

Introduction to Computer Network

Computer Network:

- Collection of autonomous computers interconnected by a technology is known as computer network.
- The merging of computers and communication has had a profound influence on the way computer system are organized. Large number of separate but interconnected computers do the job.
- Two computers are said to be interconnected if they are able to exchange information. The connection need not via a copper wire; infrared, fiberoptic, microwaves and communication satellite can also be used.
- Although it may sound strange but internet and world wide web are not a computer network. The internet is not a single network but a network of inter-network and web is distributed systems that runs on top of the internet.
- Distributed system: A collection of independent computers appears to its users as a single coherent system. Eg: www

Merits of Computer Network

It's now worth to point out why people are interested in computer network and what they can be used for:

a. Network for Companies

- o i) Resource sharing
- ii) High reliability

iii) Saving money: small computer have a much better price / performance ratio than large ones. 'file server' 'client-server' model.

iv) Scalability: new client can be added or need

v. powerful communication medium

b. Network for people

- i. Access to remote information (BBC online)
- ii. Person to person communication (Skype)
- iii. Interactive entertainment (Eg: YouTube)

c. Social Networking (Eg: Facebook)

d. Core banking system (Eg: Temenos T24)

- Better communication

Better connectivity

Better sharing of resources

Bring people together

Demerits

- Increased cost

- Security

- Unavailability of information in case of network failure.

A Communication model

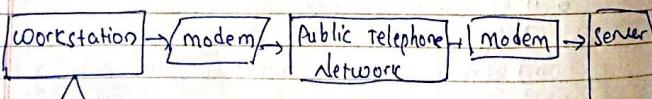
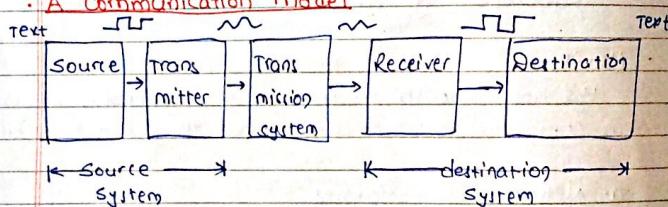


Fig: General block diagram

Fig: Example of communication model.

Source: Generates data to be transmitted.

Transmitter: Convert data into transmittable signals.

Transmission system: carries data.

Receiver: Converts received signal into data.

Destination: Takes incoming data.

Direction of data flow: Multiplexing

i) Simplex: only one way communication at any instant. Eg: TV, radio

ii) Half Duplex: either one of the direction of data flow at a time Eg: Police radio, walkie-talkie

iii) Full duplex: both way communication at a time Eg: Telephone communication

↗ (Transmission Technology)

Types of communication service (all w/ hardware)

- Point to point (unicast)

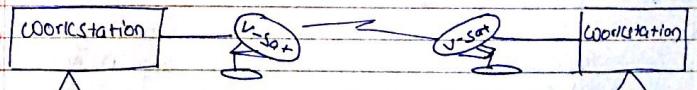
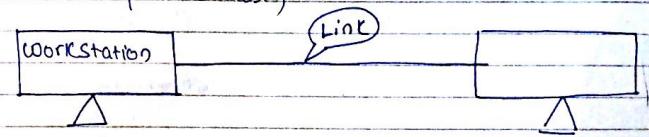


Fig: Point-to-point Connection

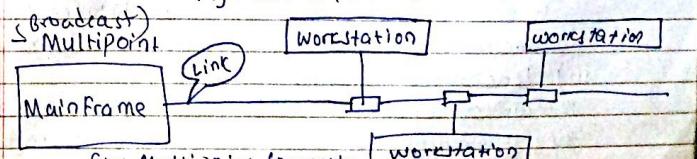


Fig: Multipoint Connection

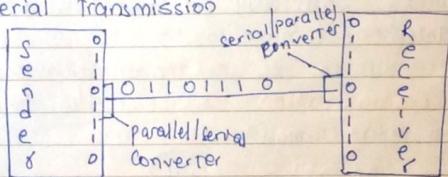
Data transmission



a. Parallel transmission



b. Serial transmission



8 bits are sent one after another

i) Asynchronous Transmission

It can occur at any time with an arbitrary delay between the transmission of two data items: email, blog.

ii) Synchronous Transmission

It occurs continuously with no gap between the transmission of two data items: chat room, call.

iii) Isochronous Transmission

It occurs at regular interval with a fixed gap between the transmission of two data items: video conferencing.

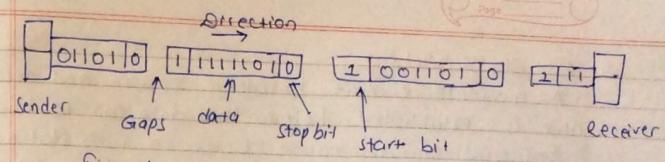
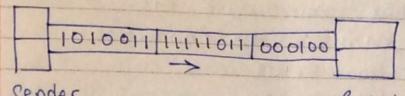


Fig: Asynchronous



it is responsibility of receiver to group & sort the bits.

Fig: Synchronous

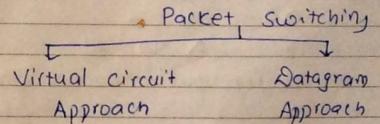
In Isochronous:

- fast steady and uninterrupted data stream
- necessary for multimedia application
- JIT (Just in Time) delivery
- it is designed to accept and send data rate at a fixed rate
- provided each stream a guaranteed time slot of 125μs

Switching Techniques

Switching

Circuit switching



a. Circuit switching:

- A complete circuit between source and destination node is established before the data can be transmitted.
- Dedicated communication between two stations.
- Communication link: Telephone line, Coaxial cable, Satellite link, microwave etc.
- Steps to establish the connection:
 1. Connection Setup
 2. Data Interchange
 3. Connection Termination

Problems:

1. Inefficient

- Channel dedicated for the duration of connection
- If no data, capacity is wasted

2. Setup connection takes time

3. Once connected, transfer is transparent

4. Developed for voice traffic

5. Circuit switching usually uses fixed rate (64 kbps) and it's difficult to support variable data rate

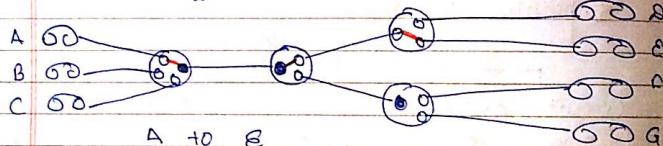


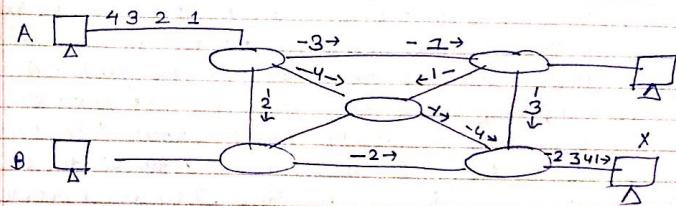
fig: public circuit switched network

b. Packet switching

- Data transmitted in small packets
- Each packet contains user data plus control information
- Control information contains routing information

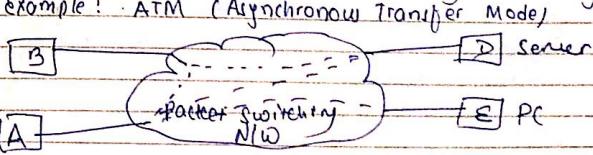
(i) Datagram Packet switching

- No need to establish the connection between the source and destination
- Route chosen on packet by packet basis
- Packet may be stored until delivered (store & forward)
- Different packets may follow different routes
- Packets may arrive out of order at the destination



(ii) Virtual Circuit switching

- Route is chosen at the start of session and it's only a logical connection
- All packets associated with a session follow the same path
- Packets are labeled with a VC# designated the route
- The VC number must be unique on a given link
- Packets are forwarded more quickly (No routing decision)



Network Hardware

There are two types of transmission technology that are in widespread use. They are as follows:

1. Broadcast links
2. Point to point links

a. Broadcast links:

It has a single communication channel that is shared by all the machines on the network. Short messages called packets in certain contexts, sent by any machine are received by all the others. An address field within the packet specifies the intended recipient. Upon receiving a packet, machine checks the address field, if the packet is intended for the receiving machine, that machine processes the packet. If the packet is intended for some other machine it just ignores it.

Eg: A person at the hotel shout "Watson! Come here! I want you". Although the packet (voice) may be received (heard) by many people, only Watson responds. The others just ignore it. This is called broadcasting.

b. Point to point

Point to point networks consist of many connections between individual pairs of machines. To go from the source to the destination, a packet on this type of network may have to first visit one or more intermediate machines. Point to point transmission with one sender and one receiver is called unicasting.

→ We classify multiple processor systems by their physical size.

- Personal Area Network, networks that are meant for one person Eg: wireless link connecting a computer with its mouse.

