UNIT-I

DATA COMMUNICATION : Characteristics, Components, Data flow, Network criteria, Topologies, Network model, Layered tasks, ARPANET, OSI model, TCP/IP protocol suite, Addressing (Text Book-2).

PHYSICAL LAYER:Transmission Media: Guided and unguided, Connecting devices: Hub, switch, bridge, router, Gateway. (Text Book-2).

TEXT BOOKS:

1. Andrew S. Tanenbaum, David J. Wetherall, Computer Networks , 5th Edition, Pearson New International Edition, 2016.

2. Behrouz A. Forouzan, Data Communication and Networking, 4th Edition, McGraw- Hill, 2017.

Data communications are the exchange of data between two devices via some form of transmission medium such as a wire cable. A network is a set of devices (often referred to as nodes) connected by communication links. A node can be a computer, printer, or any other device capable of sending or receiving data generated by other nodes on the network.

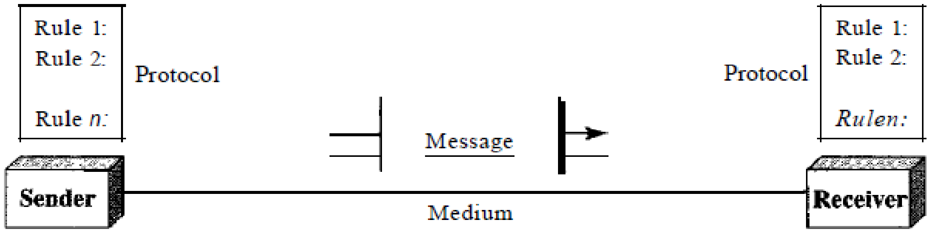
Characteristics of a Network : The effectiveness of a data communications system depends on four fundamental characteristics: delivery, accuracy, timeliness, and jitter.

- **Delivery.** The system must deliver data to the correct destination. Data must be received by the intended device or user and only by that device or user.
- **Accuracy.** The system must deliver the data accurately. Data that have been altered in transmission and left uncorrected are unusable.
- **Timeliness.** The system must deliver data in a timely manner. Data delivered late are useless. In the case of video and audio, timely delivery means delivering data as they are produced, in the same order that they are produced, and without significant delay. This kind of delivery is called *real-time* transmission.
- **Jitter.** Jitter refers to the variation in the packet arrival time. It is the uneven delay in the delivery of audio or video packets. For example, let us assume that video packets are sent every 3D ms. If some of the packets arrive with 3D-ms delay and others with 4D-ms delay, an uneven quality in the video is the result.

Components

A data communications system has five components (see Figure 1.1).

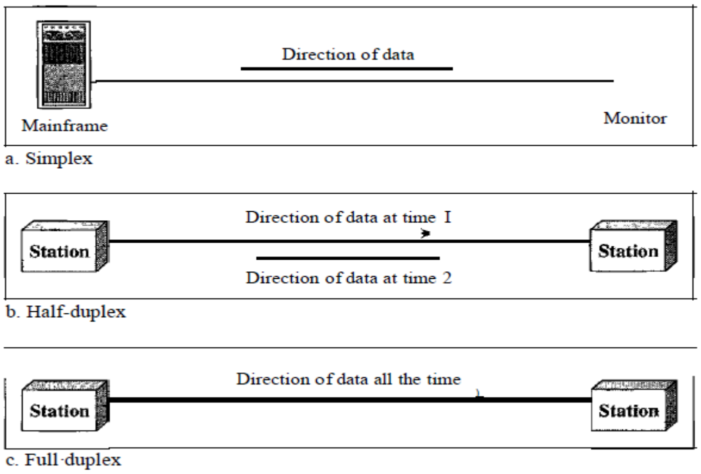
Figure 1.1 *Five components ofdata communication*



