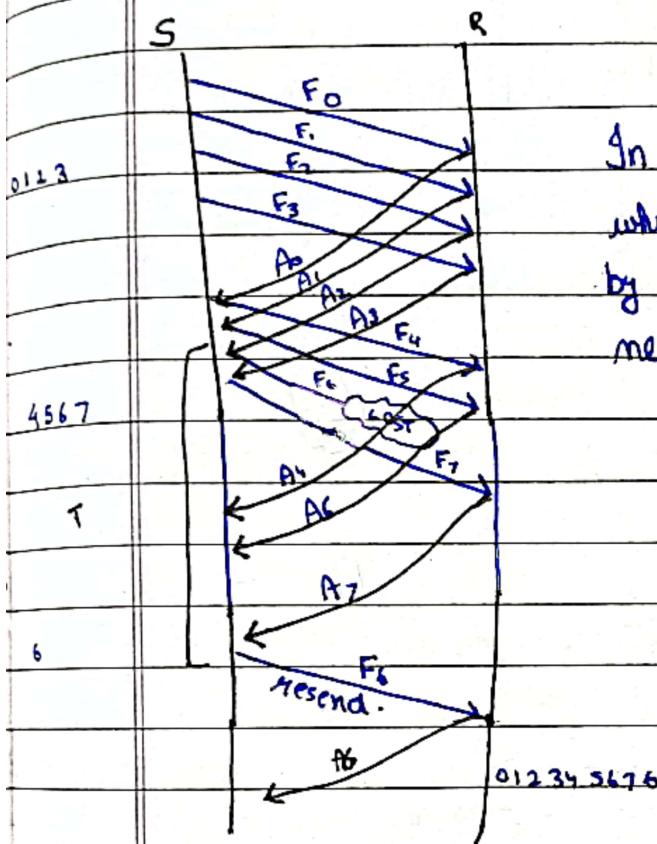
$$= 0.2 \times (1-0.5)^4$$

$$\boxed{\text{Prob.} = 0.0125}$$

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- Q2. a) In Selective Repeat protocol, the sender's window size is 4 and the receiver's window size is also 4. The sequence numbers range from 0 to 7. The sender sends packets 0, 1, 2, 3 and they are all acknowledged. The sender then sends packets 4, 5, 6, 7, but packet 6 is lost. The sender then sends packet 6 again. What is the minimum number of packets that need to be retransmitted and why? 2023E [2][CO3]

The packets are transferred in the following manner:



In Selective repeat ARQ, only the frame which is damaged or lost is retransmitted by transmitter. Hence one packet is needed to be retransmitted.

Or

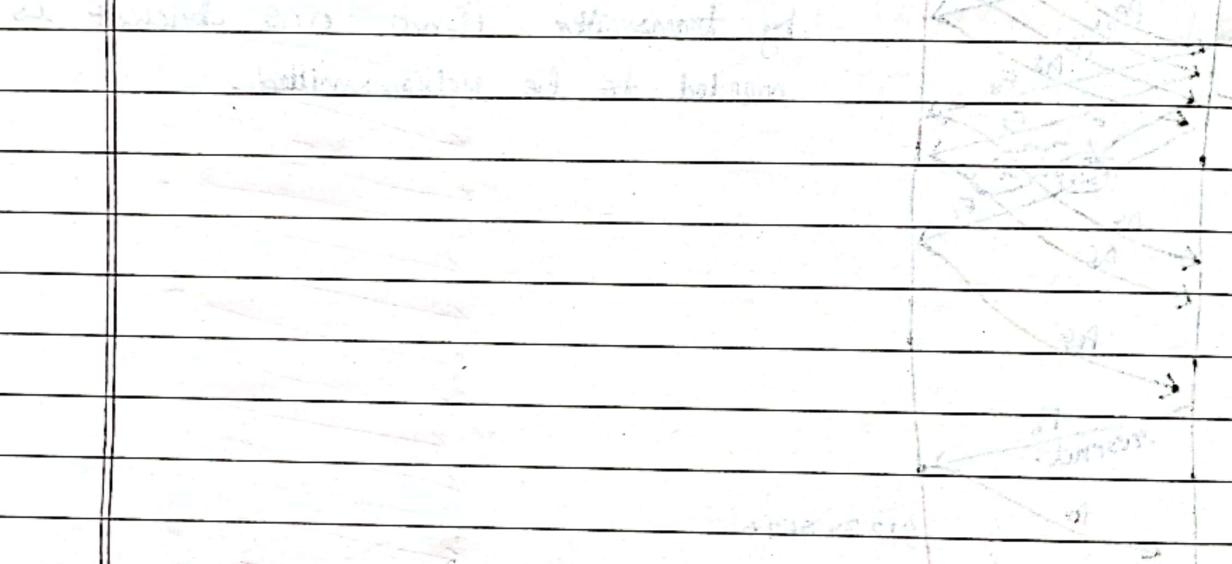
- c) Explain flow control mechanism using Sliding window protocol. [3] [CO1]  
2022M