- The connection of two or more networks is called an internetwork. Eg: world wide internet

Interprocessor distance	Processors located in same	Example
1 m	Sq. meter	Personal Area Network
10 m	Room	
100 m	Building	
1000 m = 1 km	Campus	Local Area Network
10 km	City	
100 km	Country	Metropolitan Area Network
1000 km	Continent	
10,000 km	Planet	Wide Area Network
		The Internet

* Physical topologies

- Physical layout of the Network
- It is a geometric representation of the relationship of all the links and linking devices
- Linking device are called Nodes
- Four basic possible topologies are:
 - Bus Topology
 - Star Topology
 - Mesh Topology
 - Ring Topology

Network categories

- Local Area Network (LAN)
- Metropolitan Area Network (MAN)
- Wide Area Network (WAN)
- Campus Area Network (CAN)*
- Country Area Network (CAN)**
- Personal Area Network (PAN)
- Global Area Network (GAN)

LAN

- Connects host within a relatively small geographic area
- Same building
- Same room
- Faster, cheaper
- under a control of single ownership
- Typical speed: 10Mbps to 10Gbps

WAN

- Hosts may be widely dispersed
 - Across campuses
 - Across cities/countries
- slower, expensive
 - Not under a control of a single person
 - Typical speed: 64 Kbps to 8 Mbps

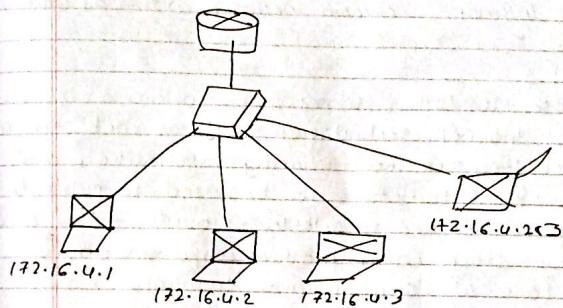
Modes of Communication

In an IPv4 network, the host can communicate one of three different ways

1. **Unicast** :- The process of sending a packet from one host to an individual host.
2. **Broadcast** :- the process of sending a packet from one host to all hosts in the network.
3. **Multicast** :- the process of sending a packet from one host to a selected group of hosts.

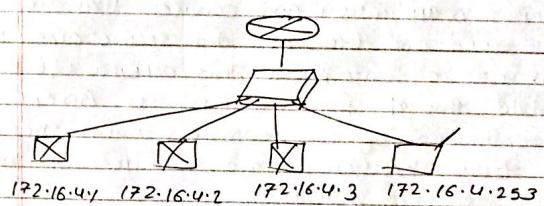
Unicast Transmission

Source: 172.16.4.1
Destination: 172.16.4.253



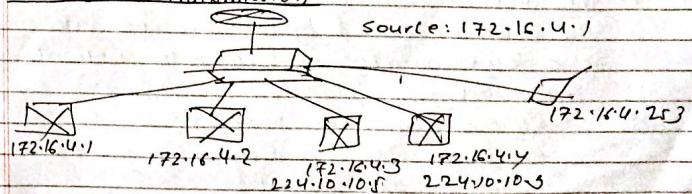
Broadcast transmission

Source: 172.16.4.1
Destination: 255.255.255.255



Multicast Transmission

Source: 172.16.4.1



Inter - Networking

- Intro Net : Network within an Org.
- Internet : Network betⁿ diff other org.
- The Internet : Global network within an Universe

A. Intranet :

A private TCP/IP internetwork within an organization that uses Internet technologies such as web servers and web browsers for sharing information and collaborating. Intranets can be used to publish company policies and newsletters, provide sales and marketing staff with product information, provide technical support and tutorials.

- Intranet VPN
- Extranet VPN

B. Extranet

It refers to application and services that are intranet based and use extended, secure access to external user or enterprises. This access is usually accomplished through password, user IDs. An extranet is the extension of two or more intranet strategies with a secure interaction between participant enterprises and their respective intranets.

C. The Internet

The network formed by co-operative interconnection of a large number of computer networks.

- Network of Networks
- No one owns the Internet
- Every person who makes a connection owns the slice of the Internet

There is no central administration of the Internet.

Topology:

1. Physical topology:

The way in which a network is laid out physically. The actual layout of the wire or media. Two or more devices connect to a link: two or more links form a topology.

- Bus topology
- Ring topology
- Star topology
- Extended star topology
- Mesh topology
- Extended star topology

2. Logical topology

It defines how the hosts access the media to send data. Shows the flow of data on a network.

types:

- ① broadcast topology: indicates that each host sends its data to all other hosts on the network medium.

② token passing

An electronic token is passed sequentially to each host. When host receives the token, the host can send data on the network.

Example: Token Ring

: Fiber Distributed Data Interface (FDDI)

Network Model / Architecture

1. Peer to Peer Model
2. Client- Server Model

A. Peer to Peer Model :

→ No use of dedicated servers
→ In P2P, network computers act as equal partners or peers. As peers, each computer can take on the client function or the server function.

Example: Computer 'A' may request for a file from computer 'B', which then sends file to 'A'. Computer 'A' acts like the client and computer 'B' acts like the server. At a later time, Computer A and B can reverse the role.

In P2P NW, individual users control their own resources.
 - user may decide to share certain files with others.
 - user may also require passwords.
 - P2P NW works well with ten or fewer computers.
 - P2P does not scale well, their efficiency decreases rapidly as the computer increases.

Client-Server model or network can be used to overcome the limitations of P2P network.

P2P envir
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B. Client- Server Model :

Client-Server describes the relationship between two computer programs in which one program, the client makes a service request from another program, the server, which fulfills the request. Client-Server model provides a convenient way to interconnect programs that are distributed efficiently across different locations.

Example: To check your bank account from your computer, a client- program in your computer forwards your request to a server program at the bank.

Client - Server Vs Peer-to-Peer Network

Peer to Peer	Client - Server
Advantage	Advantage
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - less expensive to implement - does not require network administrative softwares - Does not require a dedicated network administrator DisAdvantage <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Does not scale well to large NW and administration is unmanageable. - less secure - All machine sharing the resources negatively impact the performance - Each user must be trained to perform administrative work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides a better security - Easier to administer because administration is centralized - All data can be backed up on one central location DisAdvantage <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Requires expensive, specialized network administrative and operational software. - requires a professional administrator - Has a single point of failure. If the server is down, user data is unavailable. - Requires more expensive, powerful hardware for server machine

Reference Model

* Network Software:

Network software is a set of primitives that define the protocol between two machines. The network resolved an ambiguity among different types of network making it possible for all the machines in the network to connect and communicate with one another and share information.

Network software is used to efficiently share information among computers. It encloses the information to be sent in a 'package' that contains a 'header' and a 'trailer'. The header and trailer contain information for the receiving computer, such as the address of that computer and how the information package is coded.

* Protocols:

- A protocol is set of rules that governs the data and communication
- For communication to occur, the entities must agree on a protocol
- The key elements of a protocols are
 1. Syntax: Structure/format of data.
 2. Semantics: Meanings of each data
 3. Timing: how fast and when data should be sent

"French scientist cannot communicate with Japanese scientist without any protocol"

* Standards:

- It provides guidelines to manufacturers for interoperability.
- Creates open and competitive market for manufacturers
- Data communication standards falls into two categories
 1. De-facto
 2. De-jure
- De-facto standards have not been approved by organization
- Standards through wide spread use are De-facto standards
- De-jure standards have been legalized by an org.

Standard organizations:

ISO: International Organization of Standardization

ITU: International Telecommunication Union

ANSI: American National Standards Institute

IEEE: Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers

EIA: Electronic Industries Association

Extra: Network software : Protocol Hierarchy

- Stack of layer → Protocol stack / Protocol Suite
- Each layer provides service to layer above it.
- No direct data transfer from layer n on one machine to other.
- Through physical Medium actual communication occurs.
- Layer n on one machine carries a conversation with layer n on another machine. The rules and conventions used in this conversation is known as layer n protocol.

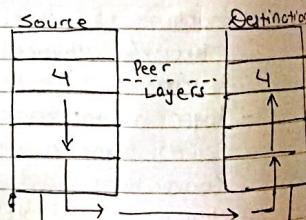
- To reduce their design complexity, most networks are organized as a stack of layers or levels, each one built upon the one below it. The number of layers, contents of each layer, function of layers differ from network to network.
- In a sense, each layer is a kind of virtual machine, offering certain services to the layer above it.
- Through Physical Medium actual communication occurs.

Layer Communication

- In order of data packets to travel from a source to a destination on a network, it is important that all devices on the network speak the same language or protocol.
- A protocol is a set of rules that make communication on a network more efficient. Example: while flying an aeroplane, pilots obey very specific rules for communication with other aeroplanes and with air control.

Data communication protocol is a set of rules or an agreement that determines the format and transmission of data.

A protocol in one layer performs a certain set of operations on data as it prepares the data to be sent over the network. The data is then passed



to the next layer where another protocol performs a different set of operations.

- Once the packet has been sent to the destination, the protocols undo the construction of the packet that was done on the source side. This is done in reverse order.
- The protocols for each layer on the destination return the information to its original form so the application can properly read the data.

