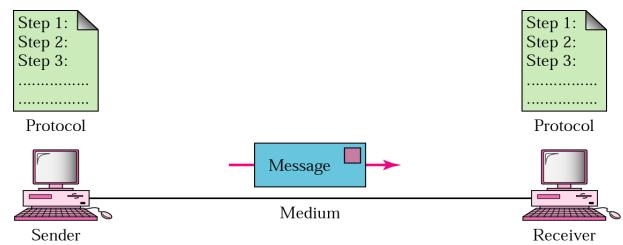


**Figure 1.1 Five components of data communication**



## CENEVAL: Redes

Material Recopilado por:  
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## Códigos

- Binario
- De Longitud Fija
- De Longitud Variable.

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## ASCII, de longitud Fija

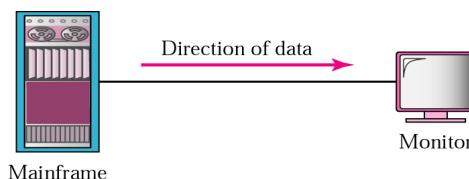
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	NUL	DLE	spc	0	@	P	`	p
1	SOH	DC1	!	1	A	Q	a	q
2	STX	DC2	"	2	B	R	b	r
3	ETX	DC3	#	3	C	S	c	s
4	EOT	DC4	\$	4	D	T	d	t
5	ENQ	NAK	%	5	E	U	e	u
6	ACK	SYN	&	6	F	V	f	v
7	BEL	ETB	'	7	G	W	g	w
8	BS	CAN	(	8	H	X	h	x
9	HT	EM	)	9	I	Y	i	y
A	LF	SUB	*	:	J	Z	j	z
B	VT	ESC	+	;	K	[	k	{
C	FF	FS	,	<	L	\	l	
D	CR	GS	-	=	M	]	m	)
E	SO	RS	.	>	N	^	n	~
F	SI	US	/	?	O	_	o	_

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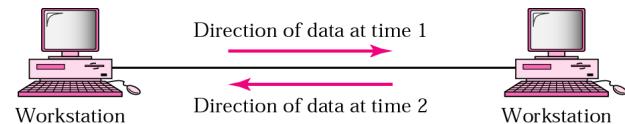
**Figure 1.2 Simplex**



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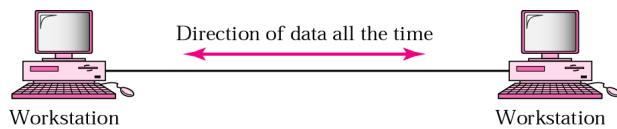
**Figure 1.3 Half-duplex**



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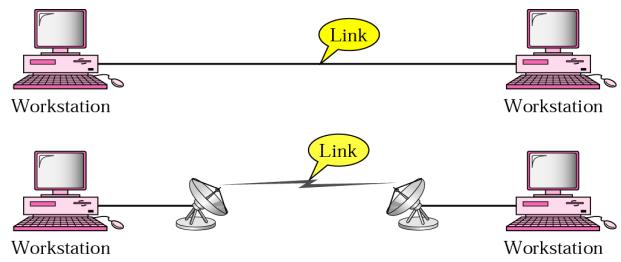
**Figure 1.4 Full-duplex**



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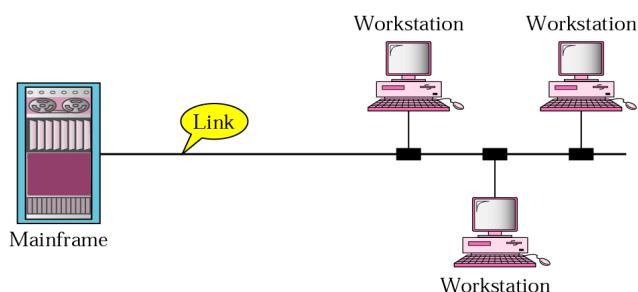
**Figure 1.5 Point-to-point connection**



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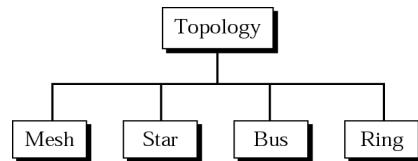
**Figure 1.6 Multipoint connection**



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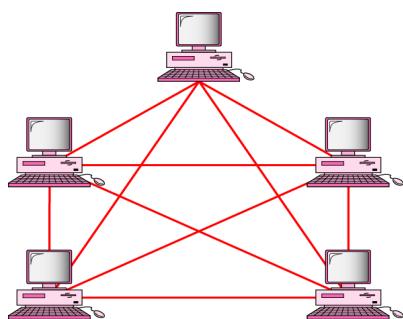
**Figure 1.7 Categories of topology**



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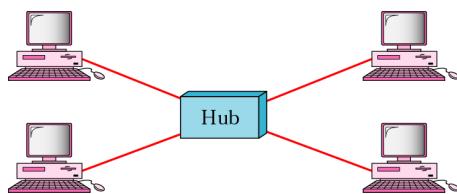
**Figure 1.8 Fully connected mesh topology (for five devices)**



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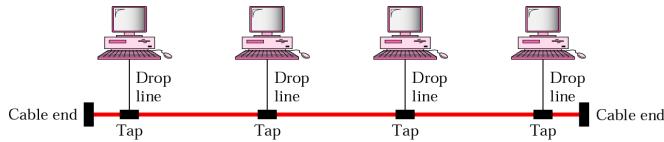
**Figure 1.9 Star topology**



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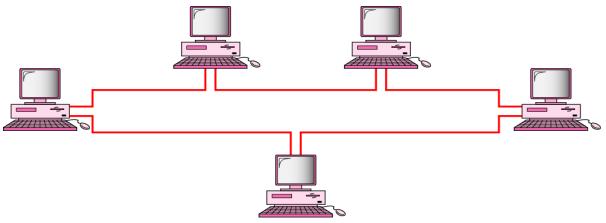
**Figure 1.10 Bus topology**



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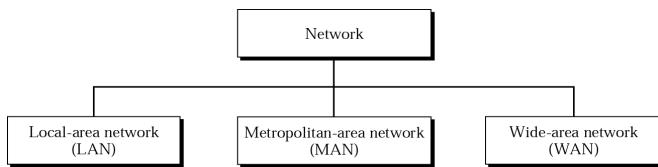
**Figure 1.11 Ring topology**



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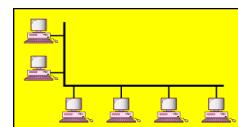
**Figure 1.12 Categories of networks**



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**Figure 1.13 LAN**

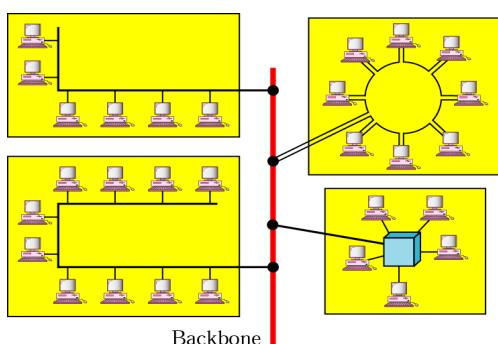


a. Single-building LAN

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**Figure 1.13 LAN (Continued)**

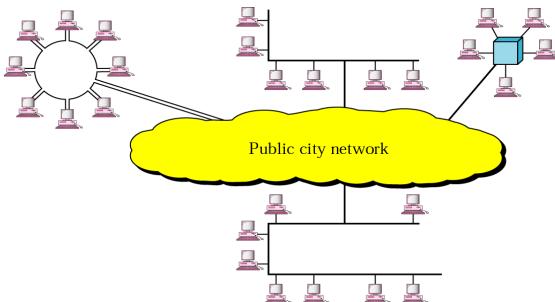


b. Multiple-building LAN

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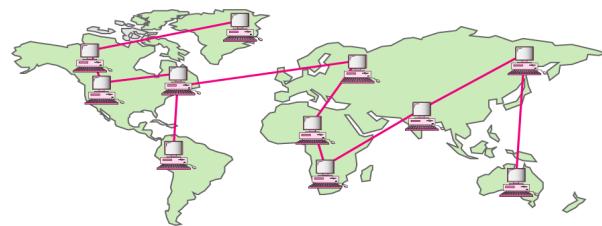
**Figure 1.14 MAN**



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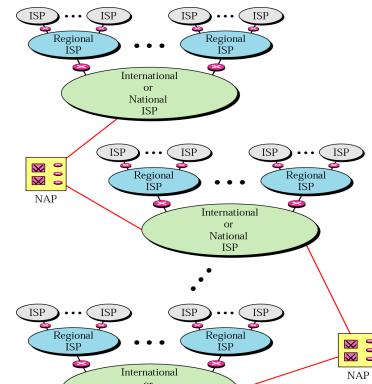
**Figure 1.15 WAN**



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**Figure 1.16 Internet today**



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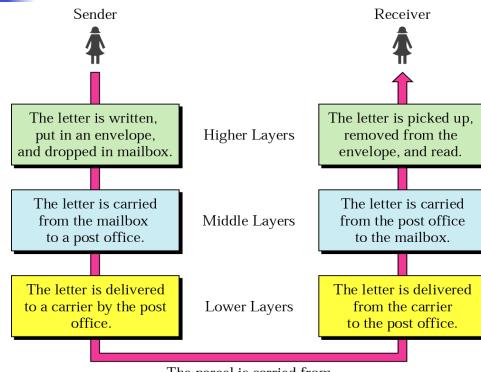
## Chapter 2