2. a. Explain Selective Repeat Protocol and Go back N protocol with example. 2018S

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Test results will not be affected in standard 20°C  
The sample was dried under reduced pressure  
at 50°C for 24 hours to remove all moisture

After removal of test requirements, it was



After removal of test requirements, it was

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- 3 [a] Station A needs to send a message consisting of 9 packets to Station B using a sliding window (window size 3) and go-back-n error control strategy. All packets are ready and immediately available for transmission. If every 5th packet that A transmits gets lost (but no acks from B ever get lost), then what is the number of packets that A will transmit for sending the message to B?

2020M

- [b] Network Routing 2020M

- b. Let the system wants to send 10 packets using Go back N protocol with sliding window size (N) as 3. What are the total no of transmissions if every 5<sup>th</sup> packet is lost. 2018E (10 marks)

- b. Let the system wants to send 10 packets using Go back N protocol with sliding window size (N) as 3. What are the total no of transmissions if every 5<sup>th</sup> packet is lost. (10 marks)

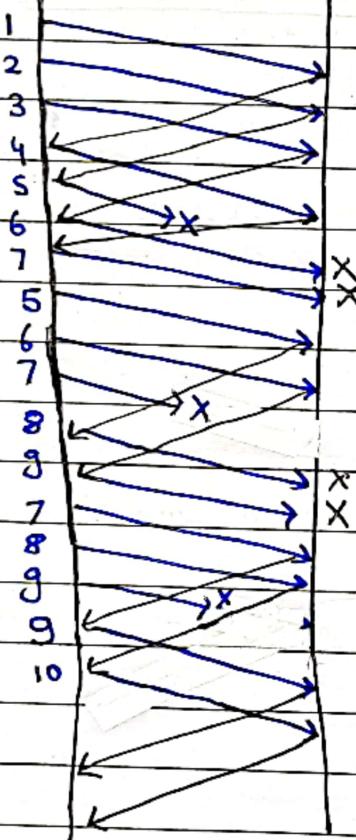
2018S

16

Sender

Receiver

∴ total # transmissions = 17



- [b] Explain the working of Sliding Window Protocol with suitable example.

Explain how ARQ can be used for error correction? How does Go back N ARQ differ from selective repeat ARQ.

2019S

Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ) is an error-control mechanism which uses acknowledgements (or NAK) and timeouts to achieve reliable data transmission over an unreliable link. So retransmission occurs in 3 cases:

- Damaged frame
- Lost frame
- Lost acknowledgement

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If a bit error is detected, then NAK is returned and ARQ retransmits specific frames.

If frame is not recognized or damaged by noise then it is considered as lost frame and ARQ performs automatic retransmission.

### DIFFERENCE

#### GO-BACK-N

#### SELECTIVE REPEAT

i) Retransmit 'N' no. of frames in case of any error.

Retransmit only those frames that have problem.

ii) If error-rate is high, it wastes a lot of bandwidth with redundant F/R.

Less wastage of bandwidth.

iii) less complicated

More complicated due to sorting and storage

iv) It is used most often

It is used less due to high complexity.

- a. Explain Selective Repeat Protocol with example. Consider a network connecting two systems located 8000 km apart. The bandwidth of the network is  $500 \times 10^6$  bits per second. The propagation speed of the media is  $4 \times 10^8$  meters per second. It is needed to design a Go-Back-N sliding window protocol for this network. The average packet size is  $10^7$  bits. The network is to be used to its full capacity. Assume that processing delays at nodes are negligible. What is the minimum size in bits of the sequence number field?