1. **Message**. The message is the information (data) to be communicated. Popular forms of information include text, numbers, pictures, audio, and video.
2. **Sender.** The sender is the device that sends the data message. It can be a computer, workstation, telephone handset, video camera, and so on.
3. **Receiver.** The receiver is the device that receives the message. It can be a computer, workstation, telephone handset, television, and so on.
4. **Transmission medium.** The transmission medium is the physical path by which a message travels from sender to receiver. Some examples of transmission media include twisted-pair wire, coaxial cable, fiber-optic cable, and radio waves.
5. **Protocol**. A protocol is a set of rules that govern data communications. It represents an agreement between the communicating devices. Without a protocol, two devices may be connected but not communicating, just as a person speaking French cannot be understood by a person who speaks only Japanese.

Data Flow: Communication between two devices can be simplex, half-duplex, or full-duplex as shown in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 *Dataflow (simplex, half-duplex, andfull-duplex)*


Direction of data
Mainframe
Monitor
Direction of data at time I
Station
Station
Direction of data at time 2
Direction of data all the time
Station
Station

a. Simplex

b. Half-duplex

c. Full·duplex

Simplex

In simplex mode, the communication is unidirectional, as on a one-way street. Only oneof the two devices on a link can transmit; the other can only receive (see Figure 1.2a). Keyboards and traditional monitors are examples of simplex devices. The keyboard can only introduce input; the monitor can only accept output. The simplex mode can use the entire capacity of the channel to send data in one direction.

Half-Duplex

In half-duplex mode, each station can both transmit and receive, but not at the same time. : When one device is sending, the other can only receive, and vice versa (see Figure 1.2b). The half-duplex mode is like a one-lane road with traffic allowed in both directions. When cars are traveling in one direction, cars going the other way must wait. In a half-duplex transmission, the entire capacity of a channel is taken over by whichever of the two devices is transmitting at the time. Walkie-talkies and CB (citizens band) radios are both half-duplex systems.

Full-Duplex

In full-duplex m.,lle (als@ called duplex), both stations can transmit and receive simultaneously (see Figure 1.2c). In full-duplex mode, signals going in one direction share the capacity of the link: with signals going in the other din~c~on. This sharing can occur in two ways: Either the link must contain two physically separate t:nmsmissiIDn paths, one for sending and the other for receiving; or the capacity of the channel is divided between signals traveling in both directions. One common example of full-duplex communication is the telephone network. When two people are communicating by a telephone line, both can talk and listen at the same time. The full-duplex mode is used when communication in both directions is required all the time. The capacity of the channel, however, must be divided between the two directions.

Network criteria : A network must be able to meet a certain number of criteria. The most important of these are performance, reliability, and security.

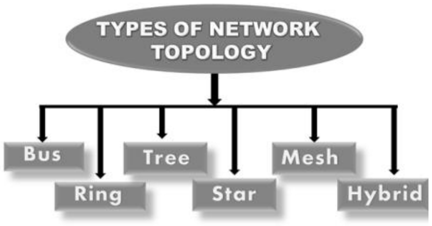
Performance: Performance can be measured in many ways, including transit time and response time. Transit time is the amount of time required for a message to travel from one device to another. Response time is the elapsed time between an inquiry and a response. The performance of a network depends on a number of factors, including the number of users, the type of transmission medium, the capabilities of the connected hardware, and the efficiency of the software. Performance is often evaluated by two networking metrics: throughput and delay.

Reliability: Network reliability is measured by the frequency of failure, the time it takes a link to recover from a failure, and the network's robustness in a catastrophe.

Security : Network security issues include protecting data from unauthorized access, protecting data from damage and development, and implementing policies and procedures for recovery from breaches and data losses.