# Network Models

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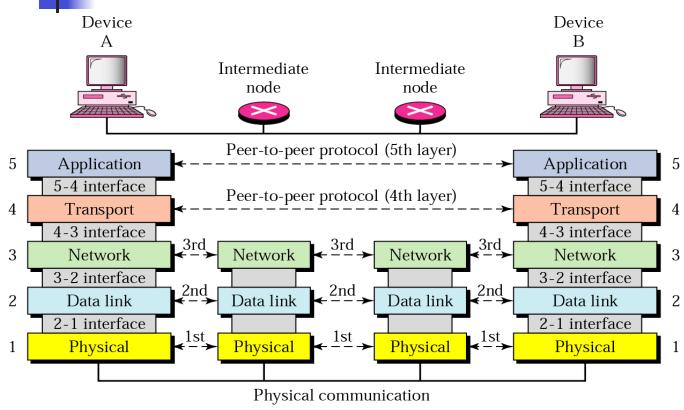
**Figure 2.1 Sending a letter**



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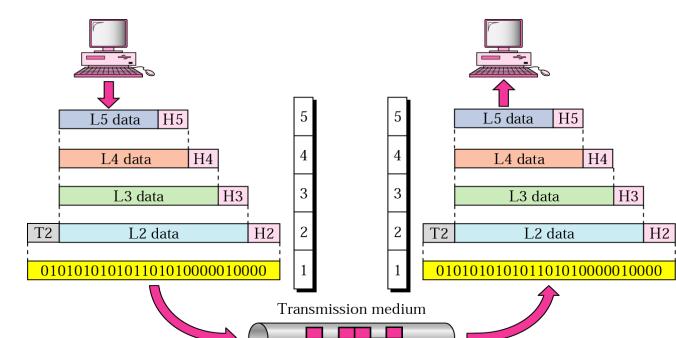
**Figure 2.3 Peer-to-peer processes**



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**Figure 2.4 An exchange using the Internet model**



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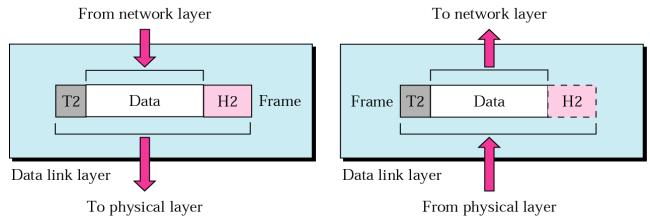
Note:

**The physical layer is responsible for transmitting individual bits from one node to the next.**

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Figure 2.6 Data link layer



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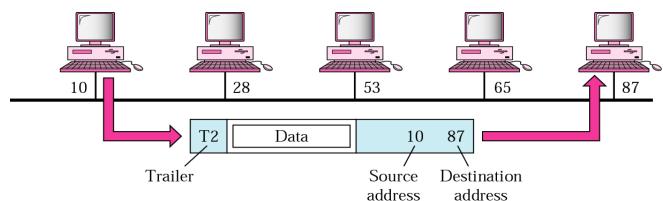
Note:

**The data link layer is responsible for transmitting frames from one node to the next.**

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Figure 2.8 Example 1

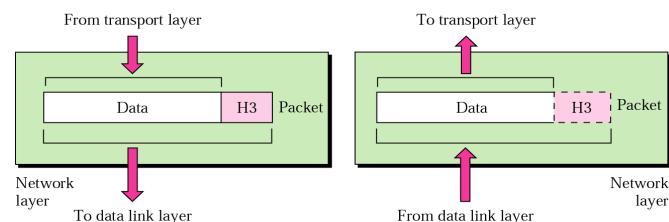


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Figure 2.9 Network layer



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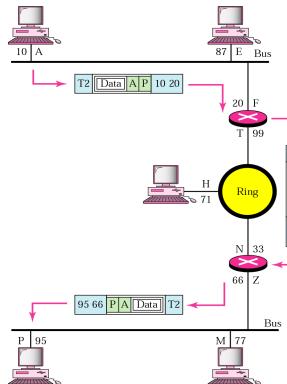
Note:

**The network layer is responsible for the delivery of packets from the original source to the final destination.**

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**Figure 2.11 Example 2**



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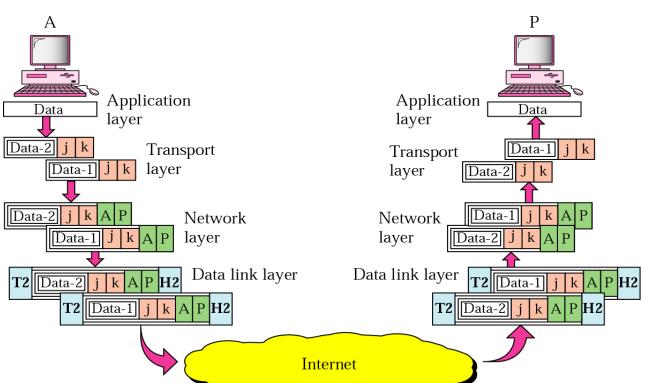
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Note:

**The transport layer is responsible for delivery of a message from one process to another.**

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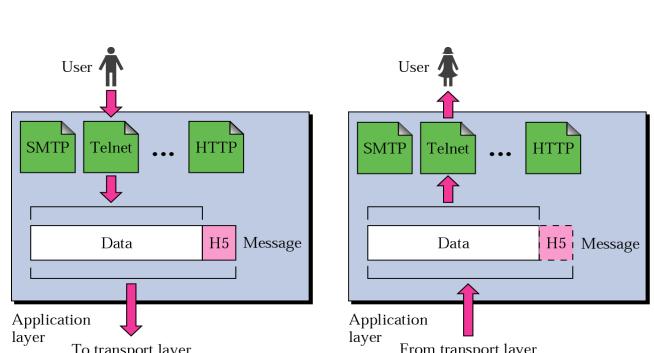
**Figure 2.14 Example 3**



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**Figure 2.15 Application layer**



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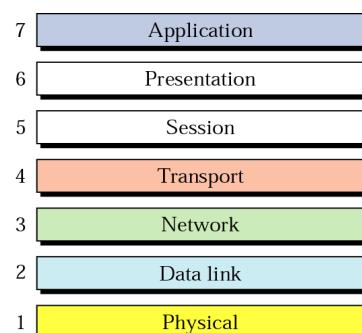
Note:

**The application layer is responsible for providing services to the user.**

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**Figure 2.17 OSI model**



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# Signals

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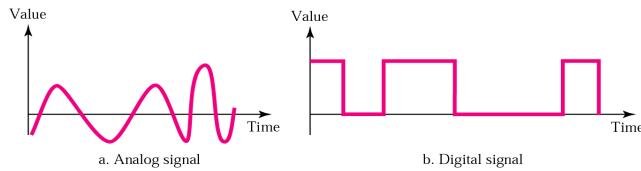


**To be transmitted, data must be transformed to electromagnetic signals.**

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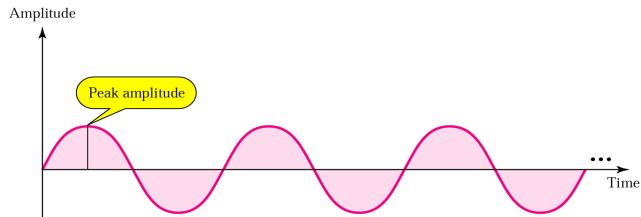
**Figure 3.1 Comparison of analog and digital signals**



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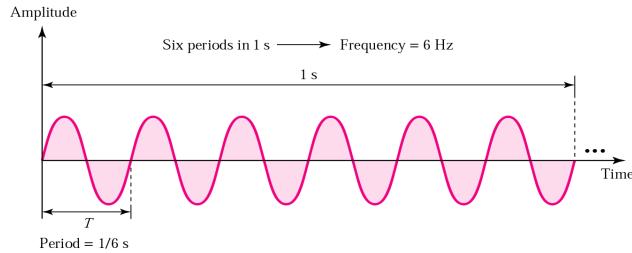
**Figure 3.3 Amplitude**



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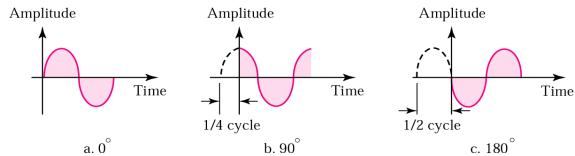
**Figure 3.4 Period and frequency**



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**Figure 3.5 Relationships between different phases**



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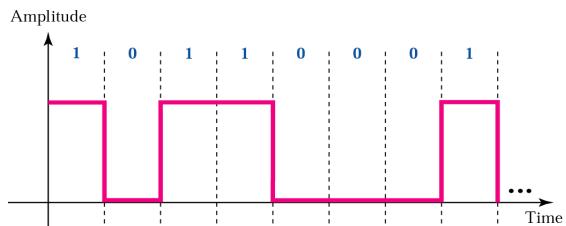
**Figure 3.12** Signal corruption



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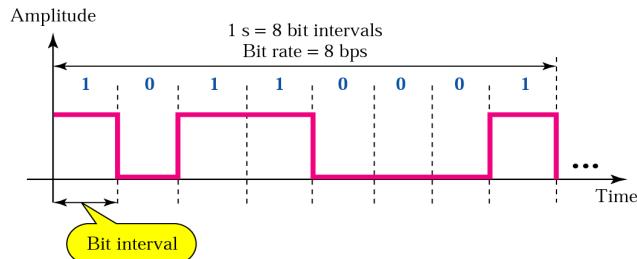
**Figure 3.16** A digital signal