2018E

GATE - 2015

Given,

$$\text{distance} = 8000 \text{ km}$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 500 \times 10^6 \text{ bps}$$

$$\text{Prop. Speed} = 4 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\text{Avg. packet size} = 10^7 \text{ bits}$$

$$\therefore \text{transmission time, } T_t = (\text{packet size}) / (\text{BW}) \Rightarrow T_t = 0.02 \text{ s}$$

$$\text{Propagation time, } T_p = \text{Distance} / \text{Velocity} \Rightarrow T_p = 2 \text{ s}$$

$$\therefore \text{Round trip } T_p = 2 \times 2 = 4 \text{ s}$$

$$\therefore \text{Total packets that can be transferred before an ACK} = \frac{\text{RTT}}{T_t} = \frac{4}{0.02} = 200$$

So, in Go-Back-N, max sequence no. is one more than window size = 201

It can be represented as  $(\text{seq. no.}) + 1 = 8 \text{ bits}$ .

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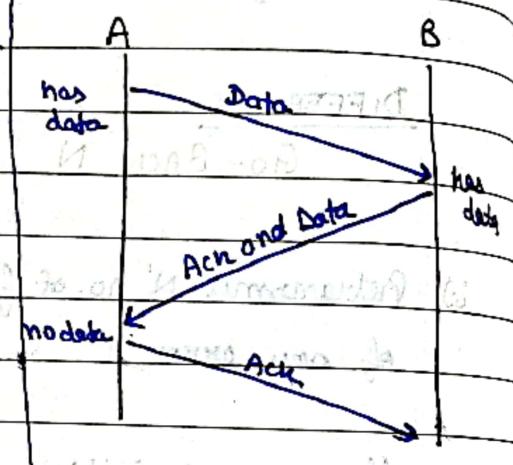
Q.7 Write short notes on the following

a) Piggy back and Sliding Window Syndrome. 2019S

PIGGY BACK

In all practical situations transmission of data needs to be bi-directional, called full-duplex. Piggybacking is a technique used in data transmission where acknowledgements are attached to outgoing data frames, optimizing Bandwidth by allowing bidirectional communication without wasting resources on separate acknowledgement channels.

Instead of demanding ACK immediately, receiver waits till they have some data to transmit.



### Disadvantages:

- additional system complexity
- if DLL takes too long to send ACK, then retransmission takes place.

### SILLY WINDOW SYNDROME:

out of  
synthesis

$$\text{window} = \overline{RTT} + (ws) \quad (\text{overhead} = dT \text{ wait acknowledge})$$

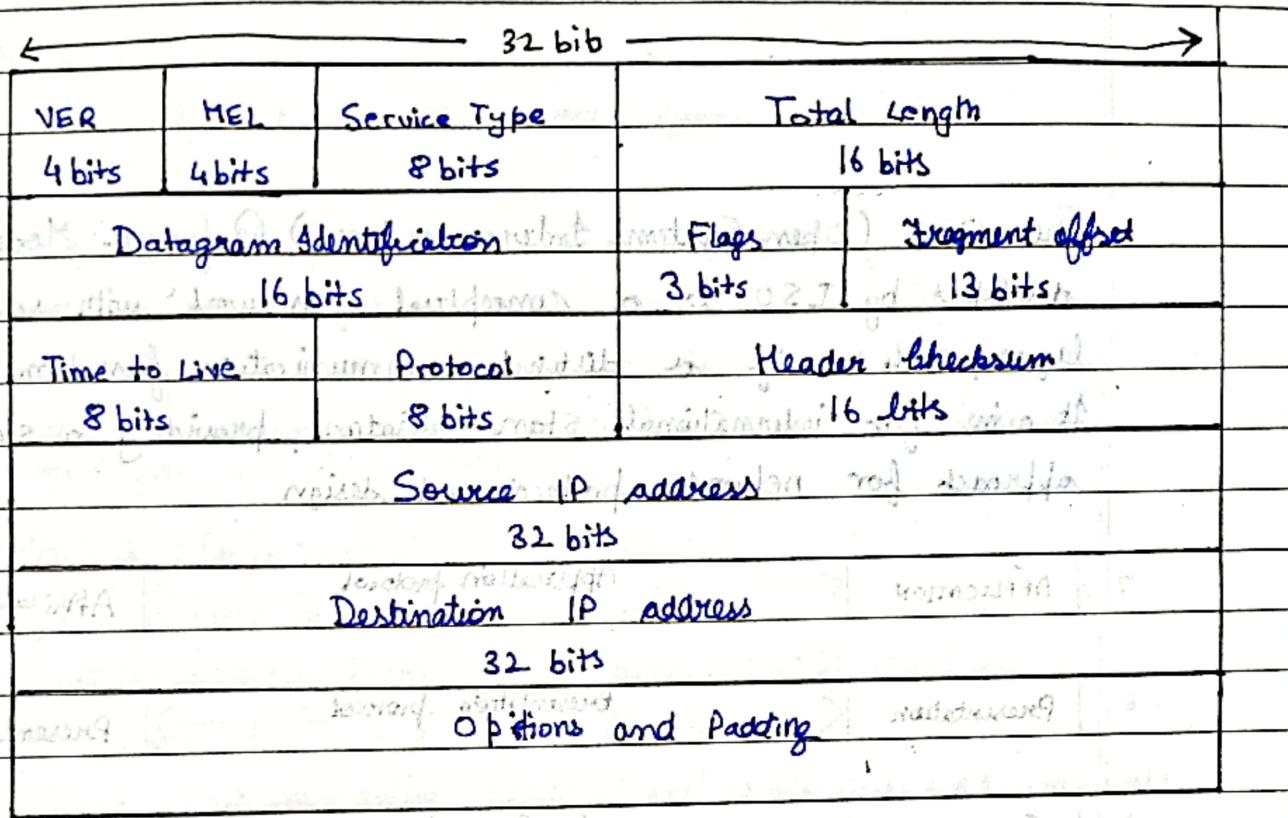
$$2w - \overline{RTT} = \text{min}(w, dT) \quad (\text{wait acknowledge})$$

