



Dnyansagar Arts and Commerce College Balewadi Pune-45

Subject: (Computer Networking)

SYBBA(CA) – IV Sem (2019 Pattern)



Unit1: Introduction to Computer Network





Unit 1.1 Basics of Computer Network

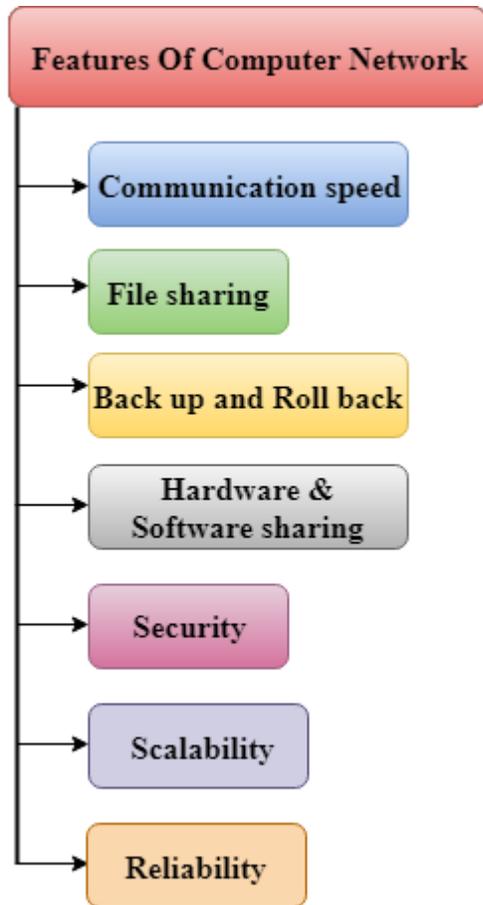
What is a Computer Network?

- **Computer Network** is a group of computers connected with each other through wires, optical fibres or optical links so that various devices can interact with each other through a network.
- The aim of the computer network is the sharing of resources among various devices.
- In the case of computer network technology, there are several types of networks that vary from simple to complex level.

Uses Of Computer Network

- **Resource sharing:** Resource sharing is the sharing of resources such as programs, printers, and data among the users on the network without the requirement of the physical location of the resource and user.
- **Server-Client model:** Computer networking is used in the **server-client model**. A server is a central computer used to store the information and maintained by the system administrator. Clients are the machines used to access the information stored in the server remotely.
- **Communication medium:** Computer network behaves as a communication medium among the users. For example, a company contains more than one computer has an email system which the employees use for daily communication.
- **E-commerce:** Computer network is also important in businesses. We can do the business over the internet. For example, amazon.com is doing their business over the internet, i.e., they are doing their business over the internet.

Features Of Computer network



A list Of Computer network features is given below.

- Communication speed
- File sharing
- Back up and Roll back is easy



- Software and Hardware sharing
 - Security
 - Scalability
 - Reliability

Communication speed

Network provides us to communicate over the network in a fast and efficient manner. For example, we can do video conferencing, email messaging, etc. over the internet. Therefore, the computer network is a great way to share our knowledge and ideas.

File sharing

File sharing is one of the major advantage of the computer network. Computer network provides us to share the files with each other.

Back up and Roll back is easy

Since the files are stored in the main server which is centrally located. Therefore, it is easy to take the back up from the main server.



Software and Hardware sharing

We can install the applications on the main server, therefore, the user can access the applications centrally. So, we do not need to install the software on every machine. Similarly, hardware can also be shared.

Security

Network allows the security by ensuring that the user has the right to access the certain files and applications.

Scalability

Scalability means that we can add the new components on the network. Network must be scalable so that we can extend the network by adding new devices. But, it decreases the speed of the connection and data of the transmission speed also decreases, this increases the chances of error occurring. This problem can be overcome by using the routing or switching devices.

Reliability

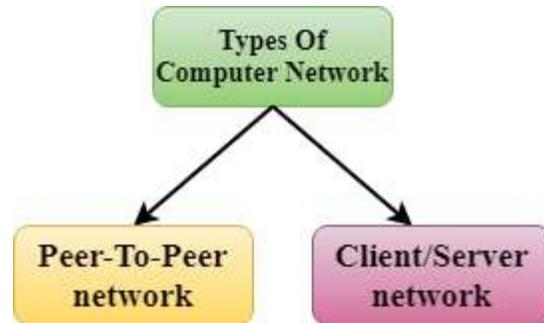
Computer network can use the alternative source for the data communication in case of any hardware failure.