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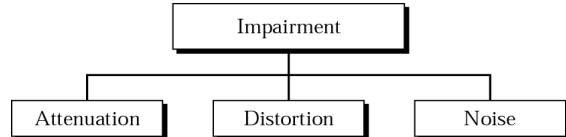
**Figure 3.17** Bit rate and bit interval



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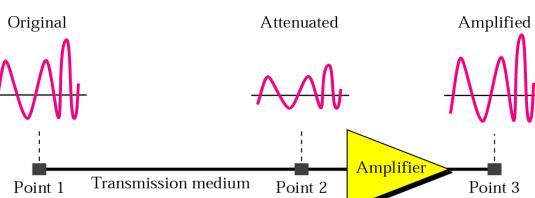
**Figure 3.20** Impairment types



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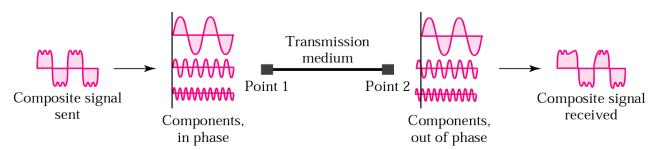
**Figure 3.21** Attenuation



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**Figure 3.23** Distortion

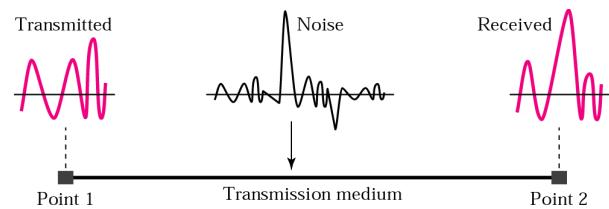


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## Chapter 4

# Digital Transmission



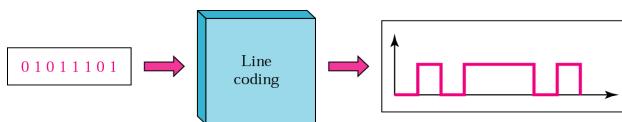
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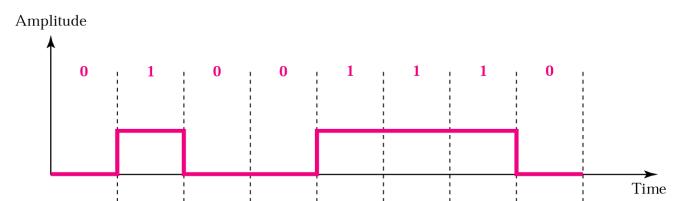
Figure 4.1 Line coding



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Figure 4.6 Unipolar encoding



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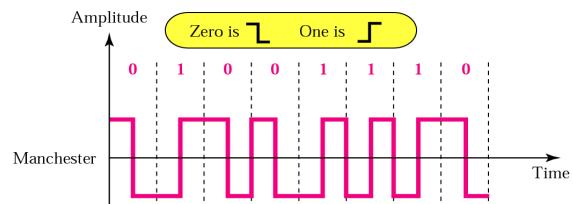
Note:

**A good encoded digital signal must contain a provision for synchronization.**

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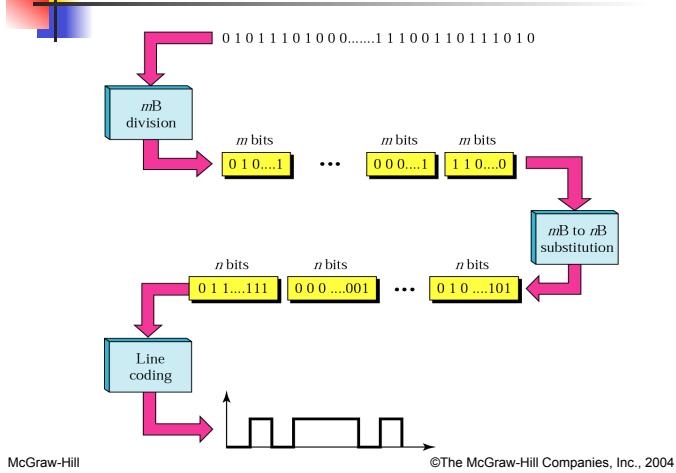
Figure 4.10 Manchester encoding



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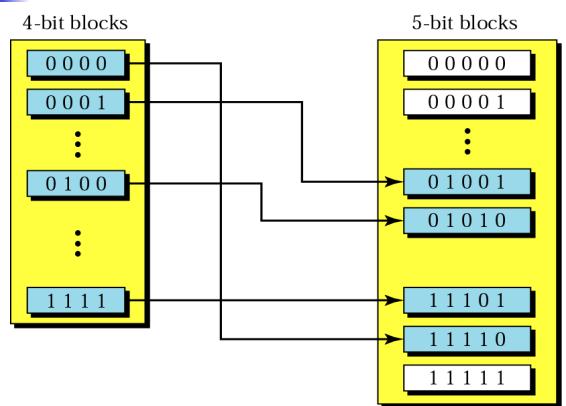
**Figure 4.15 Block coding**



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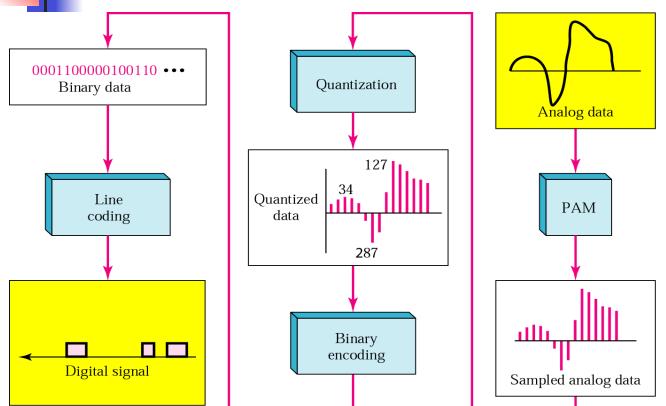
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**Figure 4.16 Substitution in block coding**



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**Figure 4.22 From analog signal to PCM digital code**



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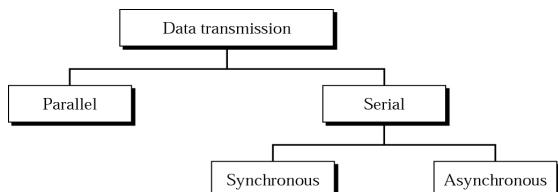
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Note:

**According to the Nyquist theorem, the sampling rate must be at least 2 times the highest frequency.**

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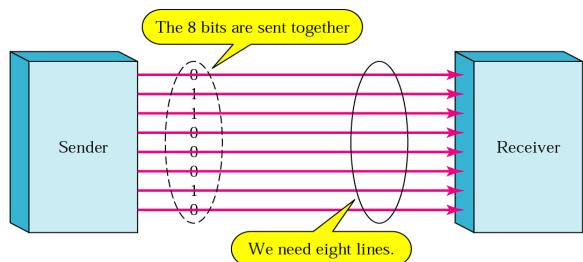
**Figure 4.24 Data transmission**



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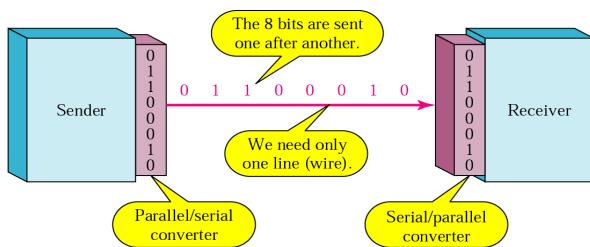
**Figure 4.25 Parallel transmission**



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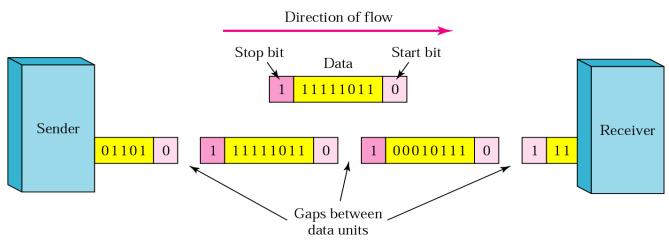
**Figure 4.26** Serial transmission



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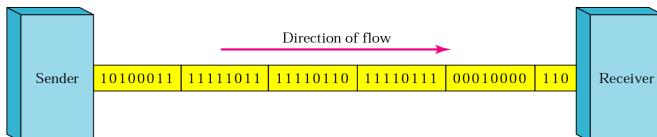
**Figure 4.27** Asynchronous transmission



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**Figure 4.28** Synchronous transmission



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## Chapter 5

# Analog Transmission

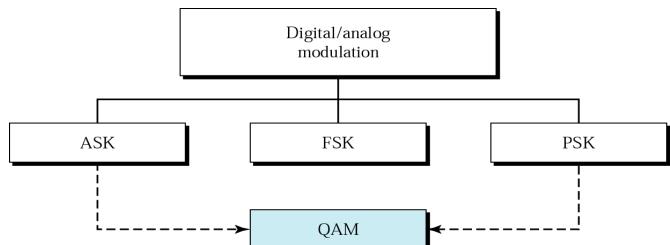
**Figure 5.1** Digital-to-analog modulation



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**Figure 5.2** Types of digital-to-analog modulation