$$PRTT \times w = \overline{RTT} \text{ wait acknowledgement}$$

## UNIT - 3 : NETWORK LAYER.

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Q.2(a) Explain the IP header format of IPv4 in detail. 2019M



The IPv4 header usually consists of 20-60 bytes.

Datagram Identification is a unique number assigned by sender used with fragmentation.

Flag consists of 3 bits, first bit is reserved and must be 0 second bit is DF, 0 means allow fragment.

fragment offset is used to reassemble datagram.

TTL specifies the time, datagram is allowed to travel.

Protocol no. indicates the higher layer protocol to which IP should deliver the data in this datagram. e.g.) ICMP = 1 | TCP = 6 | UDP = 17

Header checksum is for the info contained in header itself.

IP options is a variable length field used for control or debugging and measurement. e.g.) Timestamp, id counter and record route.

Answer IPv4 header questions

2023E

[2][CO3]

i) 20 bytes

ii) 32 bits

iii)  $65,535 \text{ bytes} = 2^{16}-1$ 

iv)

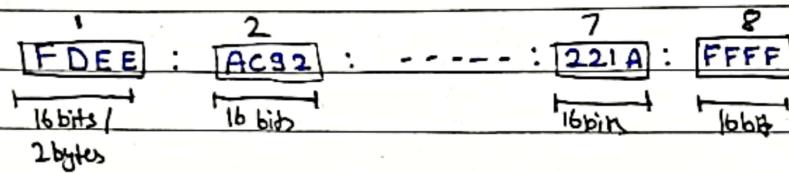
- What is the size of the IPv4 header in bytes?
- How many bits are used to represent the IPv4 address?
- What is the maximum size of an IPv4 datagram?
- What is the value of the TTL (Time To Live) field in the IPv4 header for a packet that has to traverse 15 routers?

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## b) IPv6 address structure 2019S

IPv6 addresses are 128-bit hexadecimal numbers, i.e. 16 byte octets, i.e. 8 groups of four hexadecimal digits separated by colons:

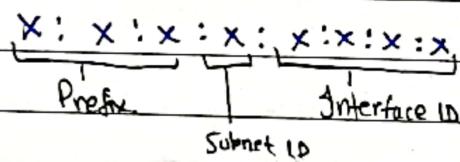
$$128 \text{ bits} = 16 \text{ bytes} = 32 \text{ hex digits}$$



IP addresses can be shortened / abbreviated by omitting leading zeros within each group and collapsing consecutive group of zeros into double colon (::). (only once)

Eg) original  $\Rightarrow$  AC81:9840:0086:0000:0000:BBFF:000F:FFFF  
abb  $\Rightarrow$  AC81:9840:86::BBFF:F:FFFF

They generally have a network prefix, host identifier, interface



Q.5 Write short notes on any two of the following:  
(a) IPv6 2019M

IPv6 is the latest generation Internet protocol designed a successor to IPv4. It was designed to enable high performance, scalable internet. It overcame weakness of IPv4 and added several new features.