Computer Network Architecture

Computer Network Architecture is defined as the physical and logical design of the software, hardware, protocols, and media of the transmission of data. Simply we can say that how computers are organized and how tasks are allocated to the computer.

The two types of network architectures are used:



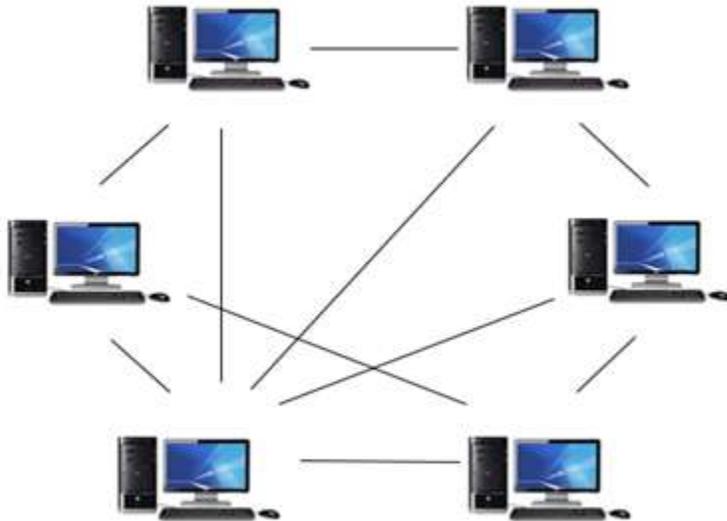
- Peer-To-Peer network
- Client/Server network

Peer-To-Peer network

- Peer-To-Peer network is a network in which all the computers are linked together with equal privilege and responsibilities for processing the data.
- Peer-To-Peer network is useful for small environments, usually up to 10 computers.



- Peer-To-Peer network has no dedicated server.
- Special permissions are assigned to each computer for sharing the resources, but this can lead to a problem if the computer with the resource is down.



Advantages Of Peer-To-Peer Network:

- It is less costly as it does not contain any dedicated server.
- If one computer stops working but, other computers will not stop working.
- It is easy to set up and maintain as each computer manages itself.

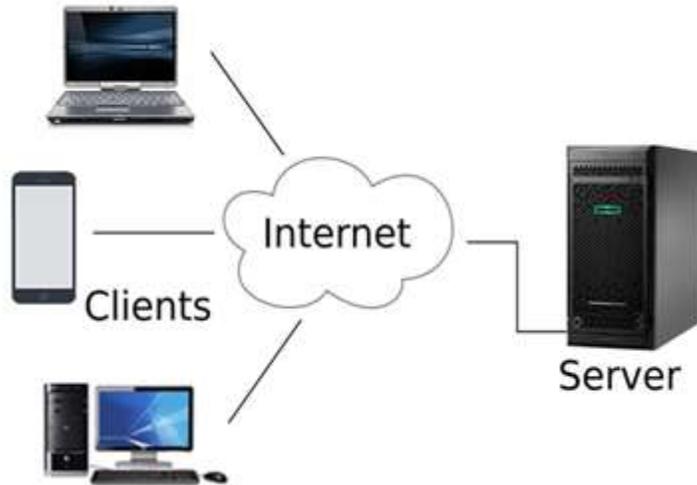
Disadvantages Of Peer-To-Peer Network:



- In the case of Peer-To-Peer network, it does not contain the centralized system . Therefore, it cannot back up the data as the data is different in different locations.
 - It has a security issue as the device is managed itself.
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Client/Server Network

- Client/Server network is a network model designed for the end users called clients, to access the resources such as songs, video, etc. from a central computer known as Server.
- The central controller is known as a **server** while all other computers in the network are called **clients**.
- A server performs all the major operations such as security and network management.
- A server is responsible for managing all the resources such as files, directories, printer, etc.
- All the clients communicate with each other through a server. For example, if client1 wants to send some data to client 2, then it first sends the request to the server for the permission. The server sends the response to the client 1 to initiate its communication with the client 2.