* Design Issues for the layer

- Some form of addressing is needed in order to specify a specific destination.
 - Concern for the rules of data transfer i.e. data in one direction and data in two directions.
 - Error control is an important issue. Many error detecting and correcting codes are known.
 - Receiver must have some way of telling to sender which data correctly received and which.
 - Issues with fast sender with slow receiver. Flow control should be maintained.
 - When multiple paths between source and destination, routing should be done.
- #
- or:
- ① Addressing
 - ② Segmentation and Reassembly
 - ③ Encapsulation
 - ④ Flow of control
 - ⑤ Error control
 - ⑥ Multiplexing and Demultiplexing
 - ⑦ Routing
 - ⑧ Connection Control
 - Connection-oriented Service
 - Connectionless Service

OSI Reference Model

- The protocols associated with OSI model are rarely used anymore, the model itself is actually quite general and still valid, and the features discussed at each layer are still very important.
- The model proposed by ISO.
- ISO (open system interconnection) because it deals with connecting open systems.
- It has seven layers
- A theoretical system delivered too late

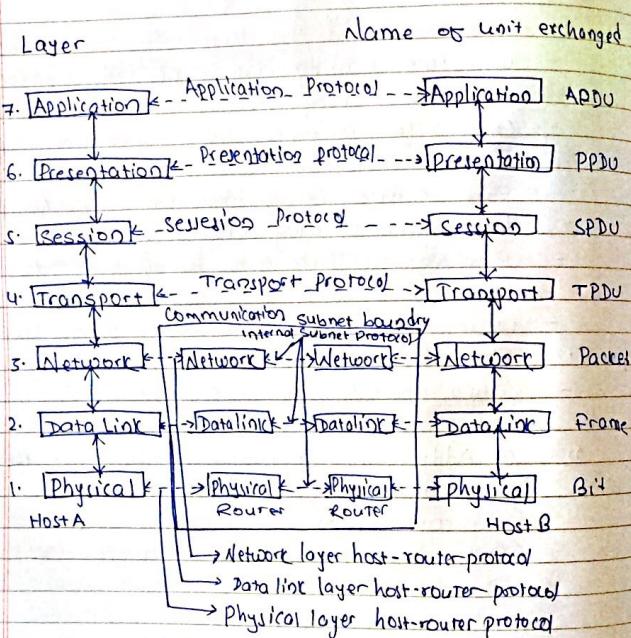


fig: OSI reference Model

+ Function of OSI layers

① Physical Layer

- Concerned with transmitting individual bits over a communication channel
- Deals with physical characteristics of Interfaces and Media [electrical and mechanical, and timing]
- Questions like how many volt used to represent a 1
- Whether transmission proceed in two direction
- How initial connection established

② Data Link Layer

- Enables node to node communication
- The main task is to transform a raw transmission facility into a line that appears free of undetected error to network layer
- Break up the input data into data frames and transmit the frames sequentially.
- Receiver sends back an acknowledgement frame.
- Keep a fast transmitter from drowning a slow receiver (traffic regulation mechanism is needed)
- Broadcast networks: how to control access to shared channel (CSMA/CD)

③ Network Layer

- How packets are routed from source to destination
- Route can be stat based on static table (determined at start of each conversation)
- They can be highly dynamic
- Quality of service is a network layer issue
- If too many packets, they will get in one's another way, forming bottle neck.

- The addressing used by second n/w may different
- Packet could be too large
- Protocol may differ
- In broadcast n/w, the routing problem is simple so the n/w layer is often thin or even non-existent

4. Transport Layer

- Accept data from above, split it up into smaller unit if need be, pass these to n/w layer and ensure that the pieces arrive correctly.
- determines what types of service to provide to the session layer and ultimately user.
- The most popular type of transport connection is an error free point to point channel and deliver message or bytes in order in which they were sent.
- Transport layer is true end-to-end layer, all the way from source to destination. (One machine conversation with another machine using the message headers and control messages).
- In lower layer, protocols are between each machine or immediate neighbours.
- layers 1-2-3 are chained, layers 4,5,6,7 are end to end.

5. Session layers

- it allows users on different machines to establish sessions between them.
- session offer service like
 - dialog control (keeping track of whose turn it is)
 - token mgmt
 - synchronization
- Dialogue discipline → half duplex / full duplex

6. The presentation Layer

- lower layers move bits
- It concerned with syntax and semantics of the information transmitted
- Different computer use different data representations. It provides an abstract, standard encoding
- Data formats, data compression, encryption

7. Application Layer

- Responsible for providing service to end users.
- Contains a variety of protocols commonly used by user
- Mail transfer service
- File transfer service

TCP/IP Reference model

- ARPANET was a research n/w sponsored by DOD (US Department of defence). It eventually connects hundreds of universities and government, using telephone lines.
- when satellite and radio n/w were added, existing protocols had trouble interworking with them.
- "The ability to connect multiple networks in a seamless way was one of the major design goals from very beginning". This architecture called TCP/IP ref model

OSI	TCP/IP
Application	Application
Presentation	
Session	
Transport	Transport
Network	Internet
Data Link	Host to Network (Layer)
Physical	

Not present in the model

... more reference model

1. TCP/IP means Transmission Control protocol and Internet protocol (DOD). It was developed because:
- supports for a flexible architecture. (adding more machines)
 - Network was robust.
 - They allow one application on one computer to communicate to another application running on different computer.

2. Host to Network layer

- lowest layer
- to connect to the host, so that packets can be sent over it
- varies from host-to-host and n/w-to-n/w.

3. Internet Layer :

- Selection of packet switching n/w which is based on connectionless Internetwork layer is called Internet layer
- It is the layer which holds the whole architecture together.
- It helps the packet to travel independently to dest.
- Order of receive is diff than way they are sent
- IP (Internet protocol) is used in this layer.

4. Transport Layer

- It decides if data transmission is parallel or serial trans?
- multiplexing, segmenting on data is done
- The application can read or write to Transport layer
- It breaks the message (data) into small units
- Arrange the packets to be sent in sequence.

4. Application Layer

The TCP/IP described a lot of application that were at the top of protocol stack. Some of them are

- TELNET : two-way communication protocol which allows connecting to remote machine
- FTP (File transport protocol) : allows file transfer
- SMTP (Simple mail transfer protocol) : allows electronic mail
- DNS (Domain name server) : resolves an IP address into a textual address for hosts connected over a network.

Merits of TCP/IP model:

- It operates independently.
- Scalable,
- Client Server architecture
- Supports a no. of routing protocol (SMTP, FTP)
- can be used to establish a connection b/w two computers

Demerits of TCP/IP

- Transport layer does not guarantee delivery of packets
- The model cannot be used in any other application
- Replacing protocol is not easy.
- not clearly separated its service, interfaces and protocols

OSI

1. guarantees the delivery of packets
2. less eligible, 7 layer
3. follows vertical approach
4. OSI is a reference model, from which other built.
5. N/w layer provides both connectionless or connection-oriented service.

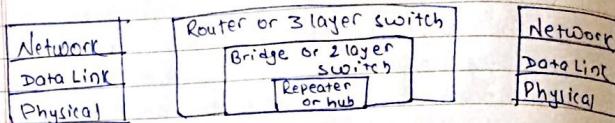
TCP/IP

1. does not
2. more, 5 layer
3. follows horizontal approach
4. Implementation of OSI
5. Provides connectionless service.

6. It fits on any protocol

Networking Hardware

* Hub and Repeaters



① Repeater

- Repeater forwards each frame
- It has no filtering capability
- Repeater is a regenerator Not an Amplifier
- Operates at a physical layer
- Regenerate the Signal before signal gone weak
- Copy the signal bit by bit
- It is a 2 port device

② Hub

- multiport repeater
- connects multiple wires coming from different branch
- cannot filter data, data packets are sent to all connected device, collision domain of all host connected through Hub remains one.
- do not have intelligence to find out best path for data packets which leads to inefficiency and wastage

③ Bridge

- It operates a data link layer
- is a repeater, with add on functionality of filtering content by reading the MAC address of source dest
- Used to connect two LANs working on same protocol

- It has single DIP, single IP port, hence 2 port device.

④ Switch:

- is a multiport bridge with a buffer and a design that can boost its efficiency (large no. of ports less traffic)
- is a data link layer device.
- perform error checking before forwarding data, that makes it very efficient as it does not forward packets that have error
- divides collision domain of host but broadcast domain remains same

⑤ Router:

- device like switch that routes data packets based on their IP addresses.
- mainly a network layer device
- connects LANs and WANs together & have dynamically updating routing table base on which make decisions on routing the data packet.
- Router divide broadcast domains of hosts connected through it.

⑥ Gateway:

- is a passage to connect two networks together that may work upon different networking-models.
- work as a messenger agent, take data from one system, interpret it, transfer to another system.
- also called protocol converters
- can operate on any network layer
- more complex than switch or router.

① Twisted pair cable

- most common, cheaper, lightweight
- easily installed, supportive, availability
- frequency range 0 to 3.5 kHz
- typical attenuation: 0.2 dB/km @ 1 kHz
- typical delay is 50 ns/km
- Repeater spacing is 2 km

types

① Unshielded twisted pair (UTP)

② Shielded twisted pair (STP)

- cable connector → RJ45 and RJ11

STP:

- metal foil covered, which encloses each pair of insulated conductors
- electromagnetic noise penetration is prevented by metal casing.
- same attenuation as unshielded twisted pair
- more expensive than UTP
- can be used for digital or analog
- heavy

UTP

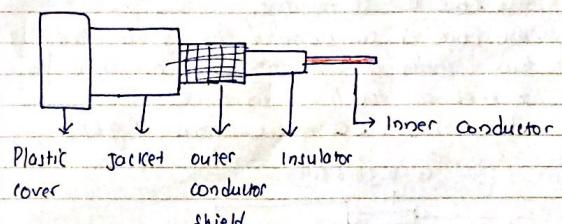
- common types, consist two conductor, each with its own color plastic insulator
- color → identification easy
- 100 m limit
- used in ethernet
- bandwidth lower

② Co-axial cable

- contain 2 conductor that are parallel to each other
- copper is used in this as centre conductor which can be a solid wire or a standard one

- surrounded by PVC insulation, a sheath which is enclosed in an outer conductor of metal foil, braid or both.