→ Larger Address Space: IPv6 has 128 bit address space with provides approximately 340 undecillion IP addresses.

→ Header Format: It has a better header structure where options are separable from base header which are inserted when needed. Speeds up Routing.

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→ **More Security:** IPv6 includes security in basic specification. It includes encryption of packets (ESP) and authentication of sender of packets (AH).

It has better support for resource allocation, includes plug and play and follows good practices of IPv4 and rejects minor flaws / obsolete items of IPv4.

Q.4

(A) Compare different classes of IPv4 in terms of netid and hostid. What are the advantages and disadvantages of classfull addresses?

CLASSES	NETID (bits)	Host ID (bits)	NETWORK RANGE
A	8	24	1.0.0.0 - 127.255.255.255
B	16	16	128.0.0.0 - 191.255.255.255
C	24	8	192.0.0.0 - 223.255.255.255
D	Reserve	—	224.0.0.0 - 239.255.255.255
E	Reserved	—	240.0.0.0 - 255.255.255.255

### ADVANTAGES

- Classfull addressing is straightforward and easy to understand with clear divisions into classes based on the size of the network.
- Allows simple expansion as it has fixed no. of networks for each class.
- It's efficient in terms of address space as it allocates large blocks to organizations.

### DISADVANTAGES

- **LACK OF INTERNAL ADDRESS FLEXIBILITY:** Big organizations are assigned large monolithic blocks of addresses that don't match well the structure of underlying internal n/w.
- **INEFFICIENT USE OF ADDRESS SPACE:** The existence of only three block sizes (A,B,C) leads to waste of limited IP address space.
- **PROLIFERATION OF ROUTER TABLE ENTRIES:** The growth of internet necessitates more router table entries, leading to performance issues, exacerbated by inefficient address space allocation.

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Q) What is subnetting in IP network? Explain with suitable examples [4] [CO3]

2023M

A Subnet is a logical subdivision of an IP network. The practice of dividing a network into two or more networks is called subnetting. By this, an organization (or ISP) that is granted a range of addresses may divide the range into several subranges and assign them to a Subnetwork. Computer that belong to a Subnet are addressed with an identical most-significant bit-group in their IP addresses.

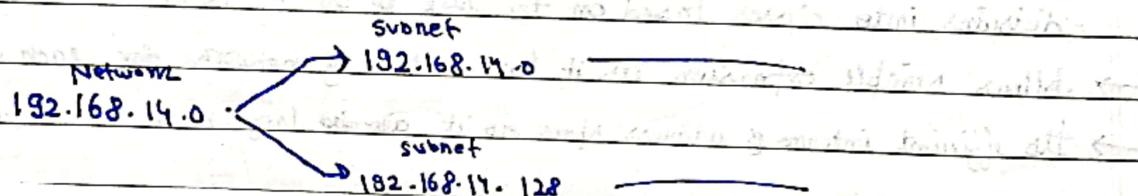
By this we can

- Improve security
- Easily administered individual subnetworks

It's done by using these steps:

1. Identify class of IP address and Default Subnet Mask.
2. Convert the default subnet mask into binary.
3. Note #hosts reqd per subnet and find subnet generator (SG) and octet position.
4. Generate the new subnet mask.
5. Use the SG and generate the network ranges (Subnets) in the appropriate octet position.

Ex:-



- b) i) Given the IP address 10.0.0.0/8, how many subnets and hosts per subnet can be created?

2023E

121FC031

IP address belongs to class A  $\Rightarrow$  network bits = 8

Subnet mask : 11111111. 00000000. 00000000. 00000000 = 255.0.0.0

$\therefore$  no. of borrowed bits =  $8 - 8 = 0 \Rightarrow b$  (i.e. no of subnet bits = 0)

$$\therefore \# \text{ subnets} = 2^b = 2^0 = 1$$

$\therefore$  no of host bits,  $n = 32 - 8 = 24$

$$\therefore \# \text{ hosts} = 2^n - 2 = 2^{24} - 2 = 16,777,214$$

2. The address of a class B host is to be split into subnets with a 6-bit subnet number. What is the maximum number of subnets and the maximum number of hosts in each subnet? Consider the following routing table at an IP router

Network No.	Net Mask	Next Hop
128.96.170.0	255.255.254.0	Interface 0
128.96.168.0	255.255.254.0	Interface 1
128.96.166.0	255.255.254.0	R2
128.96.164.0	255.255.254.0	R3
0.0.0.0	Default	R4

2018 M  
UGC NET 2017  
GATE 2015

For each IP address in Column I, match the correct entries to Next Hop in Column III.