Topologies

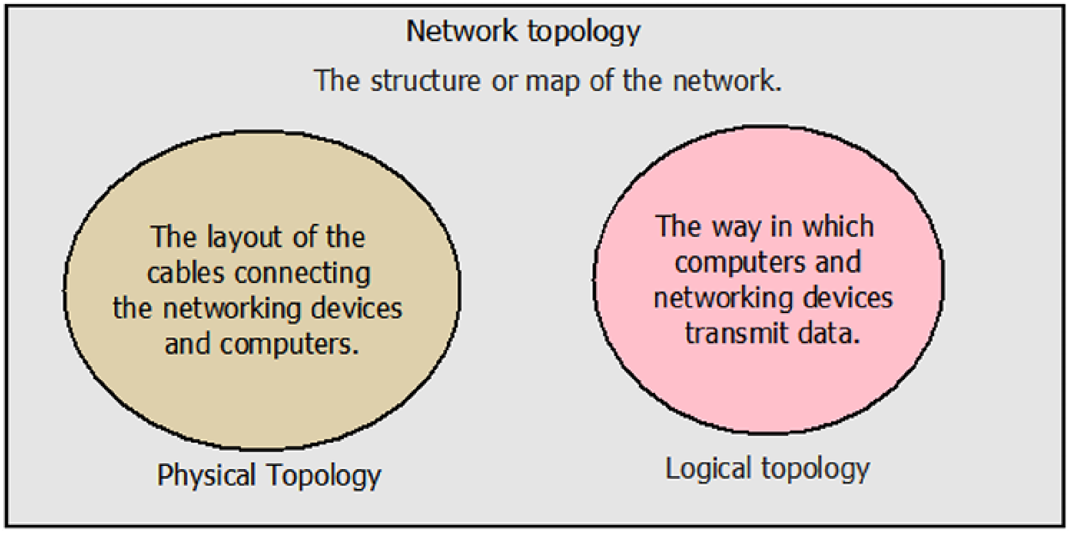
The term physical topology refers to the way in which a network is laid out physically. One or more devices connect to a link; two or more links form a topology. The topology of a network is the geometric representation of the relationship of all the links and linking devices (usually called nodes) to one another. There are different topologies possible: mesh, star, bus, ring,tree and hybrid.

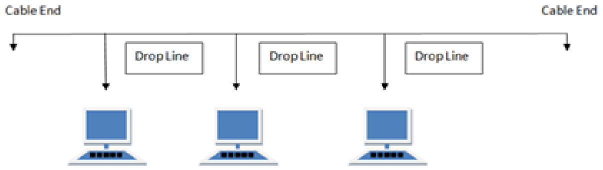


Network Topology is the schematic description of a network arrangement, connecting various nodes(sender and receiver) through lines of connection.

BUS Topology

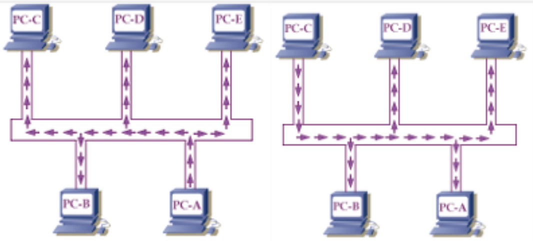
Bus topology is a network type in which every computer and network device is connected to single cable. When it has exactly two endpoints, then it is called **Linear Bus topology**.


Network topology
The structure or map of the network.
The layout of the cables connecting the networking devices and computers.
The way in which computers and networking devices transmit data.
Physical Topology
Logical topology



When a computer transmits data in this topology, all computers see that data over the wire, but only that computer accepts the data to which it is addressed. It is just like an announcement that is heard by all but answered only by the person to whom the announcement is made.

For example, if in the above network, **PC-A** sends data to the **PC-C** then all computers of the network receive this data but only the **PC-C** accepts it. The following image shows this process.



If **PC-C** replies, only the **PC-A** accepts the return data. The following image shows this process.

Features of Bus Topology

1. It transmits data only in one direction.
2. Every device is connected to a single cable

Advantages of Bus Topology

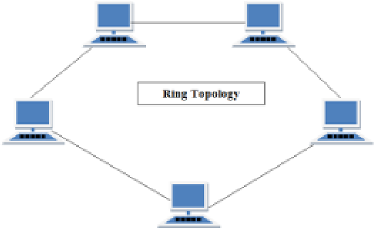
1. It is cost effective.
2. Cable required is least compared to other network topology.
3. Used in small networks.
4. It is easy to understand.
5. Easy to expand joining two cables together.