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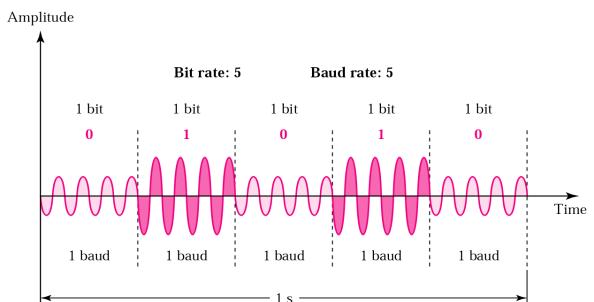
Note:

**Bit rate is the number of bits per second. Baud rate is the number of signal units per second. Baud rate is less than or equal to the bit rate.**

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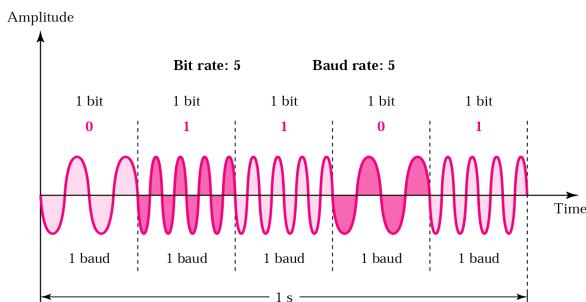
Figure 5.3 ASK



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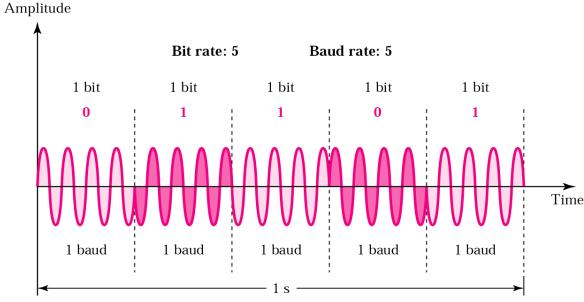
Figure 5.6 FSK



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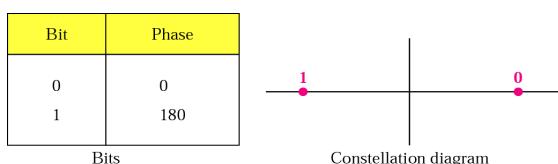
Figure 5.8 PSK



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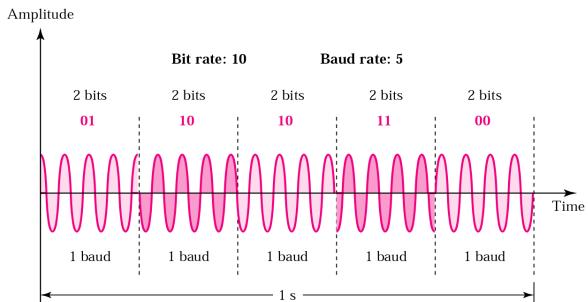
Figure 5.9 PSK constellation



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Figure 5.10 The 4-PSK method



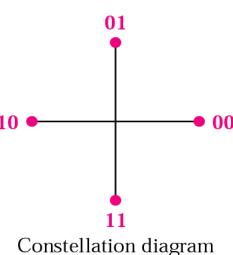
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**Figure 5.11** The 4-PSK characteristics

Dabit	Phase
00	0
01	90
10	180
11	270

Dabit  
(2 bits)



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Note:

**Modem stands for modulator/demodulator.**

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## 5.3 Modulation of Analog Signals

**Amplitude Modulation (AM)**

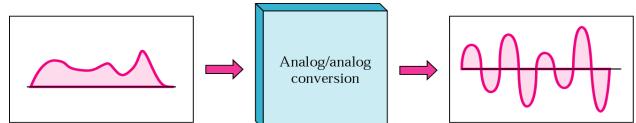
**Frequency Modulation (FM)**

**Phase Modulation (PM)**

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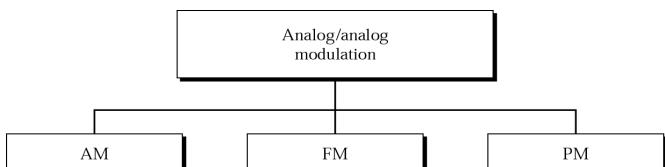
**Figure 5.24** Analog-to-analog modulation



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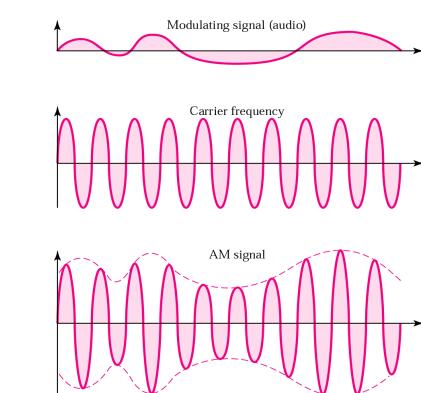
**Figure 5.25** Types of analog-to-analog modulation



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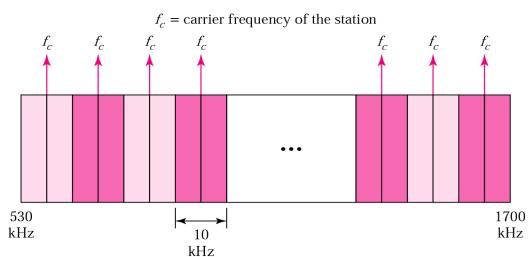
**Figure 5.26** Amplitude modulation



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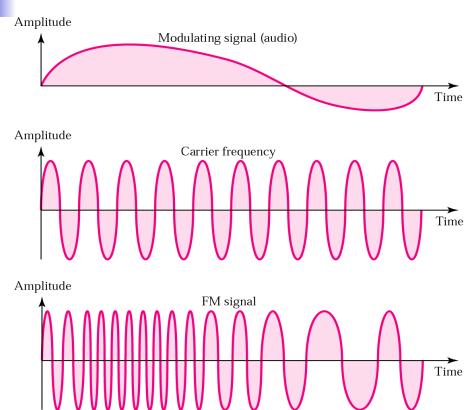
**Figure 5.28 AM band allocation**



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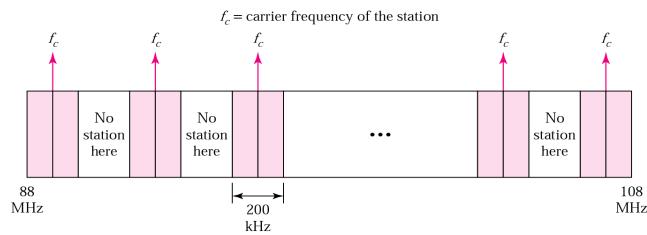
**Figure 5.29 Frequency modulation**



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**Figure 5.31 FM band allocation**



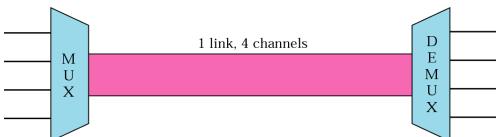
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## Chapter 6

# Multiplexing

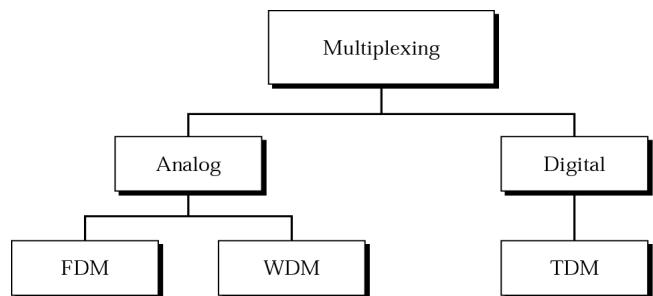
**Figure 6.1 Dividing a link into channels**



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**Figure 6.2 Categories of multiplexing**



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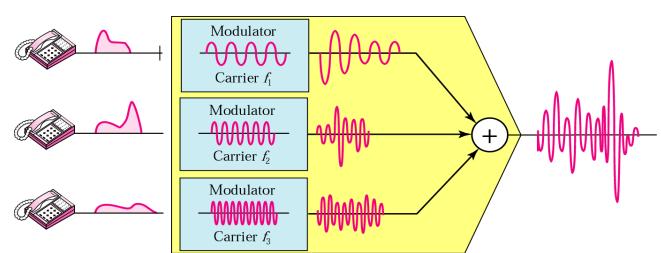
**Figure 6.3 FDM**



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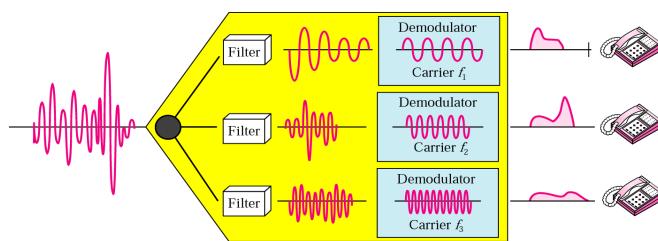
**Figure 6.4 FDM process**



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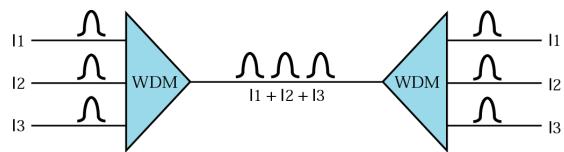
**Figure 6.5 FDM demultiplexing example**