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a) 10 netid hostid

$$\# \text{ subnets} = 2^6 - 2 = 62$$

$$\text{Total nw id} = 16 + 6 = 22$$

$$\therefore \text{nw id} + \text{host id} = \text{Total nw id}$$

$$\Rightarrow \# \text{ host id} = 32 - 22 = 10$$

b) i) 128.96.171.92

AND 255.255.254.0

128.96.170.0 (Matched), next hop  $\rightarrow$  I

ii) 128.96.168.151

AND 255.255.254.0

128.96.166.0 (Matched), next hop  $\rightarrow$  R<sub>2</sub>

iii) 128.96.163.151

AND 255.255.252.0

128.96.162.0 (not matched)

try to mask with 2<sup>nd</sup> longest prefix

128.96.163.151

AND 255.255.252.0

128.96.160.0 (No match) Next hop  $\rightarrow$  R<sub>4</sub> (Default)

iv) 128.96.165.121

AND 255.255.254.0

128.96.164.0 (Matched), next hop  $\rightarrow$  R<sub>3</sub>

i  $\rightarrow$  a | ii  $\rightarrow$  c | iii  $\rightarrow$  e | iv  $\rightarrow$  d

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[b] What is dotted decimal notation in IPv4 addressing and hexadecimal notation in IPv6 addressing? An organization is granted the block 130.56.0.0/16. The administrator wants to create 1024 subnets.

- a. Find the subnet mask
- b. Find the number of addresses in each subnet
- c. Find the first and last addresses in subnet 1
- d. Find the first and last addresses in subnet 1024

2018 S

c) Dotted decimal notation is a way of representing IPv4 addresses using four decimal numbers separated by periods (.)

Eg.) 192.168.1.1

Hexadecimal notation is a way of representing IPv6 addresses where each hexadecimal number represents four 4 bits of IPv6 address.

IPv6 addresses are 128 bit long, so they are typically represented as eight groups of four hexadecimal digits separated by colons.

Eg.) 2001:0dB8:85a3:0000:0000:8a2e:0370:7334.

a)  $n=10 \therefore 2^{10} = 1024$

It's in class B as  $128 < 130 < 192$

∴ Default Mask = /16

Bits for Subnet = /10

∴ Subnet mask = /26

i.e. 255.255.255.192

b) Remaining bits =  $32 - 26 = 6$  bits = b

∴ we can allocate  $2^b - 2$  address

$$= 2^6 - 2 = 64 - 2$$

$$= 62 \text{ addresses}$$

c) First address of subnet 1024

$$= 130.56.255.192$$

d) Last address of subnet 1024

$$= 130.56.255.254$$

c) First address of subnet 1 = 130.56.0.1

.. Last address of subnet 1 = 130.56.0.62

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3. a. Explain IPv4 Classful IP addressing? The address of a class B host is to be split into subnets with a 6-bit subnet number. What is the maximum number of subnets and maximum number of hosts in each subnet?

2018 F

IPv4 classfull addressing refers to the original method of allocating IP addresses, which was based on dividing the address space into classes: A, B, C, D, E. Each class had a fix number of network and host bits, which determine the no. of networks and host per network that could be accommodated.

	32 bits	Range of host address
A	0 Network	Host 0.0.0.0 - 127.255.255.255
B	10 Network	Host 128.0.0.0 - 191.255.255.255
C	110 Network	Host 192.0.0.0 - 223.255.255.255
D	1110 Multicast address	224.0.0.0 - 239.255.255.255
E	1111 Reserved for future use	240.0.0.0 - 255.255.255.255

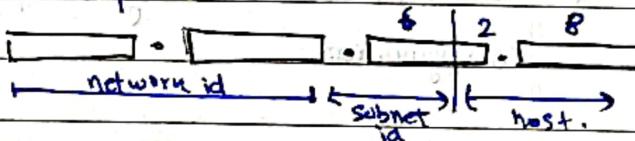
This system is rigid and lead to inefficient address allocation with the rapid growth of internet. And was replaced from IPv4 to IPv6.

Given,

Its in class B, no network bits = 16

Subnet bits, b = 6

host bit =  $32 - 16 - 6 = 10$



$$\# \text{subnets} = 2^b = 64 \quad | \quad \# \text{hosts} = 2^{10} - 2 = 1022$$

- ii) What is the network address and broadcast address for the IP address 10.20.30.40/26?