Disadvantages of Bus Topology

1. Cables fails then whole network fails.
2. If network traffic is heavy or nodes are more the performance of the network decreases.
3. Cable has a limited length.
4. It is slower than the ring topology.

RING Topology

It is called ring topology because it forms a ring as each computer is connected to another computer, with the last one connected to the first. Exactly two neighbours for each device.



Features of Ring Topology

1. A number of repeaters are used for Ring topology with large number of nodes, because if someone wants to send some data to the last node in the ring topology with 100 nodes, then the data will have to pass through 99 nodes to reach the 100th node. Hence to prevent data loss repeaters are used in the network.
2. The transmission is unidirectional, but it can be made bidirectional by having 2 connections between each Network Node, it is called **Dual Ring Topology**.
3. In Dual Ring Topology, two ring networks are formed, and data flow is in opposite direction in them. Also, if one ring fails, the second ring can act as a backup, to keep the network up.

4. Data is transferred in a sequential manner that is bit by bit. Data transmitted, has to pass through each node of-hg the network, till the destination node.

Advantages of Ring Topology

1. Transmitting network is not affected by high traffic or by adding more nodes, as only the nodes having tokens can transmit data.
2. Cheap to install and expand

Disadvantages of Ring Topology

1. Troubleshooting is difficult in ring topology.
2. Adding or deleting the computers disturbs the network activity.
3. Failure of one computer disturbs the whole network.

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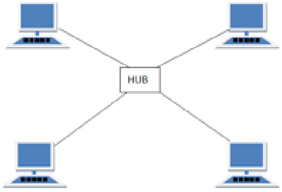
STAR Topology

In this topology, all computers connect to a centralized networking device. Usually, a networking switch or a Hub (in earlier days) is used as the centralized device. Each computer in the network uses its own separate twisted pair cable to connect to the switch. Twisted pair cable uses **RJ-45** connectors on both ends.

The following image shows an example of the star topology.



To transmit data, the star topology uses the same concept which the bus topology uses. It means, if you build a network using the star topology, then that network will use the bus topology to transmit the data.

Features of Star Topology

1. Every node has its own dedicated connection to the hub.
2. Hub acts as a repeater for data flow.
3. Can be used with twisted pair, Optical Fibre or coaxial cable.

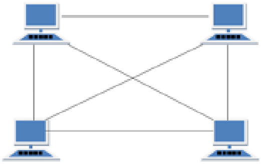
MESH Topology

It is a point-to-point connection to other nodes or devices. All the network nodes are connected to each other. Mesh has n(n-1)/2 physical channels to link n devices.

Required connections = n * (n-1)/2

Here, **n** is the number of end devices or locations.

For example, to make a fully meshed network of 4 end devices, we need 4*(4-1)/2 = 6 connections.



Types of Mesh Topology

1. **Partial Mesh Topology :** In this topology some of the systems are connected in the same fashion as mesh topology but some devices are only connected to two or three devices.
2. **Full Mesh Topology :** Each and every nodes or devices are connected to each other.

Features of Mesh Topology

1. Fully connected.
2. Robust.
3. Not flexible.

Advantages of Mesh Topology

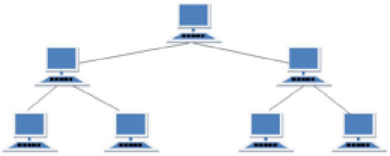
1. Each connection can carry its own data load.
2. It is robust.
3. Fault is diagnosed easily.
4. Provides security and privacy.

Disadvantages of Mesh Topology

1. Installation and configuration is difficult.
2. Cabling cost is more.
3. Bulk wiring is required.

TREE Topology

It has a root node and all other nodes are connected to it forming a hierarchy. It is also called hierarchical topology. It should at least have three levels to the hierarchy.