Advantages Of Client/Server network:

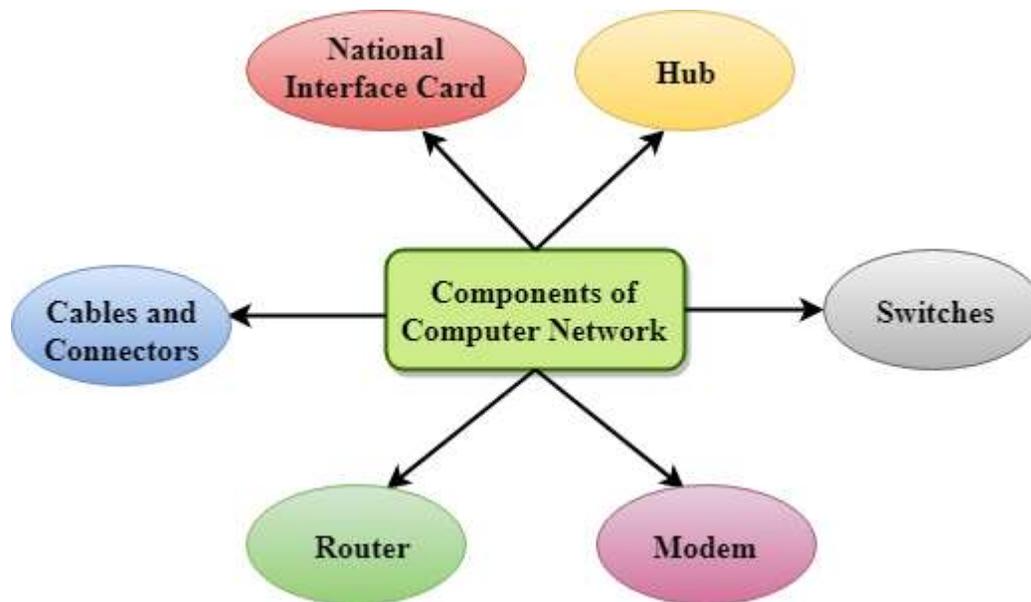
- A Client/Server network contains the centralized system. Therefore we can back up the data easily.
- A Client/Server network has a dedicated server that improves the overall performance of the whole system.
- Security is better in Client/Server network as a single server administers the shared resources.
- It also increases the speed of the sharing resources.

Disadvantages Of Client/Server network:

- Client/Server network is expensive as it requires the server with large memory.
- A server has a Network Operating System(NOS) to provide the resources to the clients, but the cost of NOS is very high.
- It requires a dedicated network administrator to manage all the resources.



Computer Network Components



Computer network components are the *major parts* which are needed to *install the software*. Some important network components are **NIC**, **switch**, **cable**, **hub**, **router**, and **modem**. Depending on the type of network that we need to install, some network components can

also be removed. For example, the wireless network does not require a cable.

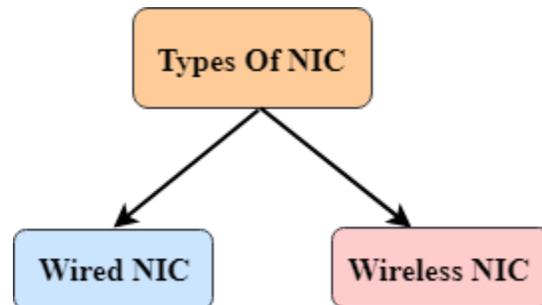


Following are the major components required to install a network:

NIC

- NIC stands for network interface card.
- NIC is a hardware component used to connect a computer with another computer onto a network
- It can support a transfer rate of 10,100 to 1000 Mb/s.
- The MAC address or physical address is encoded on the network card chip which is assigned by the IEEE to identify a network card uniquely. The MAC address is stored in the PROM (Programmable read-only memory).

There are two types of NIC:



1. Wired NIC
2. Wireless NIC

Wired NIC: The Wired NIC is present inside the motherboard. Cables and connectors are used with wired NIC to transfer data.

Wireless NIC: The wireless NIC contains the antenna to obtain the connection over the wireless network. For example, laptop computer contains the wireless NIC.



Hub

A Hub is a hardware device that divides the network connection among multiple devices. When computer requests for some information from a network, it first sends the request to the Hub through cable. Hub will broadcast this request to the entire network. All the devices will check whether the request belongs to them or not. If not, the request will be dropped.

The process used by the Hub consumes more bandwidth and limits the amount of communication. Nowadays, the use of hub is obsolete, and it is replaced by more advanced computer network components such as Switches, Routers.

Switch

A switch is a hardware device that connects multiple devices on a computer network. A Switch contains more advanced features than Hub. The Switch contains the updated table that decides where the data is transmitted or not. Switch delivers the message to the correct destination based on the physical address present in the incoming message. A Switch does not broadcast the message to the entire network like the Hub. It determines the device to whom the message is to be transmitted. Therefore, we can say that switch provides a direct connection between the source and destination. It increases the speed of the network.