2023E

[2][CO3]

Final ans: 10.20.30.40 / 26  
Network address: 10.20.30.40  
Broadcast address: 10.20.30.63

Technical discussion

+ subnet mask 255.255.255.128

+ subnet mask 255.255.255.128

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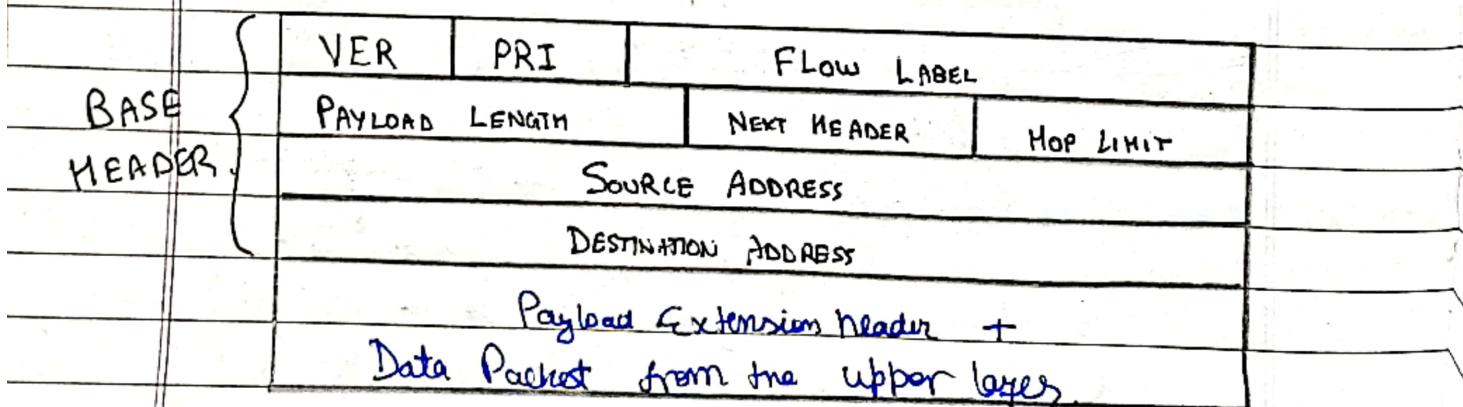
[b] What are the major differences between IPv4 and IPv6? Discuss header format and Network addressing with reference to IPv6. 20195

### IPv4

### IPv6

1. IPv4 addresses are 32 bits (4 bytes) in length and represent  $2^{32}$  (around 4 billion addresses). IPv6 addresses are 128 bits (16 bytes) in length and represent  $2^{128}$  (around 310 undecillion addresses).
2. Its address is written in dotted decimal notation like 121.8.12.2. Its address is written in hexadecimal notation like FABC:AC77:7834:2222:FACB:0000:0000:0000.
3. The basic length of IPv4 header comprises a minimum of 20 bytes. The max length of the IPv4 header is 60 bytes, and it uses 13 fields to identify various control settings. The IPv6 header is a static header of 40 bytes in length and has only 8 fields. Optional information is carried by an extension header, placed after IPv6 header.
4. The IPv4 node has only Stateful auto-configuration. The IPv6 node contains both a stateful and stateless address auto-config mechanism.
5. Security in IPv4 networks is limited to tunneling b/w two networks. IPv6 has been designed to satisfy the growing and expanded need for network security.

### IPv6 Header



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The header has eight fields:

- 1) VERSION (VER): It is a four bit field which defines the version of IP such as IPv4 or IPv6.
- 2) PRIORITY: It is a 4 bit field which defines the priority of the packet which is important in connection with the traffic congestion.
- 3) FLOW LABEL: It is a 24 bit (3 byte) field which is designed for providing special handling for a particular flow of data.
- 4) PAYLOAD LENGTH: This is a 2 byte length field which is used to define the total length of IP datagram excluding the header.
- 5) NEXT HEADER: It is an 8 bit field which defines the header which follows the base header in the datagram.
- 6) HOP LIMIT: This is an 8 bit field which has same purpose as time to live in IPv4.
- 7) SRC | DEST Address: 16 byte address which identifies original src and final dest of datagram.  
Network addressing already discussed.