Features of Tree Topology

1. Ideal if workstations are located in groups.
2. Used in Wide Area Network.

Advantages of Tree Topology

1. Extension of bus and star topologies.
2. Expansion of nodes is possible and easy.
3. Easily managed and maintained.
4. Error detection is easily done.

Disadvantages of Tree Topology

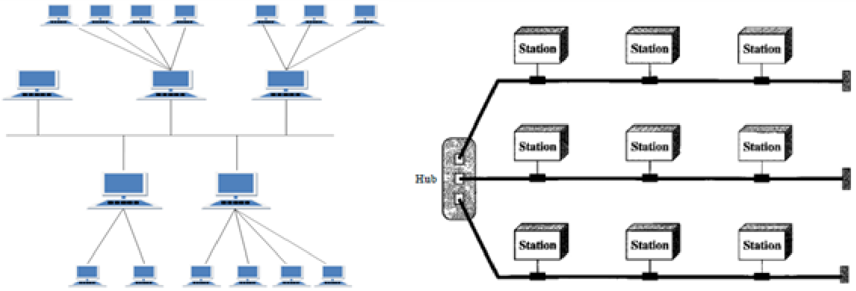
1. Heavily cabled.
2. Costly.
3. If more nodes are added maintenance is difficult.
4. Central hub fails, network fails.

HYBRID Topology

This topology is a mix of two or more topologies. For example, there are two networks; one is built from the star topology and another is built from the bus topology. If we connect both networks to build a single large network, the topology of the new network will be known as the hybrid topology.

You are not restricted to the bus and star topologies. You can combine any topology with another topology. In modern network implementations, the hybrid topology is mostly used to mix the wired network with the wireless network.

The following image shows an example of the hybrid network topology.



Features of Hybrid Topology

- It is a combination of two or topologies
- Inherits the advantages and disadvantages of the topologies included

Advantages of Hybrid Topology

- Reliable as Error detecting and trouble shooting is easy.
- Effective.
- Scalable as size can be increased easily.
- Flexible.

Disadvantages of Hybrid Topology

- Complex in design.
- Costly.

Network Models

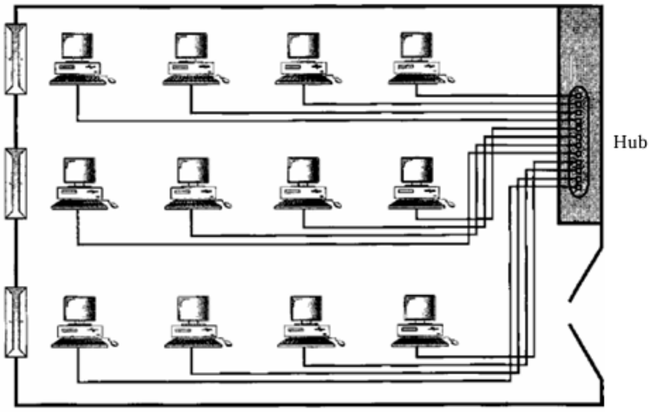
Computer networks are created by different entities. Standards are needed so that these heterogeneous networks can communicate with one another. The two best-known standards are the OSI model and the Internet model

Network types:

Local Area Network

A local area network (LAN) is usually privately owned and links the devices in a single office, building, or campus (see Figure 1.10). Depending on the needs of an organization and the type of technology used, a LAN can be as simple as two PCs and a printer in someone's home office; or it can extend throughout a company and include audio and video peripherals. Currently, LAN size is limited to a few kilometers.

Figure 1.10 *An isolated IAN connecting* 12 *computers to a hub in a closet*



LANs are designed to allow resources to be shared between personal computers or workstations. The resources to be shared can include hardware (e.g., a printer), software (e.g., an application program), or data. A common example of a LAN, found in many business environments, links a workgroup of task-related computers, for example, engineering workstations or accounting PCs. One of the computers may be given a large-capacity disk drive and may become a server to clients. Software can be stored on this central server and used as needed by the whole group. In this example, the size of the LAN may be determined by licensing restrictions on the number of users per copy of software, or by restrictions on the number of users licensed to access the operating system.