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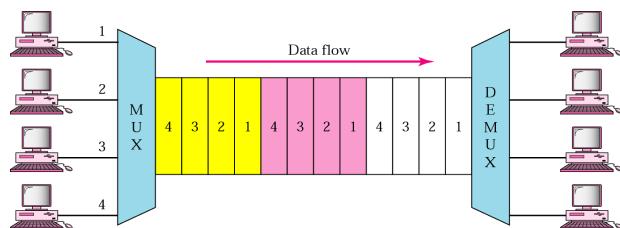
**Figure 6.10 WDM**



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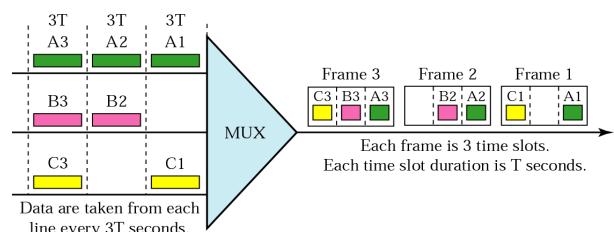
**Figure 6.12 TDM**



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**Figure 6.13 TDM frames**



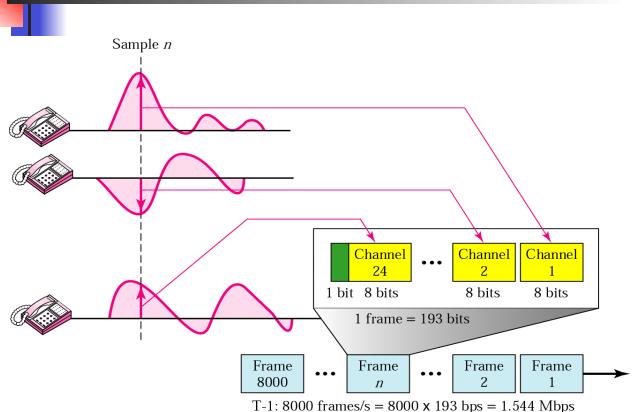
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## Chapter 7

# Transmission Media

**Figure 6.20 T-1 frame structure**



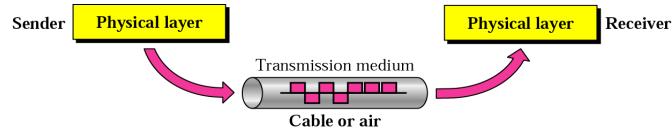
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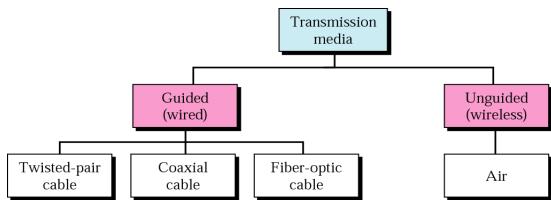
**Figure 7.1 Transmission medium and physical layer**



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**Figure 7.2 Classes of transmission media**



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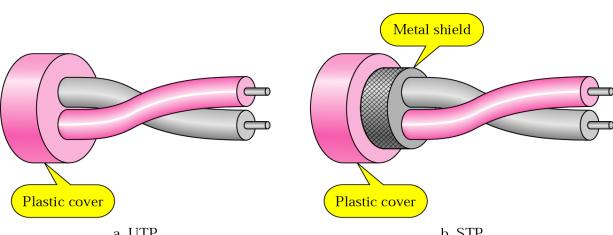
**Figure 7.3 Twisted-pair cable**



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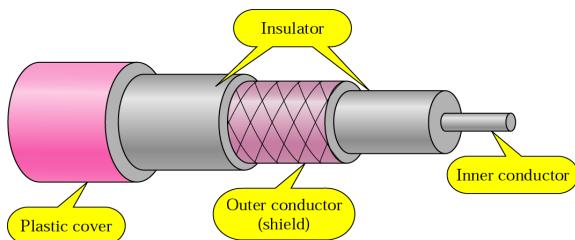
**Figure 7.4 UTP and STP**



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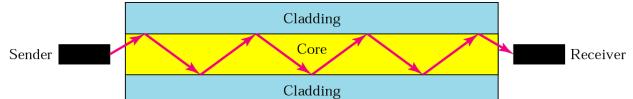
**Figure 7.7 Coaxial cable**



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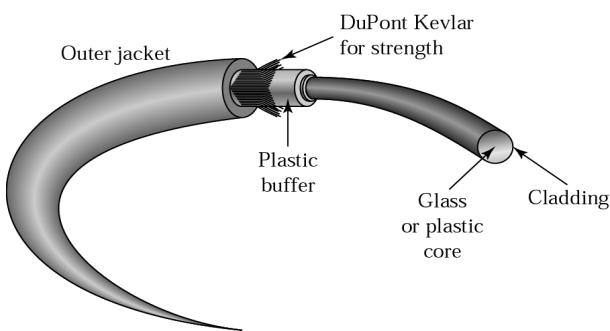
**Figure 7.11 Optical fiber**



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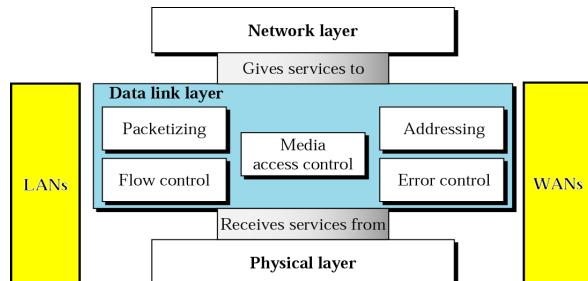
**Figure 7.14 Fiber construction**



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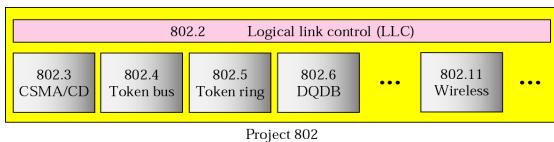
### Position of the data-link layer



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**IEEE standards for LANs**



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## Chapter 10

# Error Detection and Correction

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### Note:

*Data can be corrupted during transmission. For reliable communication, errors must be detected and corrected.*

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## 10.1 Types of Error

# Single-Bit Error

## Burst Error

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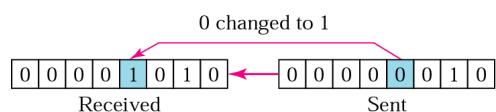
### Note:

***In a single-bit error, only one bit in the data unit has changed.***

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## 10.1 Single-bit error



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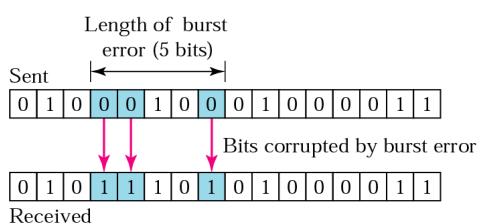
### Note:

*A burst error means that 2 or more bits in the data unit have changed.*

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## 10.2 Burst error of length 5



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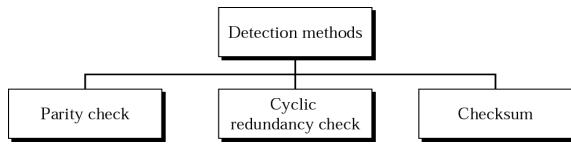
### Note:

**Error detection uses the concept of redundancy, which means adding extra bits for detecting errors at the destination.**

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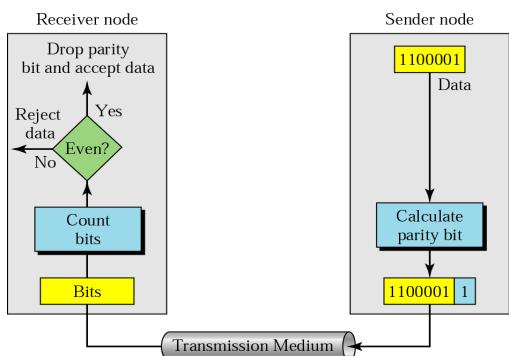
### 10.4 Detection methods



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### 10.5 Even-parity concept



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### Example 1

Suppose the sender wants to send the word *world*. In ASCII the five characters are coded as

1110111 1101111 1110010 1101100 1100100

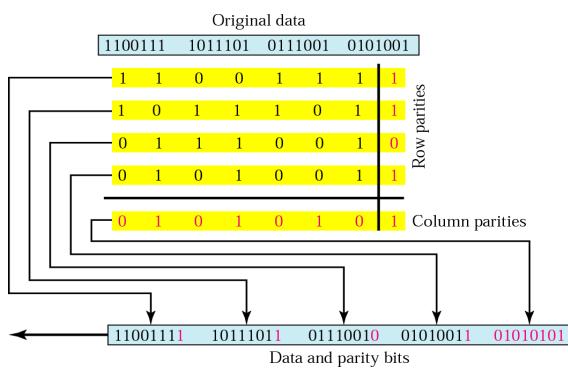
The following shows the actual bits sent

11101110 11011110 11100100 11011000 11001001

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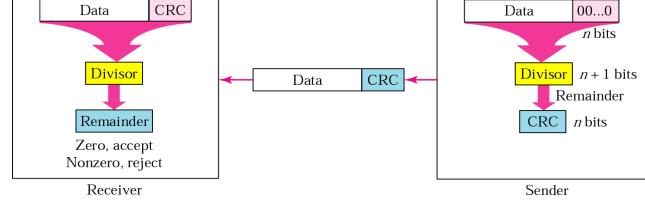
### 10.6 Two-dimensional parity