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(b) Explain the distance vector routing algorithm and give the limitations of this algorithm.  
2019M

Distance vector routing algorithm is one of the most common intradomain routing algorithm. It is used in Routing information protocol where each router maintains a table called vector, such a table gives the best known distance to each destination and the information about next node. It is also known as distributed Bellman Ford routing algo. It follows:

- 1.) Initialization: Each router initializes its distance vector table by only knowing the cost to directly connected neighbours.
- 2.) Sharing: Routers periodically share their entire distance vector table with immediate neighbours.
- 3.) Updating: When router receives a distance vector table from neighbour, it checks for
  - new destinations and adds them in its table.
  - shorter paths and update their distance.
- 4.) This process continues till the network stabilizes.

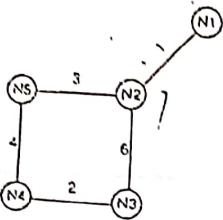
### LIMITATIONS

- Count to infinity problem which is solved by split horizon algo.
- does not take bandwidth into consideration when choosing node which is solved by Link State Routing Algo.

3. What will be the final distance vectors at different nodes for the following given network where N1, N2, N3, N4, N5 represents Nodes of the network?

2018 M

4 marks

for N<sub>5</sub>

Dest	Dist	Next
N <sub>1</sub>	4	N <sub>2</sub>
N <sub>2</sub>	3	N <sub>2</sub>
N <sub>3</sub>	6	N <sub>4</sub>
N <sub>4</sub>	4	N <sub>4</sub>
N <sub>5</sub>	0	-

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for N<sub>1</sub>

Dest	Dist	Next
N <sub>1</sub>	0	-
N <sub>2</sub>	1	N <sub>2</sub>
N <sub>3</sub>	7	N <sub>2</sub>
N <sub>4</sub>	8	N <sub>2</sub>
N <sub>5</sub>	4	N <sub>2</sub>

for N<sub>2</sub>

Dest	Dist	Next
N <sub>1</sub>	1	N <sub>1</sub>
N <sub>2</sub>	0	-
N <sub>3</sub>	6	N <sub>3</sub>
N <sub>4</sub>	7	N <sub>5</sub>
N <sub>5</sub>	3	N <sub>5</sub>

for N<sub>4</sub>

Dest	Dist	Next
N <sub>1</sub>	8	N <sub>5</sub>
N <sub>2</sub>	7	N <sub>5</sub>
N <sub>3</sub>	2	N <sub>3</sub>
N <sub>4</sub>	0	-
N <sub>5</sub>	4	N <sub>5</sub>

for N<sub>3</sub>

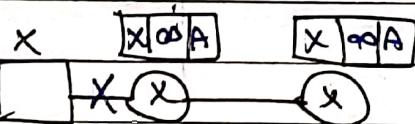
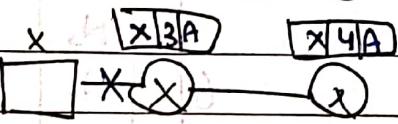
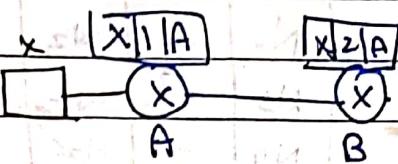
Dest	Dist	Next
N <sub>1</sub>	7	N <sub>2</sub>
N <sub>2</sub>	6	N <sub>2</sub>
N <sub>3</sub>	0	-
N <sub>4</sub>	2	N <sub>4</sub>
N <sub>5</sub>	6	N <sub>4</sub>

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3. a. Explain Distance Vector Routing (DVR) algorithm. What is count to infinity problem?  
 b. What is count to infinity problem in DVR. Explain Link state algorithm with example. How is switch different from router? 2018S  
 2018 E (10 marks)

(Ex)



The count to infinity problem occurs in DVR algo when routers ~~intend~~ inadvertently create routing loops due to outdated or incorrect information.

It happens because routers can't detect when they are part of a looped path, leading to continuously increasing and potentially  $\infty$  routing loops.

Solutions are split horizon and poisoned reverse to prevent routers from propagating incorrect or unreachable routes.

#### LINK STATE Routing

It is an intradomain routing algo used by OSPF (open shortest path first). Link State is determined by routers using hello packets. All the routers share their link states with each other flooding link state packets. Based on link state information, routers determine the shortest path using Dijkstra's algorithm. With the use of a link state routing algo, routers route the frames with a global knowledge of CN.

Ex:)