- it can span longer distance with higher rates
- metallic corrapping act as a shield against corapping



Baseband:

This is 50 ohm (Ω) coaxial cable which is used for digital transmission. It is mostly used for LANs. Baseband transmits a single signal at a time with very high speed. The major drawback is that it needs amplification after every 1000 feet.

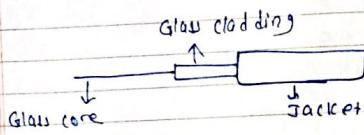
Broadband:

- This uses analog transmission on standard cable TV cabling. It transmits several simultaneous signals using different frequencies.

- covers large area than baseband

- Expensive, difficult to install, long distance, high bandwidth
- transmits digital signals at a very high rate of 10 Mbps

- ① Fiber optic cable
- Similar to coaxial, uses electric signals to transmit data.
 - At the centre is the glass core through which light propagates.
 - the core is 50 microns,
 - The core is surrounded by glass cladding with lower index of refraction as compared to core to keep all the light in core.
 - bandwidth: up to more than 2 gbps

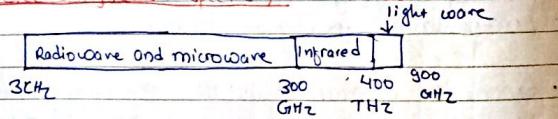


Advantage: high quality transmission at high speed

- not affected by electromagnetic interference so noise and distortion is very less
- used for both analog and digital signals
- lower attenuation

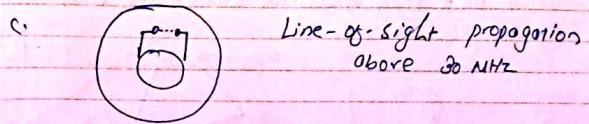
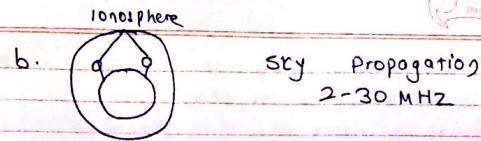
DisAdvantage: expensive, difficult to install.
- do not allow complete routing of light signals.

* Electromagnetic Spectrum: wireless communication



① Propagation method

- a)  Ionosphere Ground propagation below 2 MHz



x wireless communication (WLAN): Architecture

- Growing technologies, found everywhere
- Promising wireless LAN Technologies
 - IEEE 802.11 wireless LAN
 - Bluetooth
- IEEE 802.11 wireless LAN is also referred as wireless ethernet
- A Bluetooth LAN is an ad-hoc network.
- The gadgets find each other and make a network called piconet.
- Bluetooth is defined by IEEE 802.15 Standard.
- It defines wireless PAN operable in an area of room.

ESS: Extended service set

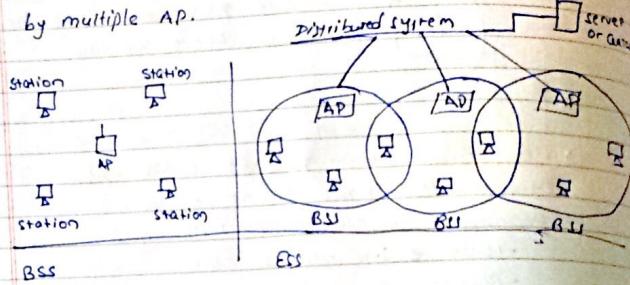
BSS: Basic service set

AP: Access point

SSID: Service Set ID

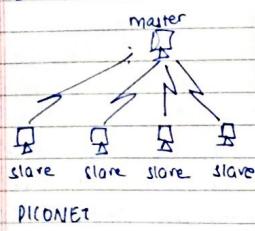
- when you configure your wireless access device, you notice a field called Service Set ID (SSID). You must configure all connecting devices and AP in a service set to use the same SSID.
- two types: BSS and ESS

- ① BSS consists of a group of computers and one AP which links to a wired LAN.
- ② ESS consists of more than one AP. An ESS lets mobile users roam anywhere within the area covered by multiple AP.



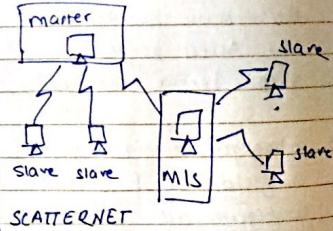
+ PICONET

- In this net, device can function either as master or slave
- It serves smaller coverage
- Connects maximum 8 nodes
- It allows less efficient use of available bluetooth channel bandwidth



Scatternet

- In this net, device can function as master or slave
- Large coverage
- More than 8 nodes
- It allows more efficient use of available bluetooth channel bandwidth



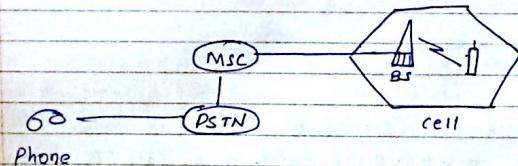
* Cellular System

- Partitioned the region into smaller regions called cells.
- Each cell gets atleast one base station (BS) or tower.
- Users within a cell talk to the tower.
- How can we divide the region
- cellular structure

Advantage: more capacity due to frequency reusage
less transmission power needed
more robust, tolerate failures

Frequency reuse factor

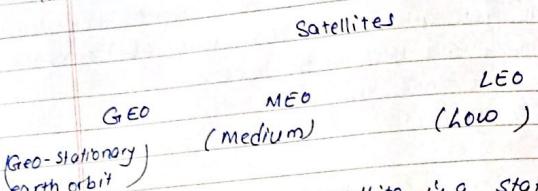
- available channel
- N adjacent cells (cluster), system has M channels
 N cells share S channels
- Each cells get K channel
- $S = KN$
- capacity of system $C = MKN$
- Frequency reuse factor is $\frac{1}{N}$



MSC: mobile switching center

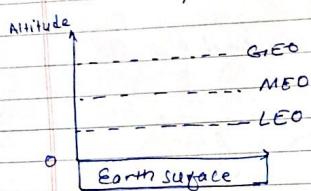
PSTN: public switched telephone network

Satellite categories



A communication satellite is a station in space that receives microwave signals from on earth based stations, amplifies the signals and broadcast the signal back over a wide area to many earth-based stations.

- Application:**
- TV and radio, weather forecast
 - Videoconferencing
 - Global positioning system (GPS)



* Geosynchronous orbit (GSO)

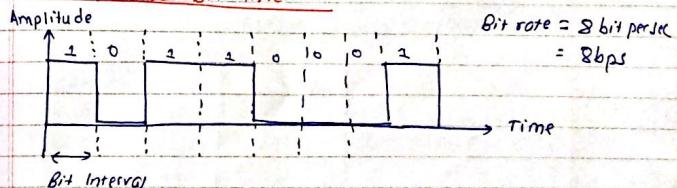
- is on orbit around Earth of a satellite with an orbital period that matches Earth's rotation on its axis.

- takes sidereal day (23H, 56m, 4s)

* Bandwidth

- property of medium
- difference b/w highest and lowest frequencies that the medium can satisfactorily pass.
- Bit rate and Bandwidth are proportional to each other.

* Bit rate and Bit Interval



- Bit interval is the inverse of Bit rate.

- Analog bandwidth in Hz, digital bits per second

* Baud Rate vs. Bit rate

- Baud rate of a data communication system is the no. of symbols per second transferred.
- Symbol may have more than two states
- Bit rate = Baud per second \times No. of bits per baud
- Bit rate is 6 times the Baud rate

Passenger in a Highway Bus.

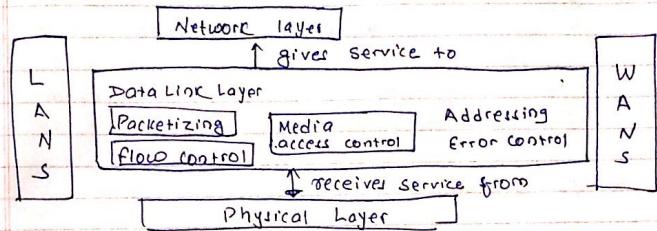
Throughput: is the number of bits passing through this coil in a second.

Bandwidth delay product refers to the product of a data link's capacity and its round-trip delay time (\rightarrow in bits per second \rightarrow in seconds).

- * Jitter:
- The internet makes no guarantee about time of delivery of a packet
 - Consider an IP telephony session
 - A packet pair's jitter is the difference between the transmission time gap and receive time gap.