Router



- A router is a hardware device which is used to connect a LAN with an internet connection. It is used to receive, analyze and forward the incoming packets to another network.
- A router works in a **Layer 3 (Network layer)** of the OSI Reference model.
- A router forwards the packet based on the information available in the routing table.
- It determines the best path from the available paths for the transmission of the packet.

Advantages Of Router:

- **Security:** The information which is transmitted to the network will traverse the entire cable, but the only specified device which has been addressed can read the data.
- **Reliability:** If the server has stopped functioning, the network goes down, but no other networks are affected that are served by the router.
- **Performance:** Router enhances the overall performance of the network. Suppose there are 24 workstations in a network generates a same amount of traffic. This increases the traffic load on the network. Router splits the single network into two networks of 12 workstations each, reduces the traffic load by half.
- **Network range**

Modem

- A modem is a hardware device that allows the computer to connect to the internet over the existing telephone line.
- A modem is not integrated with the motherboard rather than it is installed on the PCI slot found on the motherboard.
- It stands for Modulator/Demodulator. It converts the digital data into an analog signal over the telephone lines.



Based on the differences in speed and transmission rate, a modem can be classified in the following categories:

- Standard PC modem or Dial-up modem
- Cellular Modem
- Cable modem

Cables and Connectors

Cable is a transmission media used for transmitting a signal.

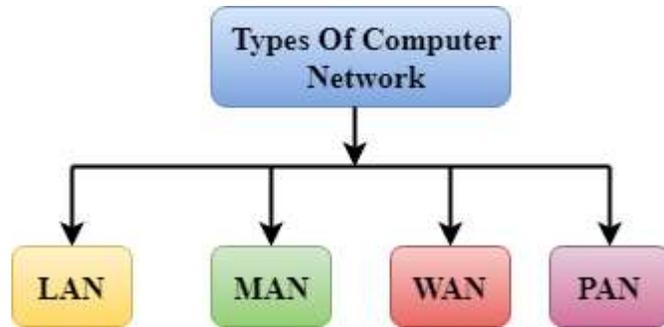
There are three types of cables used in transmission:

- Twisted pair cable
- Coaxial cable
- Fibre-optic cable

Computer Network Types

A computer network is a group of computers linked to each other that enables the computer to communicate with another computer and share their resources, data, and applications.

A computer network can be categorized by their size. A **computer network** is mainly of **four types**:



- LAN(Local Area Network)
- PAN(Personal Area Network)
- MAN(Metropolitan Area Network)
- WAN(Wide Area Network)

LAN(Local Area Network)

- Local Area Network is a group of computers connected to each other in a small area such as building, office.
- LAN is used for connecting two or more personal computers through a communication medium such as twisted pair, coaxial cable, etc.
- It is less costly as it is built with inexpensive hardware such as hubs, network adapters, and ethernet cables.
- The data is transferred at an extremely faster rate in Local Area Network.
- Local Area Network provides higher security.

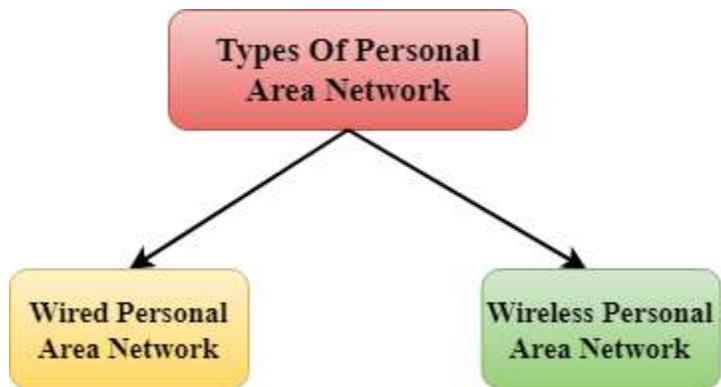


PAN(Personal Area Network)

- Personal Area Network is a network arranged within an individual person, typically within a range of 10 meters.
- Personal Area Network is used for connecting the computer devices of personal use is known as Personal Area Network.
- **Thomas Zimmerman** was the first research scientist to bring the idea of the Personal Area Network.
- Personal Area Network covers an area of **30 feet**.
- Personal computer devices that are used to develop the personal area network are the laptop, mobile phones, media player and play stations.



There are two types of Personal Area Network:





- Wired Personal Area Network
- Wireless Personal Area Network

Wireless Personal Area Network: Wireless Personal Area Network is developed by simply using wireless technologies such as WiFi, Bluetooth. It is a low range network.

Wired Personal Area Network: Wired Personal Area Network is created by using the USB.