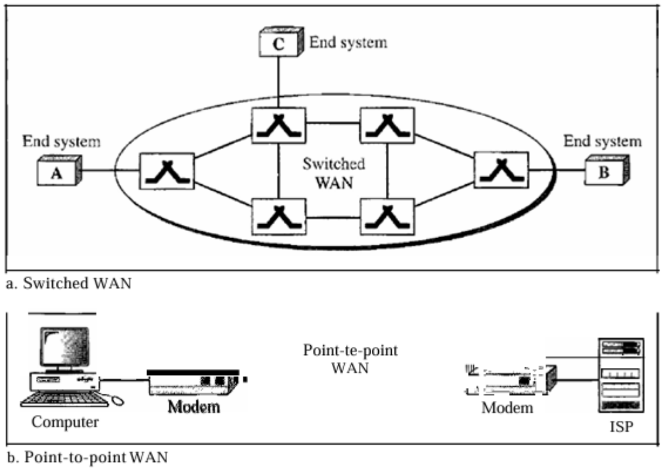
In addition to size, LANs are distinguished from other types of networks by their transmission media and topology. In general, a given LAN will use only one type of transmission medium. The most common LAN topologies are bus, ring, and star.

Early LANs had data rates in the 4 to 16 megabits per second (Mbps) range. Today, however, speeds are normally 100 or 1000 Mbps.

Wide Area Network

A wide area network(WAN) provides long-distance transmission of data, image, audio, and video information over large geographic areas that may comprise a country, a continent, or even the whole world. A WAN canbe as complex as the backbones that connect the Internet or as simple as a dial-up line that connects a home computer to the Internet. We normally refer to the first as a switched WAN and to the second as a point-to-point WAN (Figure 1.11). The switched WAN connects the end systems, which usually comprise a router (internet working connecting device) that connects to another LAN orWAN. The point-to-point WAN is normally a line leased from a telephone or cable TV provider that connects a home computer or a small LAN to an Internet service provider (lSP). This type of WAN is often used to provide Internet access.

Figure 1.11 *WANs: a switched WAN and a point-to-point WAN*



a. Switched WAN

b. Point-to-point WAN

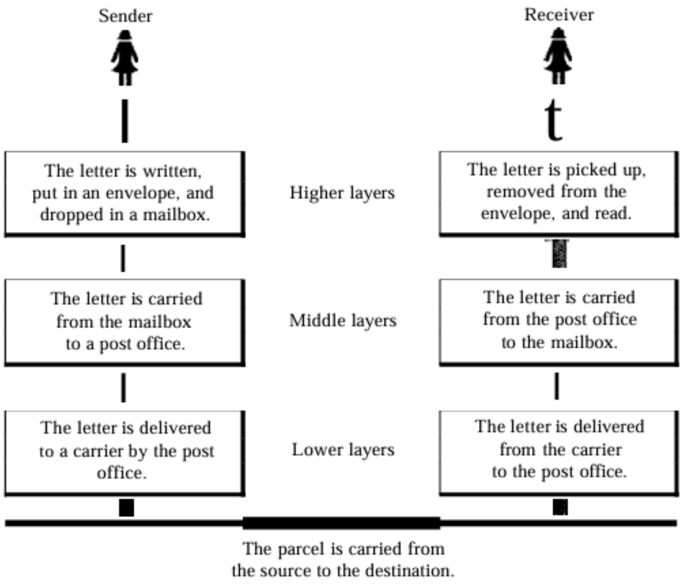
Metropolitan Area Networks

A metropolitan area network (MAN) is a network with a size between a LAN and a WAN. It normally covers the area inside a town or a city. It is designed for customers who need a high-speed connectivity, normally to the Internet, and have endpoints spread over a city or part of city. A good example of a MAN is the part of the telephone **company network that can provide a high-speed DSL line to the customer.**

LAYERED TASKS

We use the concept of layers in our daily life. As an example, let us consider two friends who communicate through postal maiL The process of sending a letter to a friend would be complex if there were no services available from the post office. Figure 2.1 shows the steps in this task.