Chapter
4

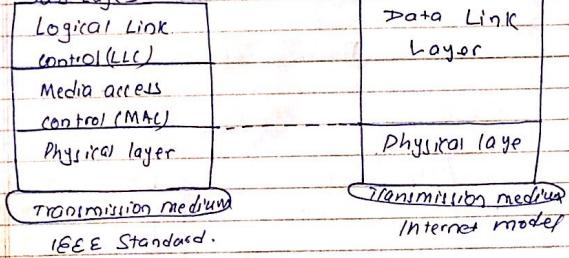
Data Link Layer

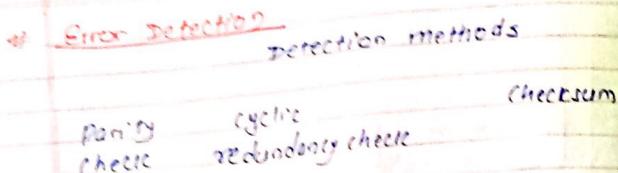


Duties of Data Link Layer:

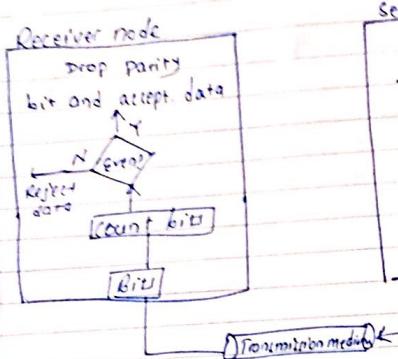
1. Packetizing
2. Addressing
3. Error Control
4. Flow control
5. Access Control

Sub Layers

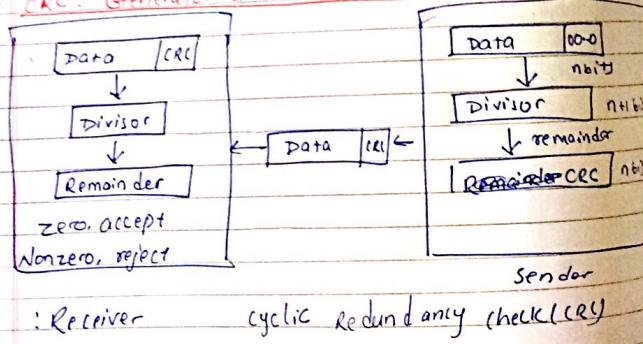




Parity check

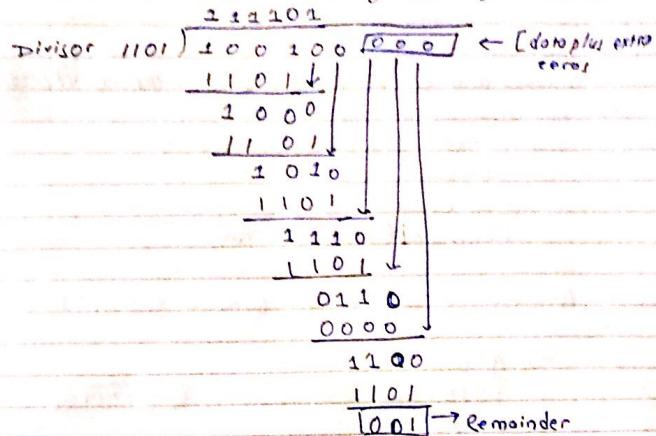


CRC: Generator and Checker

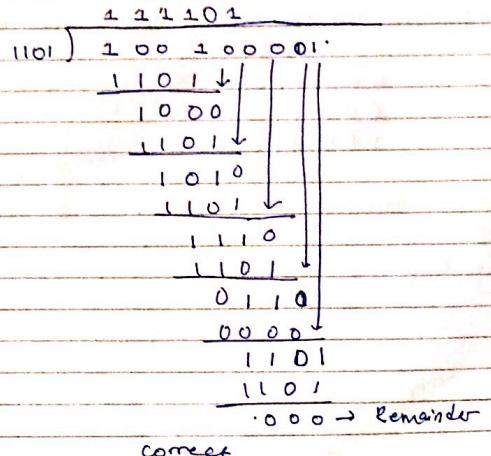


Sender side:

When the leftmost bit of the remainder is zero, we must use 0000 instead of the original divisor.



Receiver side:



* Checksum

Receiver: If the result is 0, keep else discard

Qn. checksum example

Suppose the block of 16 bits is to be sent using a checksum of 8 bits [10101001 00111001]

→ Sender side

Step1: two 8 bit no. are added

$$\begin{array}{r} 10101001 \\ + 00111001 \\ \hline 11100100 \leftarrow \text{sum} \end{array}$$

Complement's by 1 of sum = 00011101

The pattern sent is

10101001 00111001 00011101

→ Receiver side is

The received data along with checksum is added

$$\begin{array}{r} 10101001 \\ 00111001 \\ \hline 00011101 \\ \hline 11111111 \end{array}$$

Compute one's complement of sum = 00000000

No error in transmission

* Error Correction by Retransmission

- Stop and wait ARQ

- Go Back N ARQ

- Selective repeat ARQ

ARQ = Automatic repeat request

Error correction by forward error control
✓ Hamming code.

Hamming Code

- Given by R.W. Hamming

- Easy to implement

- 7 bit hamming code is used commonly

→ data bits - 4 - parity bit - 3 $\rightarrow 2^n \geq n=1, 2, 3$

For place of parity (for $n=7$)

$$2^0 = 1 \rightarrow P_1$$

$$2^1 = 2 \rightarrow P_2$$

$$2^2 = 4 \rightarrow P_4$$

$$2^3 = 8 \rightarrow \text{out of range}$$

	D ₇	D ₆	D ₅	D ₄	D ₃	D ₂	D ₁	P ₁	P ₂	P ₄
7	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
6	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
5	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0
4	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
3	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
2	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1

$$P_1 \rightarrow D_3 \ D_5 \ D_7$$

$$P_2 \rightarrow D_3 \ D_6 \ D_7$$

$$P_4 \rightarrow D_5 \ D_6 \ D_7$$

1	001	P ₁
2	010	P ₂
3	011	{P ₁ , P ₂ }
4	100	P ₄
5	101	{P ₁ , P ₄ }
6	110	{P ₂ , P ₄ }
7	111	{P ₁ , P ₂ , P ₄ }

Example

Data : 1011

	P_4	P_3	P_2	P_1
	1	0	1	0

D₁ D₂ D₃ D₄

$$P_1 = D_3 \ D_5 \ D_7 \quad 1 \ 1 \ 1 \quad (1) \quad \text{for even parity}$$

$$P_2 = D_3 \ D_6 \ D_7 \quad 1 \ 0 \ 1 \quad (0)$$

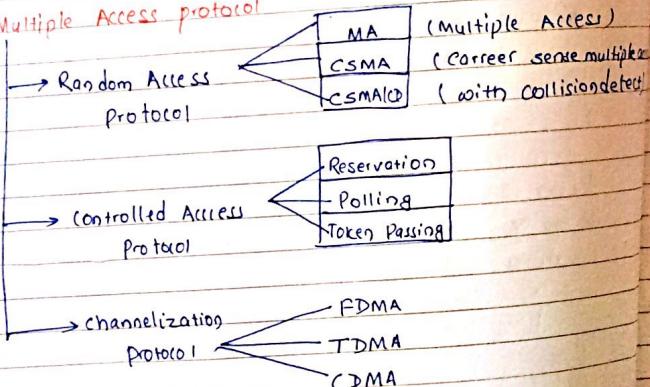
$$P_3 = D_5 \ D_6 \ D_7 \quad 1 \ 0 \ 1 \quad (0)$$

$$\rightarrow \quad 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1$$

Receiver checks the parity

- * Stop and wait ARQ: See notes 4- Q1 p 10-24P
- * piggybacking: see notes QSP
- * Go Back N ARQ:
- * Selective Repeat ARQ

Multiple Access protocol



Wlan:

- If you have a packet, just send it.
- If multiple people try it and so there is collision, try resending it later.

+ Multiple access lines

- two types of link
 - point to point
 - PPP for dial up access
 - Point to point link between ethernet and host.
 - point to points are those in which when a msg is sent from one comp to another, it usually has to be sent via other computers in network.



- Broadcast Network (shared wire or medium)
 - Old-fashioned Ethernet
 - 802.11 Wireless LAN
 - Broadcast also have a single communication channel that is shared by all the machines on the network



- single shared broadcast channel
- two or more simultaneous transmission by nodes: Interference
- Collision: If node receives two or more signals at same time
- Need issues in multiple of
- Who is going to use the channel
- when and for how much, the channel is going to be used

1. Random access

- Single channel shared by large no. of hosts
- No coordination between hosts
- Control is Completely distributed

Example: Aloha, CSMA, CSMA/CD

a. Aloha: allows multiple access (MA) to the shared medium. There are potential collisions in this arrangement. When a station sends data, another station may attempt to do so at the same time. The data from two stations collide and become garbled.

b. CSMA: to minimize collisions and increase the performance, CSMA was developed. The chance of collision is reduced if a station senses the medium before trying to use it. CSMA requires that each station first listens to the medium before sending.

c. CSMA/CD: augments the CSMA algorithm to detect the collision. A station monitors the medium after it sends a frame to see if the transmission was successful. If so, the station is finished. If however, there is a collision, the frame is sent again.

To avoid collisions on wireless n/w, CSMA with collision avoidance (CSMA/CA) was invented. Collisions are avoided through the use three strategy: interframe space, the contention window, and acknowledgement.

2. Controlled Access:

The stations consult one another to find out which has right to send. A station cannot send unless it has been authorized by other station.

a. Reserving (Reservation access method): a station needs to make a reservation before sending data. Time is divided into intervals. In each interval, a reservation frame precedes the data frames sent in that interval.

b. Polling method: all data exchanges must be made through the primary device even when the ultimate destination is a secondary device. The primary device controls the device link; the secondary device follows its instruction.

c. Token passing method: the stations in a n/w are organized in a local ring. Each station has a predecessor and a successor. A special packet called a token circulates through the link.