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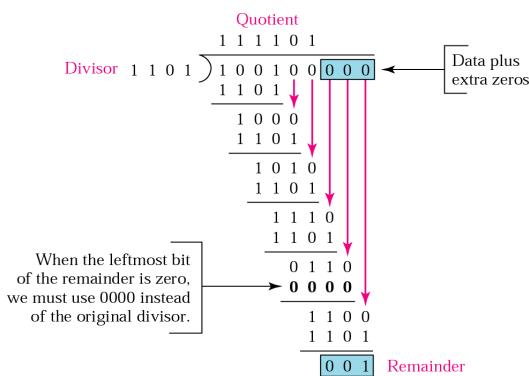
### 10.7 CRC generator and checker



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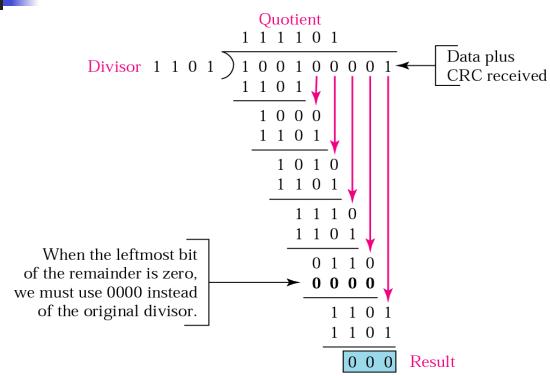
### 10.8 Binary division in a CRC generator



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### 10.9 Binary division in CRC checker



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### 10.11 A polynomial representing a divisor

Polynomial

$$x^7 + x^5 + x^2 + x + 1$$

$x^6$     $x^4$     $x^3$

↓   ↓   ↓

1 0 1 0 0 1 1 1

Divisor

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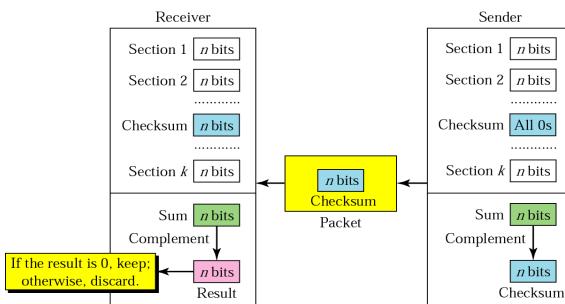
Table 10.1 Standard polynomials

Name	Polynomial	Application
CRC-8	$x^8 + x^2 + x + 1$	ATM header
CRC-10	$x^{10} + x^9 + x^8 + x^4 + x^2 + 1$	ATM AAL
ITU-16	$x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1$	HDLC
ITU-32	$x^{32} + x^{26} + x^{23} + x^{22} + x^{16} + x^{12} + x^{11} + x^{10} + x^8 + x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$	LANs

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### 10.12 Checksum



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### Example 7

Suppose the following block of 16 bits is to be sent using a checksum of 8 bits.

10101001 00111001

The numbers are added using one's complement

10101001

00111001

-----

Sum 11100010

Checksum 00011101

The pattern sent is 10101001 00111001 00011101

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### Example 8

Now suppose the receiver receives the pattern sent in Example 7 and there is no error.

10101001 00111001 00011101

When the receiver adds the three sections, it will get all 1s, which, after complementing, is all 0s and shows that there is no error.

10101001

00111001

00011101

Sum 11111111

Complement **00000000 means that the pattern is OK.**

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## 10.3 Correction

**Retransmission**

**Forward Error Correction**

**Burst Error Correction**

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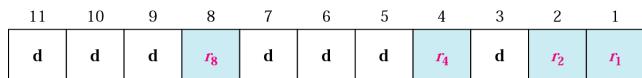
**Table 10.2 Data and redundancy bits**

Number of data bits <i>m</i>	Number of redundancy bits <i>r</i>	Total bits <i>m + r</i>
1	2	3
2	3	5
3	3	6
4	3	7
5	4	9
6	4	10
7	4	11

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**10.14 Positions of redundancy bits in Hamming code**



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Chapter 11

# Data Link Control and Protocols

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## 11.1 Flow and Error Control

**Flow Control**

**Error Control**

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### Note:

**Flow control refers to a set of procedures used to restrict the amount of data that the sender can send before waiting for acknowledgment.**

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### Note:

**Error control in the data link layer is based on automatic repeat request, which is the retransmission of data.**

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## 11.2 Stop-and-Wait ARQ

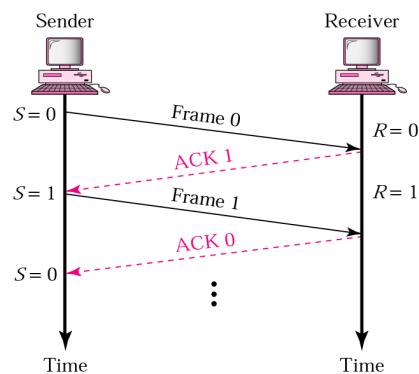
### Operation

### Bidirectional Transmission

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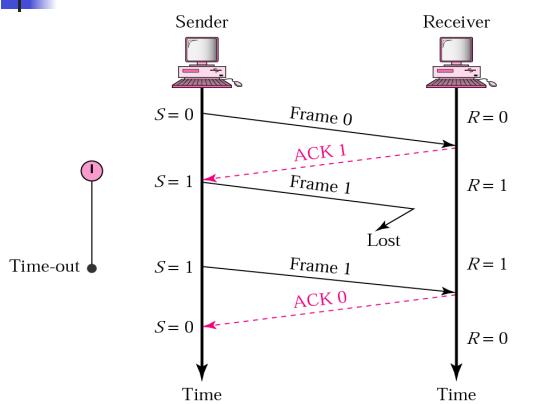
### 11.1 Normal operation



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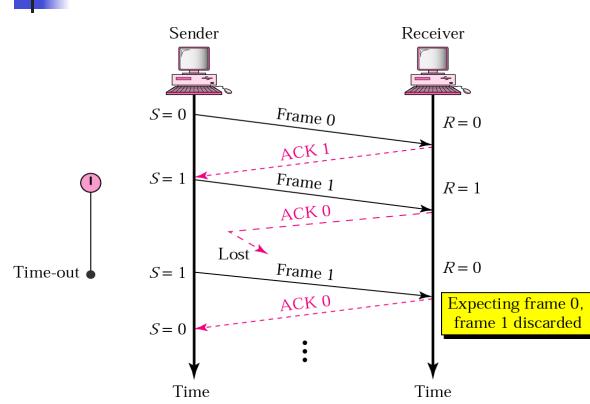
### 11.2 Stop-and-Wait ARQ, lost frame



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### 11.3 Stop-and-Wait ARQ, lost ACK frame

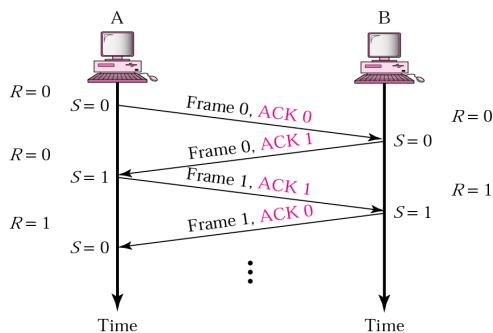


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## Chapter 14

# Local Area Networks: Ethernet



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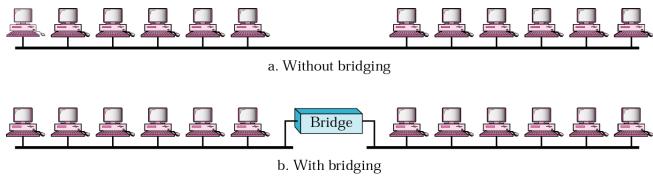
**Figure 14.4** Ethernet addresses in hexadecimal notation

**06-01-02-01-2C-4B**

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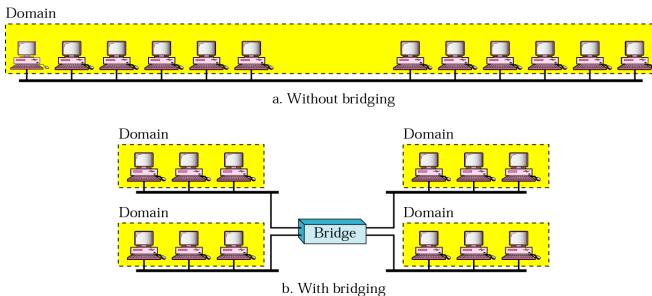
**Figure 14.16** A network with and without a bridge



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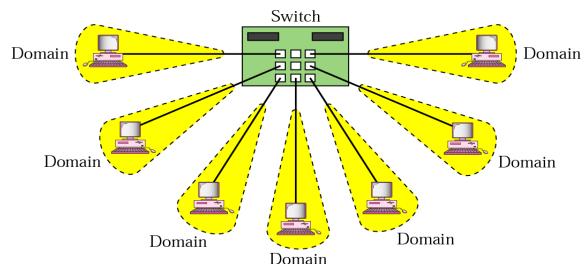
**Figure 14.17** Collision domains in a nonbridged and bridged network



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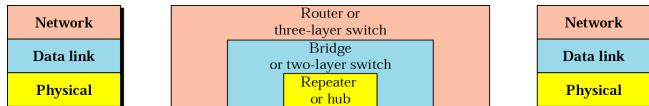
**Figure 14.18** Switched Ethernet