Figure 2.1 *Tasks involved in sending a letter*


Sender
Receiver
The letter is written, put in an envelope, and dropped in a mailbox.
Higher layers
The letter is picked up, removed from the envelope, and read.
The letter is carried from the mailbox to a post office.
Middle layers
The letter is carried from the post office to the mailbox.
The letter is delivered to a carrier by the post office.
Lower layers
The letter is delivered from the carrier to the post office.
The parcel is carried from the source to the destination.

Sender, Receiver, and Carrier

In Figure 2.1 we have a sender, a receiver, and a carrier that transports the letter. There is a hierarchy of tasks.

At the sender side:

Let us first describe, in order, the activities that take place at the sender site.

- Higher layer. The sender writes the letter, inserts the letter in an envelope, writes the sender and receiver addresses, and drops the letter in a mailbox.
- Middle layer. The letter is picked up by a letter carrier and delivered to the post office.
- Lower layer. The letter is sorted at the post office; a carrier transports the letter.

On the way

The letter is then on its way to the recipient. On the way to the recipient's local post office, the letter may actually go through a central office. In addition, it may be transported by truck, train, airplane, boat, or a combination of these.

At the receiver side

- Lower layer. The carrier transports the letter to the post office.
- Middle layer. The letter is sorted and delivered to the recipient's mailbox.
- Higher layer. The receiver picks up the letter, opens the envelope, and reads it.

ARPANET

In the mid-1960s, mainframe computers in research organizations were standalone devices. Computers from different manufacturers were unable to communicate with one another. The Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA) in the Department of Defense (DoD) was interested in finding a way to connect computers so that the researchers they funded could share their findings, thereby reducing costs and eliminating duplication of effort.

In 1967, at an Association for Computing Machinery (ACM) meeting, ARPA presented its ideas for ARPANET, a small network of connected computers. The idea was that each host computer (not necessarily from the same manufacturer) would be attached to a specialized computer, called an *interface message processor* (IMP). The IMPs, in tum, would be connected to one another. Each IMP had to be able to communicate with other IMPs as well as with its own attached host.

By 1969, ARPANET was a reality. Four nodes, at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), the University of California at Santa Barbara (UCSB), Stanford Research Institute (SRI), and the University of Utah, were connected via the IMPs to form a network. Software called the *Network Control Protocol* (NCP) provided communication between the hosts.

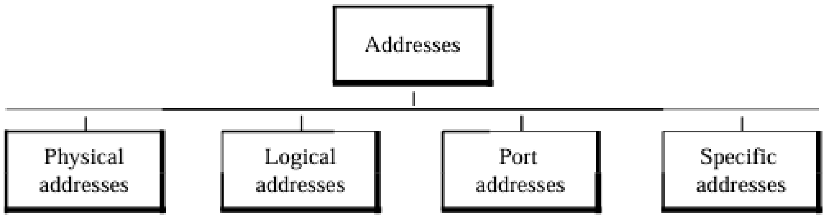
In 1972, Vint Cerf and Bob Kahn, both of whom were part of the core ARPANET group, collaborated on what they called the *Internetting Project*. Cerf and Kahn's landmark 1973 paper outlined the protocols to achieve end-to-end delivery of packets. This paper on Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) included concepts such as encapsulation, the datagram, and the functions of a gateway.