3. Channelization: is a multiple-access method in which the available bandwidth of a link is shared at a time, frequency or through code, between different stations.

a. FDMA: In frequency-division multiple access, the available bandwidth is divided into frequency bands. Each station is allocated a band to send its data. In other words, each band is reserved for a specific station, and it belongs to the station all the time.

TDMA: (Time-division multiple access) : The stations share the bandwidth of time. Each station is allocated a time slot during which it can send data. Each station transmits its data in its assigned time slot.

CDMA: (Code-division multiple access), the stations use different codes to achieve multiple access. CDMA is based on coding theory and uses sequences of numbers called chips. These sequences are generated using orthogonal codes such as the Walsh tables.

Data Link protocols

① High Level Data Link Control (HDLC)

- HDLC is a transmission protocol used at the data link layer of OSI model for data communications.
- The HDLC protocol embeds information in a data frame that allows devices to control data flow and correct error.
- HDLC is a bit-oriented protocol, supports half and full duplex communication over point-to-point and multipoint links.
- HDLC can provide both connection-oriented and connectionless services.
- Data in HDLC is organized into units called frames.
- Each piece of data is encapsulated in an HDLC frame by adding a trailer and header. The header contains HDLC address, tag and an HDLC control field. The trailer contains CRC.

Modes of transmission

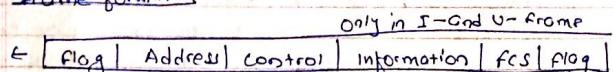
- NRM (Normal response mode)
- ABM (Asynchronous balanced mode)
- ARM (Asynchronous Response mode)

NRM: A secondary station running in an unslotted environment may communicate when signalled to do so by a primary.

ABM: When in a slotted env., either combined station may initiate comm. (LA/BB mode on combined stations)

ARM: When in a unslotted env., secondary may transmit at will, however primary is still responsible for error detection, flow and error control.

Frame format:



Frame types

② I-frames: (User data): Information frames, transport user data from link layer. They also include flow and error control information piggybacked on data.

③ S-frames (Control)

Supervisory frames are used for flow and error control whenever piggybacking is impossible, such as when a station does not have data to send. S-frames do not have information fields.

④ U-frames (Un-numbered frames)

Supplementary link control - used in link setup and do not contain ACK.

HDLC frames: See notes (49)

PPP (point to point protocol)

- byte oriented protocol operates at layer 2 & layer 3.
- it uses HDLC frame format at layer 2
- and uses IPv4 and IPv6 format at layer 3
- it has CEC-16 field in the
- PPP defines the format of frame to be exchanged between the devices
- This protocol offers the services that were not present in SLIP.
- It defines how two layers are encapsulated in data link frame.
- It provides error detection
- Unlike SLIP, that supports IP, PPP supports multiple protocols
- PPP allows IP address to be assigned at the connection time i.e. dynamically. Thus a temporary IP address can be assigned to each host.
- PPP provides multiple new layer services supporting a variety of new layer protocols. For this PPP uses a protocol called NCP (Network Control Protocol)
- It also defines how two different devices can authenticate each other.

Frame Format:

The frame format of PPP resembles HDLC formats. Or:

Flag	Address	Control	Protocol	Data	FCS	Flag
1 byte	1 byte	1 byte	1 or 2 bytes	variable	2 bytes	1 byte

Flag field: Flag field marks the beginning and end of PPP frame. Flag byte is 1 byte. (0111110)

Address field: is 1 byte and always 1111111. This address is a broadcast address i.e. all the stations accept this frame.

Control field: is 1 byte. This field uses the format of the U-frame (unnumbered) in HDLC. The value is always 00000001 to show that the frame does not contain any sequence of numbers and there is no flow control or error control.

Protocol field: This field specifies the kind of packet in the data field i.e. what is being carried in data field.

Data field: Its length is variable. If the length is not negotiated using LCP during line set up, a default length of 1500 bytes is used. It carries user data.

FCS field: (Frame Check Sequence). It is either 2 bytes or 4 bytes. It contains the checksum.

- PPP is a protocol most widely used by Internet Service providers (ISPs) to enable dial up connections to the Internet.

- PPP facilitates the transmission of data packets between point to point.

- PPP can be encapsulated in a no. of data link layer protocols, including ethernet (PPPoE) and ATM (PPPOA).

* SLIP: Serial Line Internet protocol

- older protocol used by PCs to connect to internet via modem.

- SLIP is a TCP/IP protocol used for communication between two machines that are previously configured for communication with each other.

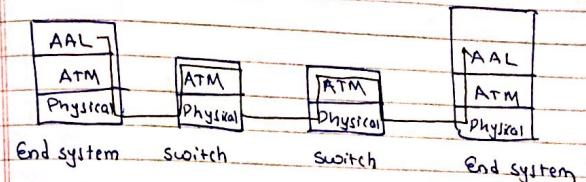
- PPP replaced SLIP protocol of choice for P2P connectivity.

- SLIP is still used today and is supported by 18M operating system
- SLIP has no support for System authentication, while PPP has 2-way authentication
- SLIP has no support for error detection or error correction but is implemented in PPP
- SLIP has no standard way to define IP addressing between two hosts.
- Relies on RLE for error checking and correction.

* ATM: Asynchronous Transfer Mode:

- 1990s standard for High speed for broadband Integrated Service digital Network architecture.
- Goal: Integrated voice, video and data transport
- It's a high speed networking standard designed to support voice, video and data communications and to improve utilization and quality of service (QoS) on high traffic networks.
- ATM is normally utilized by ISPs on their private long-distance networks. ATM operates in datalink layer over either fiber or twisted pair cable.
- Although it's fading in favour of the NGN (next gen network) this protocol is critical to SONET/SDH backbone, the PSTN (public switched telephone network) and ISDN (Integrated Services digital network).
- is a dedicated connection switching technology that organizes digital data into 53 byte cell units and transmits them over a physical medium using digital signal technology.
- ATM is switching technique used by telecommunication networks that uses asynchronous time-division multiplexing to encode

ATM: Architecture ??



AAL (ATM adaptation Layer)

- Used only at edge of ATM network.
- Data Segmentation and Reassembly
- Analogous to Internet transport Layer

ATM Layer

- Analogous to Internet network layer
- Cell switching and routing.

Physical Layer

- Analogous to Internet physical layer

* Frame Relay

- Speed 1.54 mbps at physical & datalink layer
- can be used as backbone network.

Net layer

S

- * IP address: Representation in dotted decimal notation
- is a numerical label assigned to each device connected to a computer n/w that uses the Internet protocol for communication.

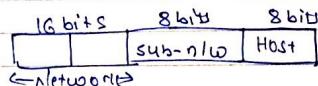
10000000.00001011.00000011.0001111
128.11.3.31

IPv4 supports 3 different types of addressing modes:

- unicast: - data is sent only to one destined host
- 32 bit IP address of destination
- broadcast: packet is addressed to all hosts in a n/w segment.
The destⁿ address field contains a special broadcast address.
- mcast: mix mode, neither single host nor the all host on segment.

Hierarchical addressing scheme

IPv4 uses hierarchical addressing scheme. An IP address which is 32 bit in length is divided into two or 3 parts as



A single ip address can contain information about n/w, its sub network and host.

Subnet mask

Routers use subnet mask, which is as long as the size of n/w addresses in IP address. Subnet mask is also 32 bit long.
If IP address is ANDed with its subnet mask, the result yields the N/W address.

IPv4 : Address classes

- 5 classes are identified by first Octet of IP address.

$$\text{no. of n/w} = 2^{\text{first bit}}$$

$$\text{no. of usable host} = 2^{\text{host bits}} - 2$$

- first IP address is network number
last IP address : Broadcast IP

Class-A:

- first 8 bits in first octet set to 00, ie first octet ranges from 1-127 i.e. 00000001-0111111

$$\text{default subnet mask} : 255.0.0.0$$

$$\text{networks} = 2^7 - 2 = 126$$

$$\text{hosts} = 2^{24-7} - 2 = 16777214$$

Class-B:

- first 16 bits in first octet set to 10 i.e. 10000000-10111111 (128-191)

$$\text{network address} = 2^{14} = 16384$$

$$\text{host addresses} = 2^{16-14} - 2 = 65534$$

Class-C:

- first 24 bits in first octet set to 110 that is 192-223 (11000000-11011111)

$$\text{class C gives} = 2^{24-24} \text{ n/w addresses}$$

$$\text{no host address} = 2^{8-2} \text{ (host address)}$$

Class-D:

- first 4 bits of first octet set to 1110 (224-231)
1110 0000 - 1110 1111

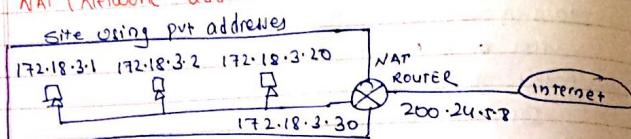
- reserved for multicasting.

- does not have any subnet mask

Class-E: 240.0.0.0 - 255.255.255.254,
no subnet mask.