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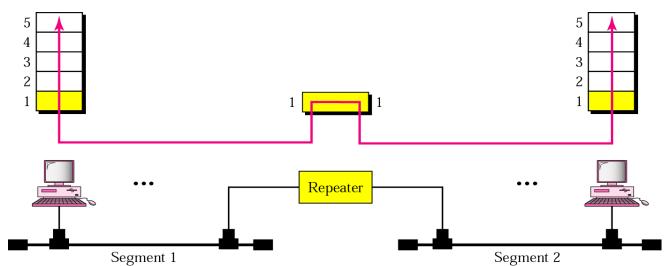
**Figure 16.1** Connecting devices



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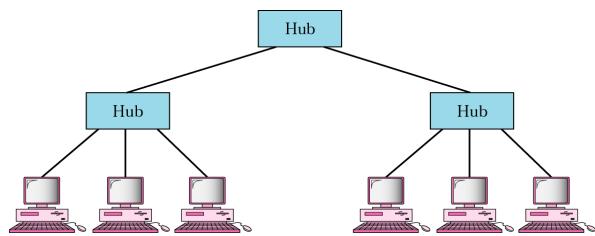
**Figure 16.2** Repeater



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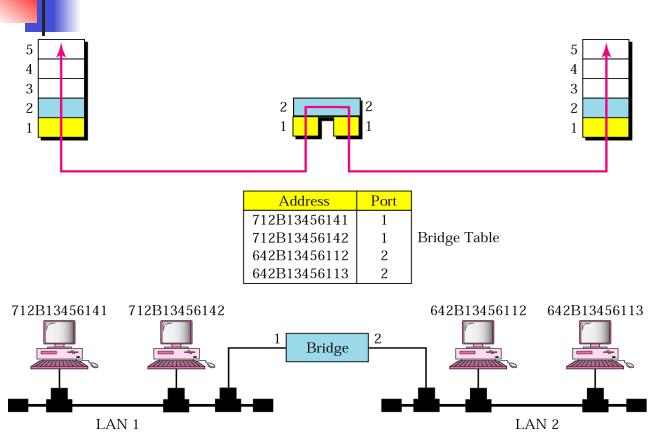
**Figure 16.4** Hubs



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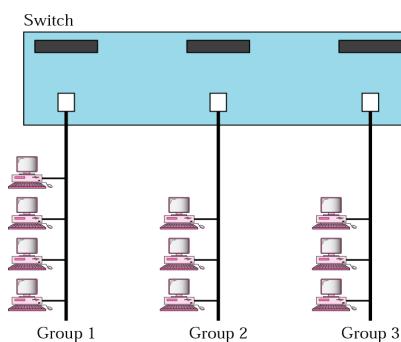
**Figure 16.5** Bridge



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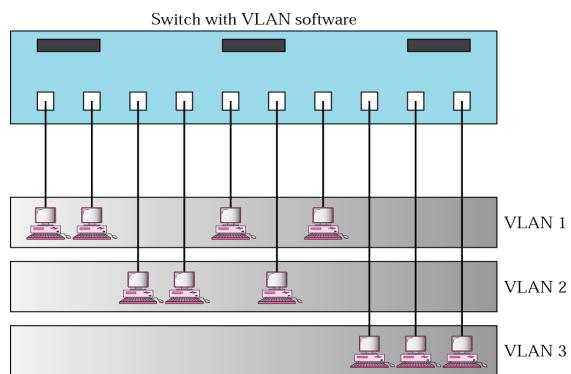
**Figure 16.14** A switch connecting three LANs



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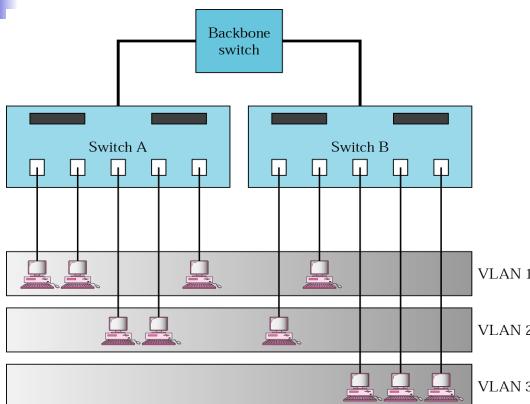
**Figure 16.15** A switch using VLAN software



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Figure 16.16 Two switches in a backbone using VLAN software



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## Sockets

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### ¿Qué es un socket?

- Es una interfaz de acceso a la capa de transporte.
- Un socket provee de una interfaz general para comunicar procesos. No sólo a procesos locales dentro de una máquina, sino a procesos distribuidos en una redes de computadoras.
- Unión de IP + #Puerto + Protocolo de Nivel Transporte (TCP o UDP)

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### Requisitos para comunicación

- ◆ Dirección de la computadora.
- ◆ Puerto.
- ◆ Analogía:
  - Número telefónico
  - Extensión.

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# SEGURIDAD EN REDES COMPUTACIONALES

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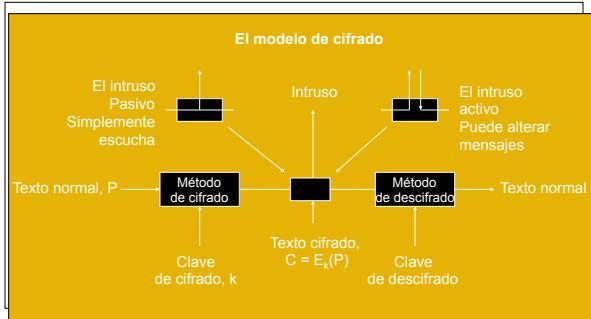
### Areas principales

- Confidencialidad de la información (se preocupa por mantener la información fuera del alcance de usuarios no autorizados).
- Autenticación (Se encarga de determinar con quien se está hablando antes de revelar cualquier información).
- No repudiación (se encarga de las firmas)
- Integridad de la información (se asegura de que el mensaje recibido realmente fue el enviado).
- Los mecanismos de seguridad en redes de computadoras se basan principalmente en criptografía en la capa de aplicación.

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## Modelo de cifrado



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## Criptografía tradicional

- En la criptografía tradicional, se mantenía secreto el método de codificación de los mensajes y, si éste era descubierto, era necesario crear uno nuevo.

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## Criptografía por sustitución

- Cifrado por sustitución: cada letra o grupo de letra se remplaza por otra letra o grupo de letra. (Cifrado de César) El alfabeto se desplaza K posiciones. K es la clave de cifrado.
- Cifrado por sustitución monoalfabética. Cada uno de los símbolos del texto normal tiene una correspondencia con algún otro símbolo.
- Intruso: uso de estadísticas de los lenguajes.

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## Criptografía por sustitución

### Ejemplo:

Alfabeto normal: a b c d e f g h i j k l m n  
o p q r s t u v w x y z  
Alfabeto cifrado: Q W E R T Y U I O P A S D F  
G H J K L Z X C V B N M  
Texto normal : clase de redes  
Texto cifrado: ESQLT RT KTRTL

- En este ejemplo la clave es la cadena de 26 letras del alfabeto.

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## Criptografía por transposición

- Clave: PRIVADO
- Mensaje: esteesunmensajemuysecreto

P	R	I	V	A	D	O
5	6	3	7	1	2	4
e	s	t	e	e	s	u
n	m	e	n	s	a	j
e	m	u	y	s	e	c
r	e	t	o	a	b	c

Mensaje cifrado: essasaebteutjccenersmmeenyo

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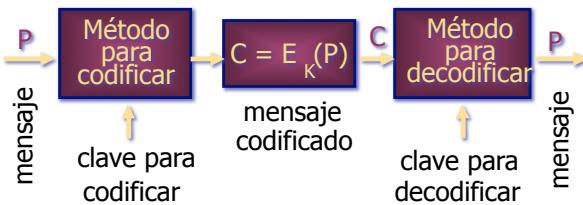
## Criptografía moderna

- Usa el mismo principio de que la tradicional (transposición y sustitución)
- Pero con un enfoque diferente :
  - El método de codificación es complejo y conocido.
  - Se utilizan claves, las cuales se mantienen secretas, para codificar o decodificar los mensajes.

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## Criptografía moderna

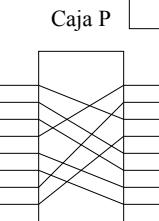


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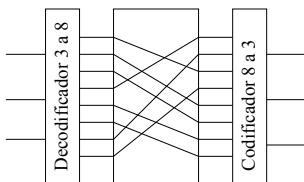
## Criptografía moderna

- Existen circuitos para realizar las dos técnicas básicas de codificación:
  - Substitución: caja S
  - Transposición: caja P



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Caja S



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## Algoritmos de clave Pública

- Los algoritmos de clave secreta son seguros mientras no se conozca la clave.
- Su principal problema es la distribución de la clave, ya que utilizan la misma clave para codificar y decodificar.

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## Algoritmos de clave Pública

- La clave pública se utiliza para cifrar mensajes y es conocida por todos.
- La clave que se utiliza para descifrar es secreta y solamente la conoce la persona a quien va dirigido el mensaje, de tal forma que solamente ella lo puede descifrar.

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## Algoritmo RSA

- Para codificar (cifrar) un bloque P se calcula  $C = P^e \text{ módulo } n$ .
- Para decodificar (descifrar) C se calcula  $P = C^d \text{ módulo } n$ .
- La clave pública:  $(e, n)$ .
- La clave privada:  $(d, n)$ .

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## Algoritmo RSA

- La seguridad del método se basa en la dificultad de factorizar números grandes.
- Para factorizar números de 200 dígitos se requiere de 4 mil millones de años de tiempo de cómputo.