Examples Of Personal Area Network:

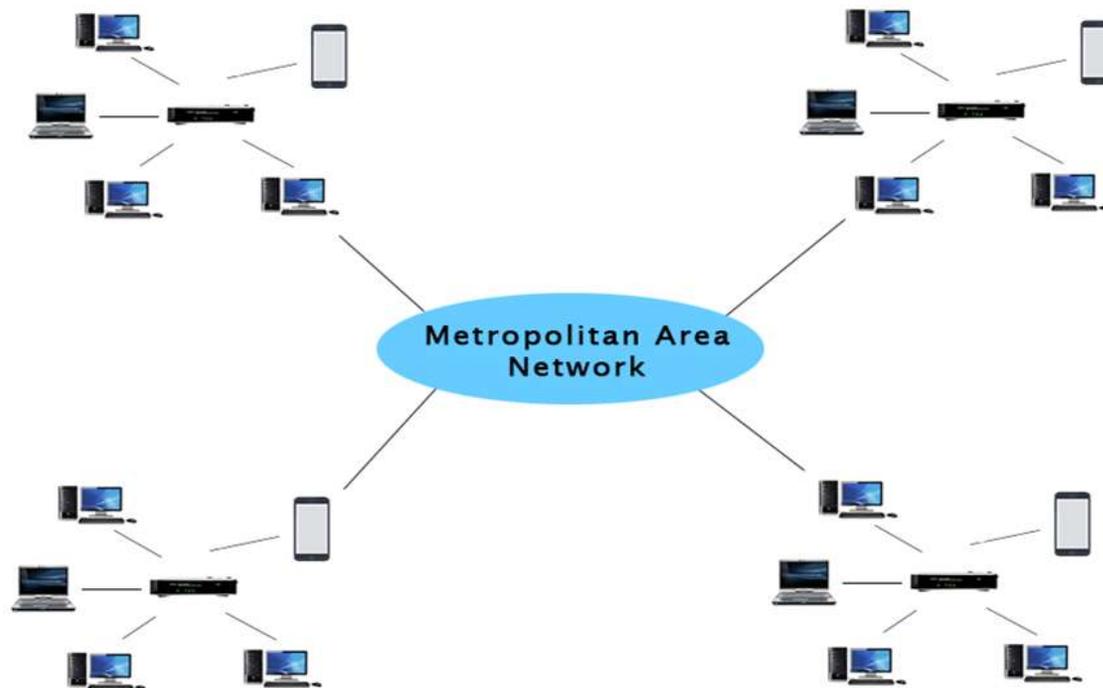
- **Body Area Network:** Body Area Network is a network that moves with a person. **For example**, a mobile network moves with a person. Suppose a person establishes a network connection and then creates a connection with another device to share the information.
- **Offline Network:** An offline network can be created inside the home, so it is also known as a **home network**. A home network is designed to integrate the devices such as printers, computer, television but they are not connected to the internet.
- **Small Home Office:** It is used to connect a variety of devices to the internet and to a corporate network using a VPN

MAN(Metropolitan Area Network)

- A metropolitan area network is a network that covers a larger geographic area by interconnecting a different LAN to form a larger network.
- Government agencies use MAN to connect to the citizens and private industries.
- In MAN, various LANs are connected to each other through a telephone exchange line.



- The most widely used protocols in MAN are RS-232, Frame Relay, ATM, ISDN, OC-3, ADSL, etc.
- It has a higher range than Local Area Network(LAN).



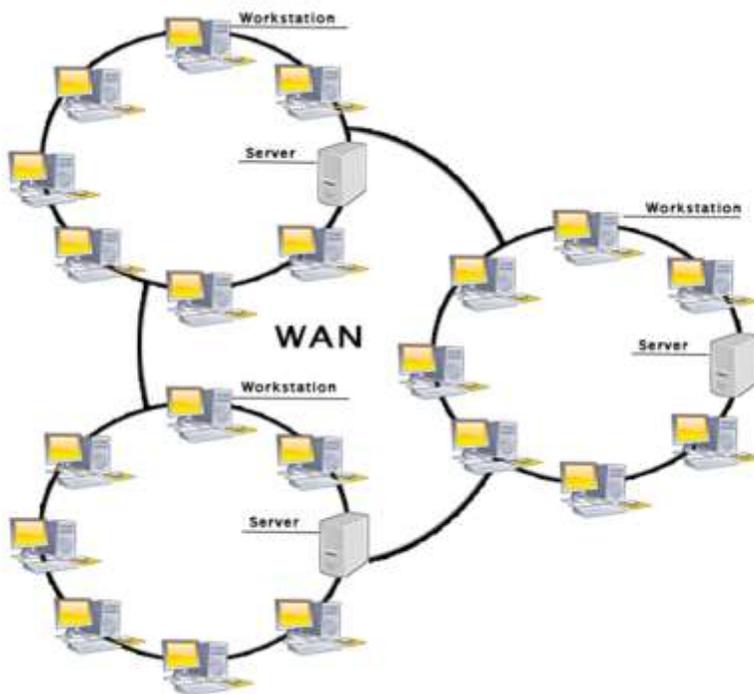
Uses Of Metropolitan Area Network:

- MAN is used in communication between the banks in a city.
- It can be used in an Airline Reservation.
- It can be used in a college within a city.
- It can also be used for communication in the military.



WAN(Wide Area Network)

- A Wide Area Network is a network that extends over a large geographical area such as states or countries.
- A Wide Area Network is quite bigger network than the LAN.
- A Wide Area Network is not limited to a single location, but it spans over a large geographical area through a telephone line, fibre optic cable or satellite links.
- The internet is one of the biggest WAN in the world.
- A Wide Area Network is widely used in the field of Business, government, and education.





Examples Of Wide Area Network:

- **Mobile Broadband:** A 4G network is widely used across a region or country.
- **Last mile:** A telecom company is used to provide the internet services to the customers in hundreds of cities by connecting their home with fiber.
- **Private network:** A bank provides a private network that connects the 44 offices. This network is made by using the telephone leased line provided by the telecom company.

Advantages Of Wide Area Network:

Following are the advantages of the Wide Area Network:

- **Geographical area:** A Wide Area Network provides a large geographical area. Suppose if the branch of our office is in a different city then we can connect with them through WAN. The internet provides a leased line through which we can connect with another branch.
- **Centralized data:** In case of WAN network, data is centralized. Therefore, we do not need to buy the emails, files or back up servers.
- **Get updated files:** Software companies work on the live server. Therefore, the programmers get the updated files within seconds.
- **Exchange messages:** In a WAN network, messages are transmitted fast. The web application like Facebook, Whatsapp, Skype allows you to communicate with friends.
- **Sharing of software and resources:** In WAN network, we can share the software and other resources like a hard drive, RAM.
- **Global business:** We can do the business over the internet globally.
- **High bandwidth:** If we use the leased lines for our company then this gives the high bandwidth. The high bandwidth increases the data transfer rate which in turn increases the productivity of our company.



Disadvantages of Wide Area Network:

The following are the disadvantages of the Wide Area Network:

- **Security issue:** A WAN network has more security issues as compared to LAN and MAN network as all the technologies are combined together that creates the security problem.
- **Needs Firewall & antivirus software:** The data is transferred on the internet which can be changed or hacked by the hackers, so the firewall needs to be used. Some people can inject the virus in our system so antivirus is needed to protect from such a virus.
- **High Setup cost:** An installation cost of the WAN network is high as it involves the purchasing of routers, switches.
- **Troubleshooting problems:** It covers a large area so fixing the problem is difficult.

Internetwork

- An internetwork is defined as two or more computer network LANs or WAN or computer network segments are connected using devices, and they are configured by a local addressing scheme. This process is known as **internetworking**.
- An interconnection between public, private, commercial, industrial, or government computer networks can also be defined as **internetworking**.
- An internetworking uses the **internet protocol**.
- The reference model used for internetworking is **Open System Interconnection(OSI)**.

Types Of Internetwork:



1. **Extranet:** An extranet is a communication network based on the internet protocol such as **Transmission Control protocol** and **internet protocol**. It is used for information sharing. The access to the extranet is restricted to only those users who have login credentials. An extranet is the lowest level of internetworking. It can be categorized as **MAN**, **WAN** or other computer networks. An extranet cannot have a single **LAN**, atleast it must have one connection to the external network.

2. **Intranet:** An intranet is a private network based on the internet protocol such as **Transmission Control protocol** and **internet protocol**. An intranet belongs to an organization which is only accessible by the **organization's employee** or members. The main aim of the intranet is to share the information and resources among the organization employees. An intranet provides the facility to work in groups and for teleconferences.