Class	First byte	Default subnet mask	Subnet mask	Total hosts in Subnet n		Range
				2^y	2^x	
A	0	18	255.0.0.0	2^{24}	2^0	10.0.0.0 - 10.255.255.255
B	10	116	255.255.0.0	2^{20}	2^4	172.16.0.0 - 172.31.255.255
C	110	124	255.255.255.0	2^{16}	2^0	192.168.0.0 - 192.168.255.255
D	1110	-	-	-	-	-
E	1111	-	-	-	-	-

* NAT (Network address translation)



* MTU: Maximum Transmission Unit

IP datagram

Header	MTU	Trailer
Maxm length of data to be encapsulate in a frame		

IPv4:

- 32 bit long
- Part of an IP address identifies which local netw. host on that local netw.
- IPv4 provides no error control or flow control

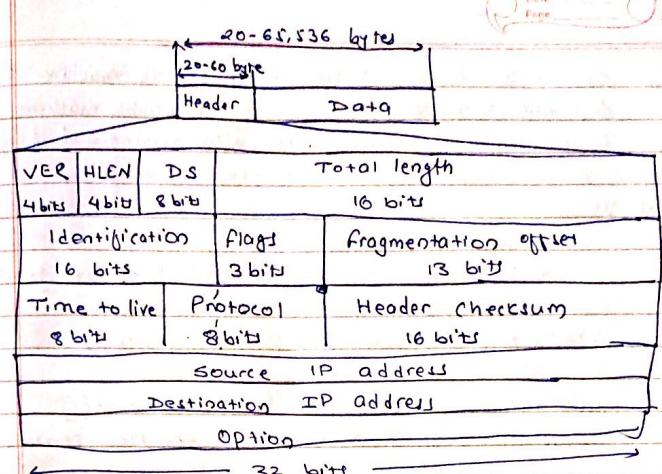


Fig: IPv4 Frame format (Datagram format)

VER : Defines the version of IP

HLEN : Header length

DS : Differentiated service- Defines the class of packet for QoS.

Total length: length of data \Rightarrow Total length - header length

Identification:

- when datagram is fragmented \Rightarrow Identification copied to all fragments
- All fragments have same identification.
- Helps in re-assembling the datagram.

Flags:

3 bit \rightarrow reserved, MF and DF

DF \rightarrow don't fragment MF \Rightarrow More fragments

Fragmentation offset: offset value of fragment

TTL: If TTL=0, packet is discarded

Checksum: Compute checksum

source IP address: IP address of source machine
 destination IP address: IP address of destination machine
 option: optional field used for N/W testing and debugging

* IPv6:

- Internet protocol version 6
 - It is known as Internetworking Protocol next gen (IPng)
 - It is suitable for fast growing internet
 - It is also suitable for NGN (next gen n/w)
- Features
- larger address space (128 bit address space)
 - supports resource allocation via flow control fields
 - supports more security.
 - Better header format [Base and Extension header]

128 bit addressing scheme

Unabbreviated

FDEC: BAG8: 0074: 3210: 000F: BBFF: 0000: FFFF

Abbreviated

FDEC: BAG8: 74: 3210: F: BBFF: 0: FFFF

more abbreviate

FDEC: 0: 0: 0: BBFF: 0: FFFF → FDEC :: 0E9: 0: FFFF

Header Format : (Base + Extension)

VER	PRI	Flow Label
Payload length	Next header	Hop Limit
Source Address		
Destination Address		
Payload		
extension headers		
+ Data packets from upper Layer		

VER: 4 bits, version of IPv6

pri: 4 bit, priority of packet

flow label: 24 bits, used for resource reservation

payload length: 16 bits; total length of IP datagram excluding base header

next header: 8 bits, provides info about extension header.

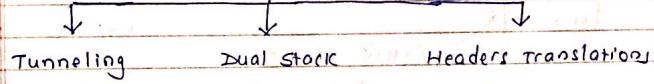
Hop Limit: Same as TTL in IPv4 (255)

source address: 128 bit source IPv6 address.

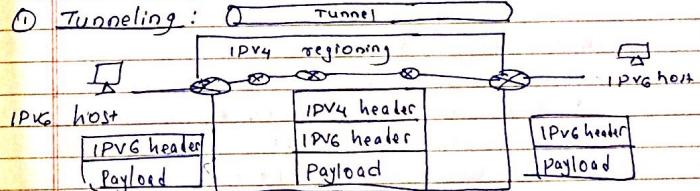
destⁿ address: 128 bit destⁿ @ IPv6 address.

* IPv6 Transition Strategies

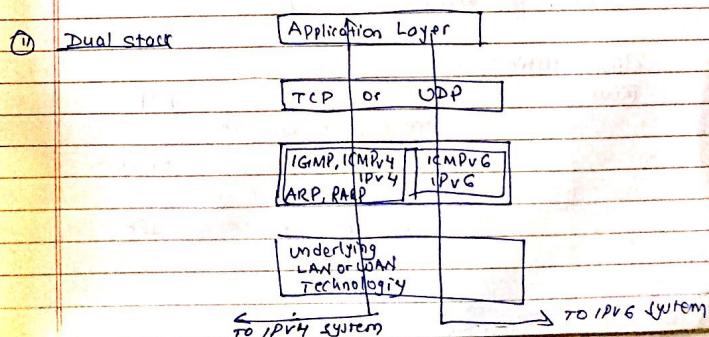
Transition strategies

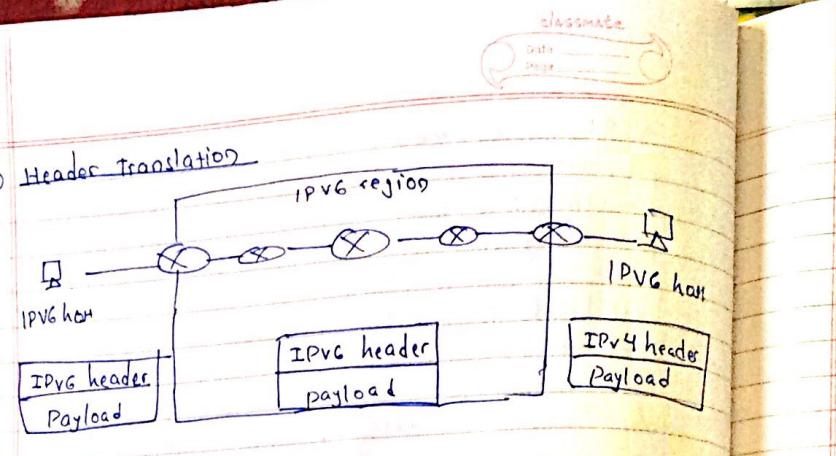


① Tunneling :

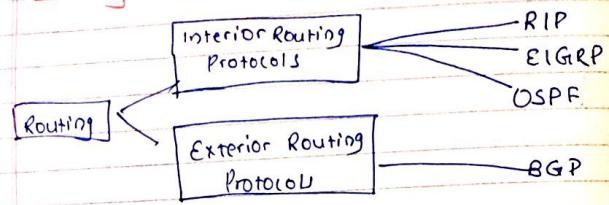


② Dual stack





Routing Protocols



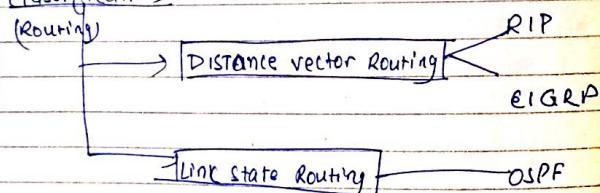
a. Interior gateway routing protocols

- used for routing inside an Autonomous System (AS)
- AS \Rightarrow Network under Common Administration
- Examples : RIP, EIGRP, OSPF

b. Exterior Gateway routing protocol

- used for routing betⁿ AS

Classification



a. Distance :

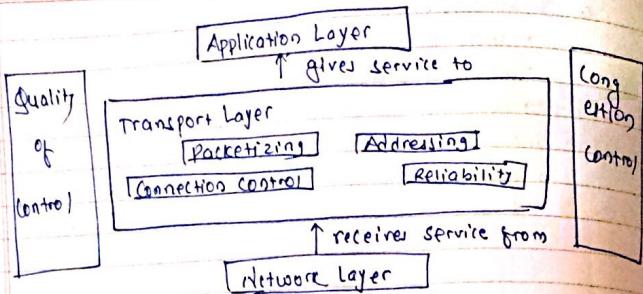
- ✓ Incomplete view of topology
- ✓ Routes are advertised as vectors of distance & direction
- ✓ Generally periodic updates

b. Link State :

- ✓ Complete view of network topology
- ✓ Updates are not periodic (triggered or bounded updates)

6

Transport Layer



node to node: data link layer

host to host: NLL layer

process to process: Transport layer

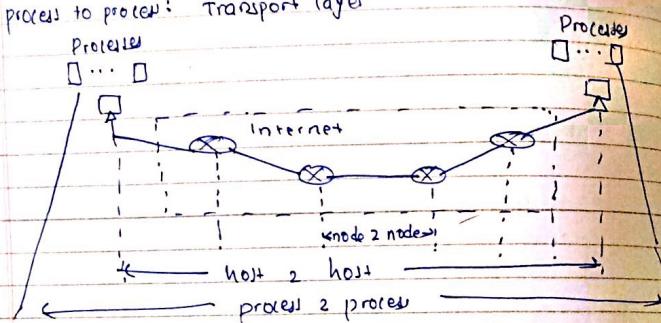


Fig: types of data deliveries

Port Numbers

A port number is a way to identify a specific process to which an internet or other NLL message is to be forwarded when it arrives at a server.

For TCP or UDP, it is 16 bit integer that is put in header append to a msg unit. The port number is passed logically between client and server transport layers and physically between transport layer and Internet protocols layer.