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## Algoritmo RSA

- RSA al igual que DES es un algoritmo de sustitución monoalfabética. Debe de usarse alguna forma de encadenamiento.
- En la práctica se usa RSA principalmente para intercambiar una llave de sesión para poder usar DES o IDEA durante toda la sesión.
- RSA es muy lento para encriptar volúmenes grandes de datos.

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## FIRMAS ELECTRÓNICAS

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## Firmas Electrónicas

- Las firmas electrónicas deben cumplir las siguientes funciones:
  - El receptor puede verificar la identidad de quien envía.



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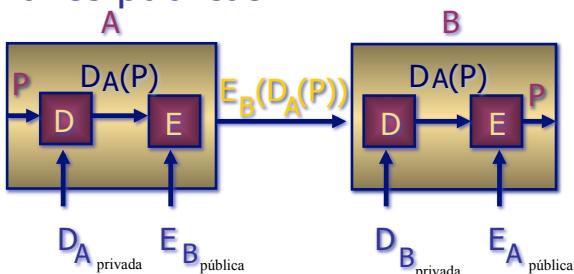
## Firmas Electrónicas

- Quien envía no puede desconocer posteriormente el contenido del mensaje.
- El receptor no puede confeccionar o alterar el mensaje.

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## Firmas electrónicas usando llaves públicas



Al tener  $B D_A(P)$  y P, A no puede negar que envió el mensaje P a B, ya que es el único que puede generar  $D_A(P)$ . (El algoritmo para D y E puede ser RSA).

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## COMPENDIOS DE MENSAJES

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## Compendios de Mensajes

- Codificar un mensaje requiere mucho cómputo. Para simplificar el proceso, se crearon los compendios de mensajes (MD=Message digest).
- Un compendio de un mensaje se genera al aplicar una función de "Hashing" a un mensaje, lo cual produce una cadena de bits de longitud fija.

## Compendios de Mensajes

- En este esquema, se envía el mensaje normal (P) y se envía el compendio del mensaje codificado.
- $A \rightarrow P, D_A(MD(P)) \rightarrow B$
- $D_A$  es un criptosistema.
- Sirve para validar identificación y ... Pero no para mantener secreto el mensaje.

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## Domain Name System

Víctor Acevedo  
[vacevedo@nic.mx](mailto:vacevedo@nic.mx)

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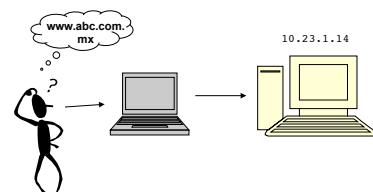
## Introducción al DNS

- Utilizamos DNS cada vez que hacemos uso de un servicio de Internet, como el correo electrónico, http, telnet o ftp
- La finalidad del DNS es facilitar la comunicación con los equipos ubicados en la red; haciendo referencia por nombre en vez de direcciones numéricas.

## ¿Por qué utilizar DNS ?

- Las máquinas se comunican con números (direcciones IP y MAC address). Los humanos nos comunicamos con las máquinas a través de nombres.

Y esto nos resulta más fácil...



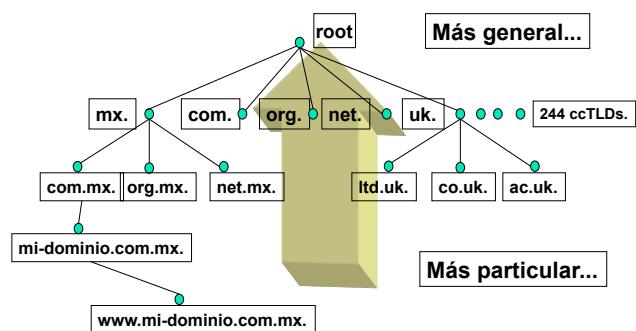
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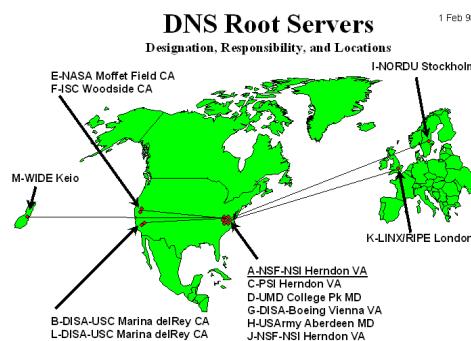
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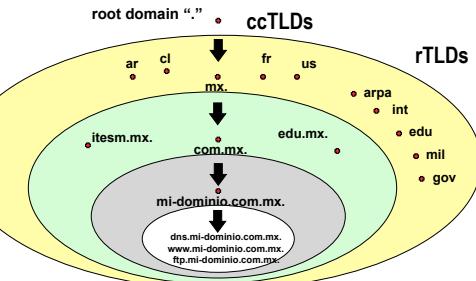
## Estructura Jerárquica



## Root-Servers



## Delegación de dominios



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## Un día en la vida de un Servidor de Nombres

## El proceso de resolución



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theone.victor.com.mx

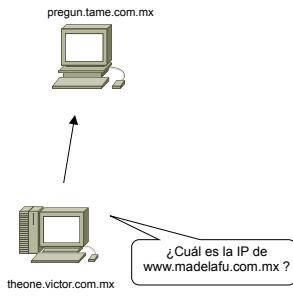
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theone# ping www.madelafu.com.mx

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## El proceso de resolución

- La estacion **theone**, consulta su servidor de nombres configurado **pregun.tame.com.mx**, por la dirección de **www.madelafu.com.mx**

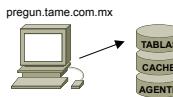


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## El proceso de resolución

- Consulta en sus tablas si tiene el dominio **www.madelafu.com.mx**



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## El proceso de resolución

- No encuentra en Tablas, consulta en su memoria CACHE si tiene información sobre .mx, com.mx, madelafu.com.mx o www.madelafu.com.mx



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## El proceso de resolución

- No encuentra información en su CACHE el agente busca en otros servidores



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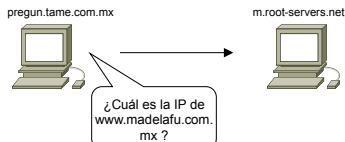
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## El proceso de resolución

- El servidor de nombres **nombres**, consulta un root-server por www.madelafu.com.mx



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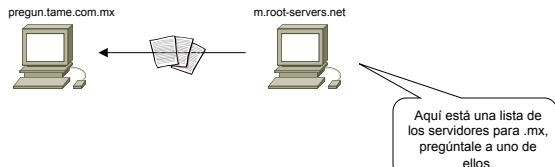
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**theone# ping www.madelafu.com.mx**

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## El proceso de resolución

- El root-server **m**, envía a **pregun.tame.com.mx** los servidores autoritativos para .mx, este proceso se conoce como **referral**



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## El proceso de resolución

- El name server **pregun.tame.com.mx**, consulta al name server **ns.nic.mx** por la dirección de **www.madelafu.com.mx**



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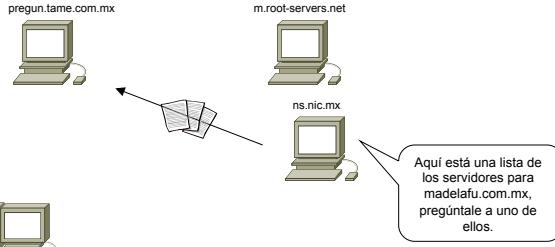
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## El proceso de resolución

- **ns.nic.mx** contesta a **pregun.tame.com.mx** con la lista de servidores de nombres de **madelafu.com.mx**



theone.victor.com.mx

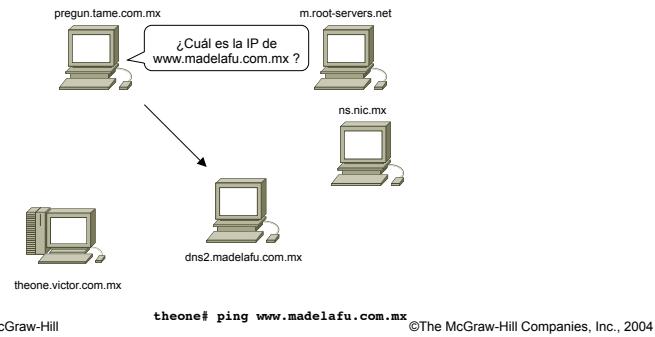
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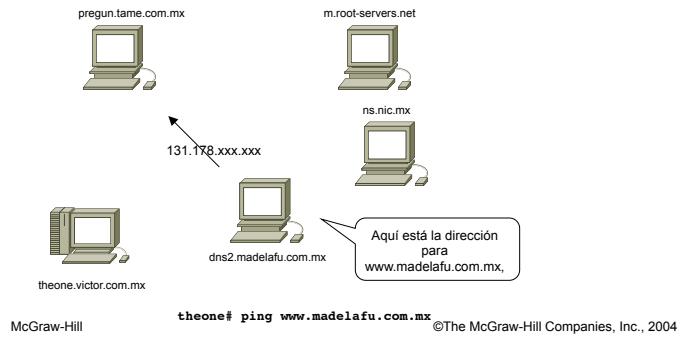
## El proceso de resolución

- El name server **pregun.tame.com.mx**, consulta al name server **dns2.madelafu.com.mx** por la dirección de **www.madelafu.com.mx**



## El proceso de resolución

- **dns2.madelafu.com.mx** contesta con la dirección IP de **www.madelafu.com.mx**



## El proceso de resolución

- **pregun.tame.com.mx** contesta a **theone.victor.com.mx** con la dirección IP de **www.madelafu.com.mx**