Intranet advantages:

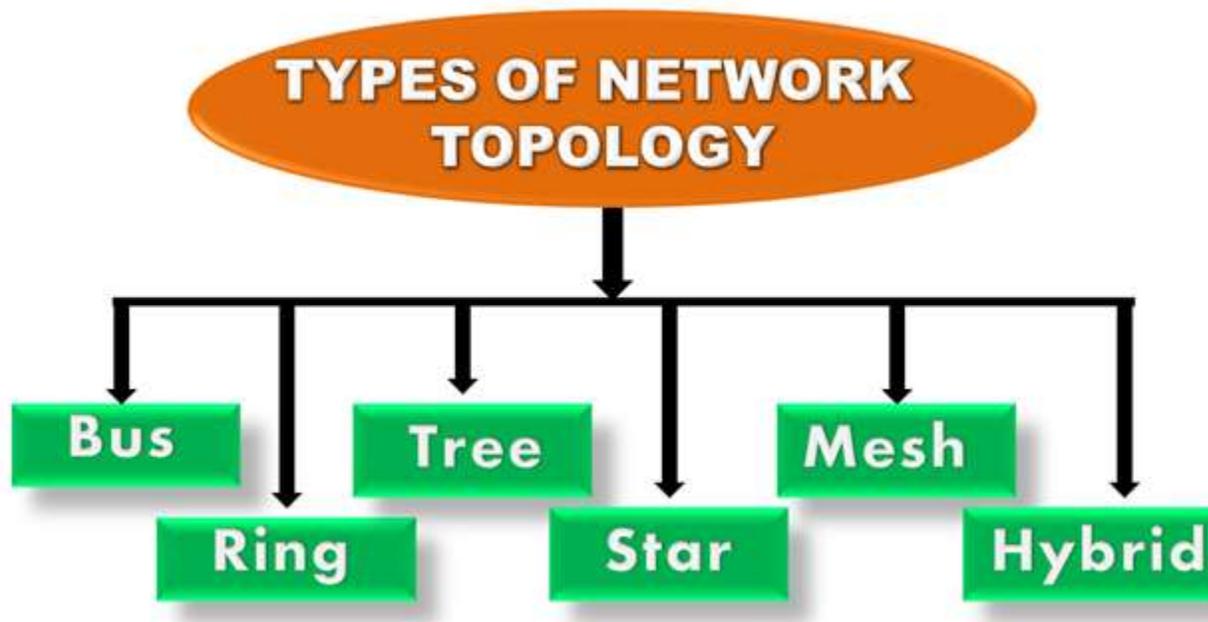
- **Communication:** It provides a cheap and easy communication. An employee of the organization can communicate with another employee through email, chat.
- **Time-saving:** Information on the intranet is shared in real time, so it is time-saving.
- **Collaboration:** Collaboration is one of the most important advantage of the intranet. The information is distributed among the employees of the organization and can only be accessed by the authorized user.
- **Platform independency:** It is a neutral architecture as the computer can be connected to another device with different architecture.
- **Cost effective:** People can see the data and documents by using the browser and distributes the duplicate copies over the intranet. This leads to a reduction in the cost.



What is Topology?

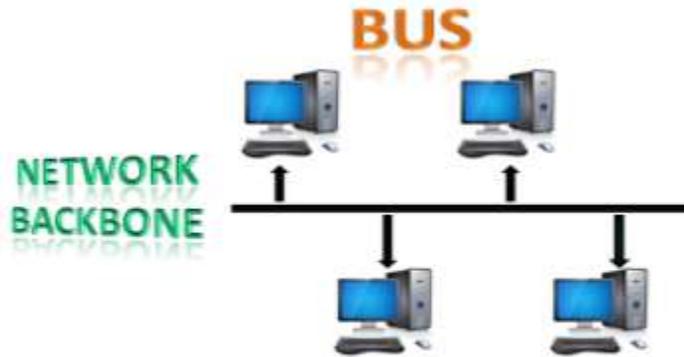
Topology defines the structure of the network of how all the components are interconnected to each other. There are two types of topology: physical and logical topology.

Physical topology is the geometric representation of all the nodes in a network.





Bus Topology



- The bus topology is designed in such a way that all the stations are connected through a single cable known as a backbone cable.
- Each node is either connected to the backbone cable by drop cable or directly connected to the backbone cable.
- When a node wants to send a message over the network, it puts a message over the network. All the stations available in the network will receive the message whether it has been addressed or not.
- The bus topology is mainly used in 802.3 (ethernet) and 802.4 standard networks.
- The configuration of a bus topology is quite simpler as compared to other topologies.
- The backbone cable is considered as a "**single lane**" through which the message is broadcast to all the stations.
- The most common access method of the bus topologies is **CSMA** (Carrier Sense Multiple Access).



CSMA: It is a media access control used to control the data flow so that data integrity is maintained, i.e., the packets do not get lost. There are two alternative ways of handling the problems that occur when two nodes send the messages simultaneously.