- Some services or processes have assigned permanent port addresses known as well-known port numbers. Others called ephemeral port number
 HTTP = 80, Telnet = 23

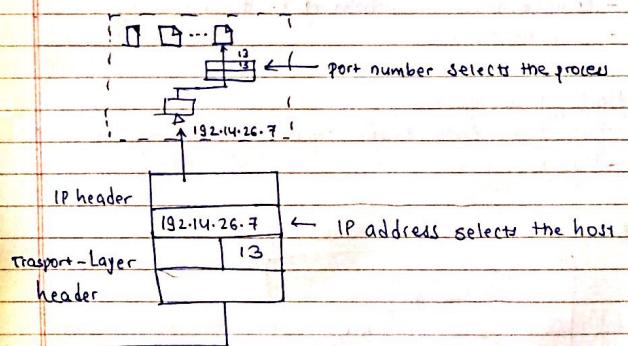
Functions of Transport Layer:

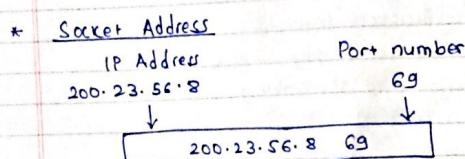
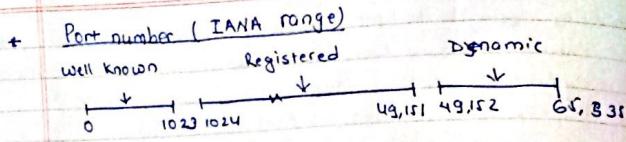
- Service point addressing
- Segmentation and reassembling
- Connection control
- Flow Control
- Error Control

- The aim is to be delivered the entire msg from src to dest?

- Transport layer ensures whole msg arrives intact, in order ensuring both error control and flow control
- It decides if data transmission should be on parallel paths or single path.

Port vs IP





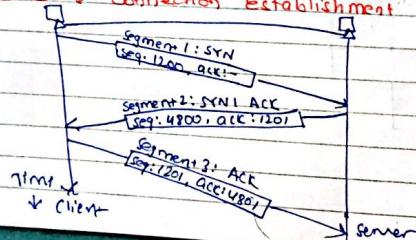
* Multiplexing and Demultiplexing

- Gathering data from multiple application processes of Sender, enveloping that data with header and sending them as a whole to the intended receiver is called multiplexing.
- Delivering received segments at receiver side to the correct app layer processes is called as demultiplexing
- Connectionless multiplexing & demultiplexing
- Connection Oriented

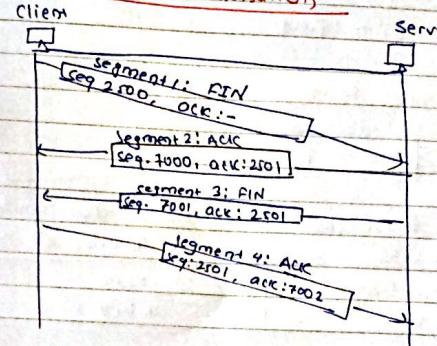
How it is done:

- To send data, sender must know IP address of receiver
- [Answers for geek]

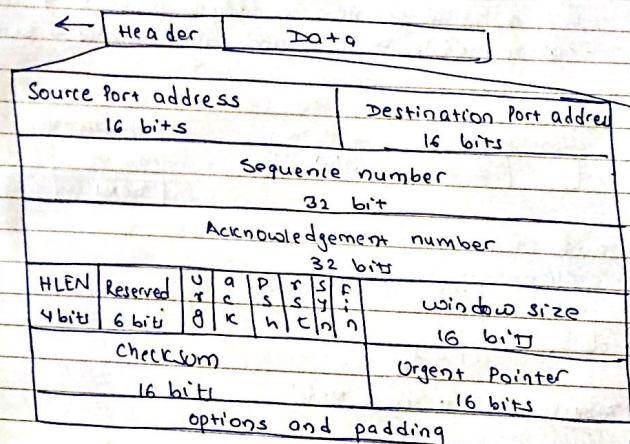
* 3 Step Connection Establishment



Four Step Connection Termination

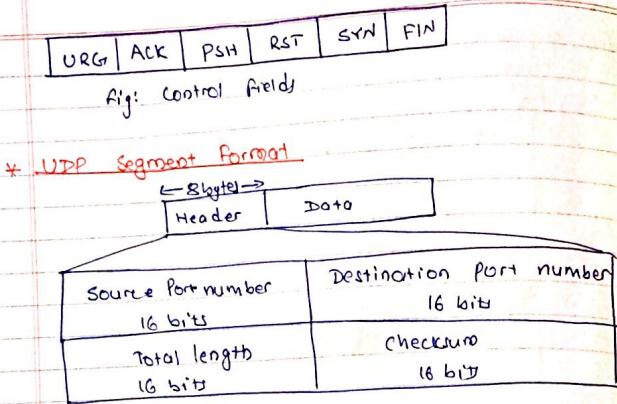


* Transport Layer: TCP Segment Format:

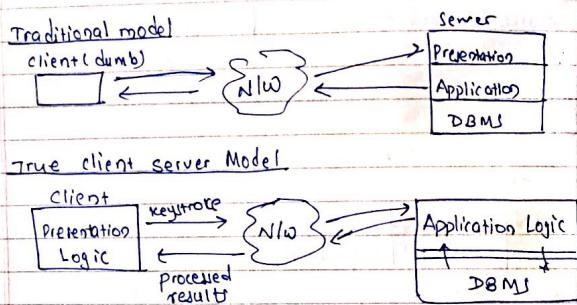


URG: Urgent pointer is valid
ACK: Acknowledgement is valid
PSH: Request for Push
SYN: Synchronize sequence number

FIN: Terminate the connection

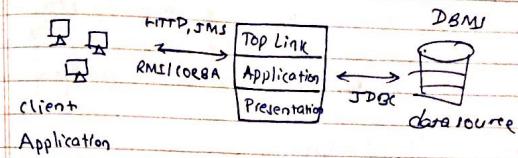


- * Client Server Computing
 - It is a logical extension of modular programming
 - calling modules → Client and Called modules → Server



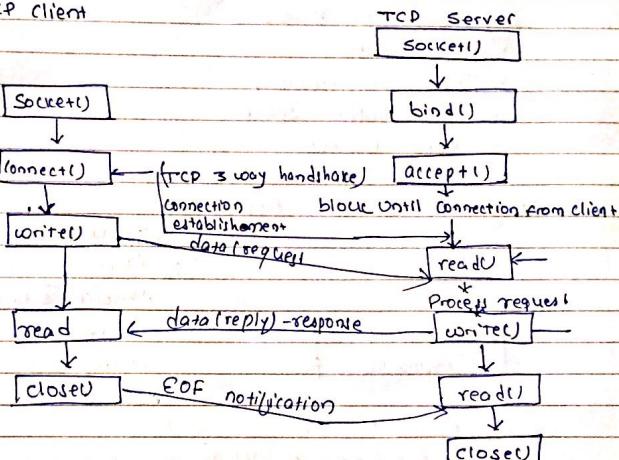
* Distributed Applications:

- Three-Tier Architecture



* Flow Diagram of TCP server and client:

TCP Client



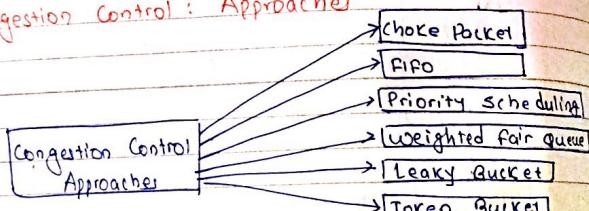
Network Congestion

- The situation in which an increase in data transmissions results in reduction of throughput.
- Congestion occurs when no. of packets being transmitted through the network approaches the packet handling capacity of the network.
- Congestion control types
 - open Loop (prevent congestion occurring by good design)
 - closed Loop (detect \Rightarrow Feedback \Rightarrow Correct)

* why Congestion occurs?

- ✓ heavy traffic
- ✓ insufficient memory
- ✓ low buffer space
- ✓ low processor

* Congestion Control : Approaches



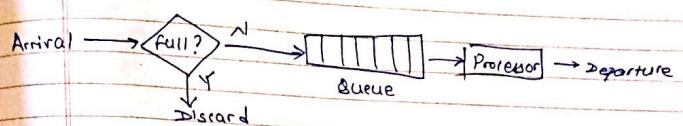
Choke packet:

- A more direct way of telling the source to slow down.
- Choke packet is a control packet generated at Congested node.
- It is then transmitted to Source.
- The source upon receiving the choke packet must reduce its transmission rate.
- Hop by Hop choke packet is more efficient than Choke packet.
- It enables each Hop to reduce its transmission

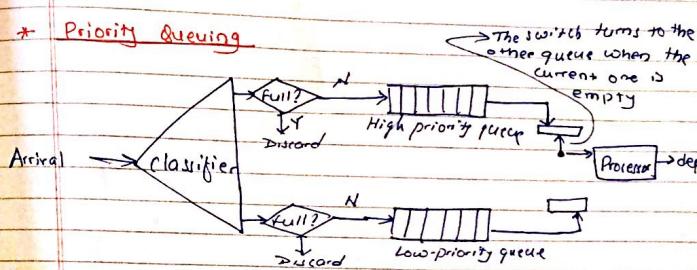
classmate
Date _____
Page _____

done even before choke packet received at source

* FIFO queue



* Priority Queuing



* Weighted fair queuing

see note