OSI model, TCP/IP protocol suite, (Previous Material)

ADDRESSING

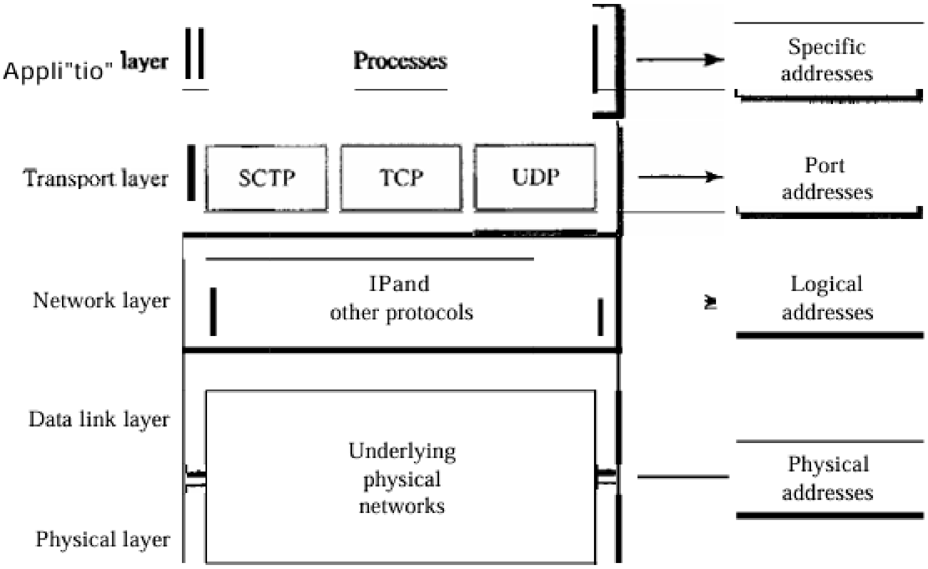
Four levels of addresses are used in an internet employing the *TCP/IP* protocols: physical (link) addresses, logical (IP) addresses, port addresses, and specific addresses (see Figure 2.17).

Figure 2.17 *Addresses in TCPIIP*



Each address is related to a specific layer in the TCPIIP architecture, as shown in Figure 2.18.

Figure 2.18 *Relationship oflayers and addresses in TCPIIP*



Physical Addresses

The physical address, also known as the link address, is the address of a node as defined by its LAN or WAN. It is included in the frame used by the data link layer. It is the lowest-level address.

The physical addresses have authority over the network (LAN or WAN). The size and format of these addresses vary depending on the network. For example, Ethernet uses a 6-byte (48-bit) physical address that is imprinted on the network interface card (NIC). LocalTalk (Apple), however, has a I-byte dynamic address that changes each time the station comes up.

Logical Addresses

Logical addresses are necessary for universal communications that are independent of underlying physical networks. Physical addresses are not adequate in an internetwork environment where different networks can have different address formats. A universal addressing system is needed in which each host can be identified uniquely, regardless of the underlying physical network.

The logical addresses are designed for this purpose. A logical address in the Internet is currently a 32-bit address that can uniquely define a host connected to the Internet. No two publicly addressed and visible hosts on the Internet can have the same IP address.

Port Addresses

The IP address and the physical address are necessary for a quantity of data to travel from a source to the destination host. However, arrival at the destination host is not the final objective of data communications on the Internet. A system that sends nothing but data from one computer to another is not complete. Today, computers are devices that can run multiple processes at the same time. The end objective of Internet communication is a process communicating with another process. For example, computer A can communicate with computer C by using TELNET. At the same time, computer A communicates with computer B by using the File Transfer Protocol (FTP). For these processes to receive data simultaneously, we need a method to label the different processes. In other words, they need addresses. In the TCPIIP architecture, the label assigned to a process is called a port address. A port address in TCPIIP is 16 bits in length.

Specific Addresses

Some applications have user-friendly addresses that are designed for that specific address. Examples include the e-mail address (for example, forouzan@fhda.edu) and the Universal Resource Locator (URL) (for example, www.mhhe.com). The first defines the recipient of an e-mail; the second is used to find a document on the WorldWide Web . These addresses, however, get changed to the corresponding port and logical addresses by the sending computer.