- **CSMA CD:** CSMA CD (**Collision detection**) is an access method used to detect the collision. Once the collision is detected, the sender will stop transmitting the data. Therefore, it works on "**recovery after the collision**".
- **CSMA CA:** CSMA CA (**Collision Avoidance**) is an access method used to avoid the collision by checking whether the transmission media is busy or not. If busy, then the sender waits until the media becomes idle. This technique effectively reduces the possibility of the collision. It does not work on "recovery after the collision".

Advantages of Bus topology:

- **Low-cost cable:** In bus topology, nodes are directly connected to the cable without passing through a hub. Therefore, the initial cost of installation is low.
- **Moderate data speeds:** Coaxial or twisted pair cables are mainly used in bus-based networks that support upto 10 Mbps.
- **Familiar technology:** Bus topology is a familiar technology as the installation and troubleshooting techniques are well known, and hardware components are easily available.
- **Limited failure:** A failure in one node will not have any effect on other nodes.

Disadvantages of Bus topology:

- **Extensive cabling:** A bus topology is quite simpler, but still it requires a lot of cabling.
- **Difficult troubleshooting:** It requires specialized test equipment to determine the cable faults. If any fault occurs in the cable, then it would disrupt the communication for all the nodes.



- **Signal interference:** If two nodes send the messages simultaneously, then the signals of both the nodes collide with each other.
 - **Reconfiguration difficult:** Adding new devices to the network would slow down the network.
 - **Attenuation:** Attenuation is a loss of signal leads to communication issues. Repeaters are used to regenerate the signal.
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Ring Topology



- Ring topology is like a bus topology, but with connected ends.
- The node that receives the message from the previous computer will retransmit to the next node.
- The data flows in one direction, i.e., it is unidirectional.
- The data flows in a single loop continuously known as an endless loop.
- It has no terminated ends, i.e., each node is connected to other node and having no termination point.



- The data in a ring topology flow in a clockwise direction.
- The most common access method of the ring topology is **token passing**.
 - **Token passing:** It is a network access method in which token is passed from one node to another node.
 - **Token:** It is a frame that circulates around the network.

Working of Token passing

- A token moves around the network, and it is passed from computer to computer until it reaches the destination.
- The sender modifies the token by putting the address along with the data.
- The data is passed from one device to another device until the destination address matches. Once the token received by the destination device, then it sends the acknowledgment to the sender.
- In a ring topology, a token is used as a carrier.

Advantages of Ring topology:

- **Network Management:** Faulty devices can be removed from the network without bringing the network down.
- **Product availability:** Many hardware and software tools for network operation and monitoring are available.
- **Cost:** Twisted pair cabling is inexpensive and easily available. Therefore, the installation cost is very low.
- **Reliable:** It is a more reliable network because the communication system is not dependent on the single host computer.



Disadvantages of Ring topology:

- **Difficult troubleshooting:** It requires specialized test equipment to determine the cable faults. If any fault occurs in the cable, then it would disrupt the communication for all the nodes.
- **Failure:** The breakdown in one station leads to the failure of the overall network.
- **Reconfiguration difficult:** Adding new devices to the network would slow down the network.
- **Delay:** Communication delay is directly proportional to the number of nodes. Adding new devices increases the communication delay.

Star Topology



- Star topology is an arrangement of the network in which every node is connected to the central hub, switch or a central computer.



- The central computer is known as a **server**, and the peripheral devices attached to the server are known as **clients**.
- Coaxial cable or RJ-45 cables are used to connect the computers.
- Hubs or Switches are mainly used as connection devices in a **physical star topology**.
- Star topology is the most popular topology in network implementation.

Advantages of Star topology

- **Efficient troubleshooting:** Troubleshooting is quite efficient in a star topology as compared to bus topology. In a bus topology, the manager has to inspect the kilometers of cable. In a star topology, all the stations are connected to the centralized network. Therefore, the network administrator has to go to the single station to troubleshoot the problem.
- **Network control:** Complex network control features can be easily implemented in the star topology. Any changes made in the star topology are automatically accommodated.
- **Limited failure:** As each station is connected to the central hub with its own cable, therefore failure in one cable will not affect the entire network.
- **Familiar technology:** Star topology is a familiar technology as its tools are cost-effective.
- **Easily expandable:** It is easily expandable as new stations can be added to the open ports on the hub.
- **Cost effective:** Star topology networks are cost-effective as it uses inexpensive coaxial cable.
- **High data speeds:** It supports a bandwidth of approx 100Mbps. Ethernet 100BaseT is one of the most popular Star topology networks.

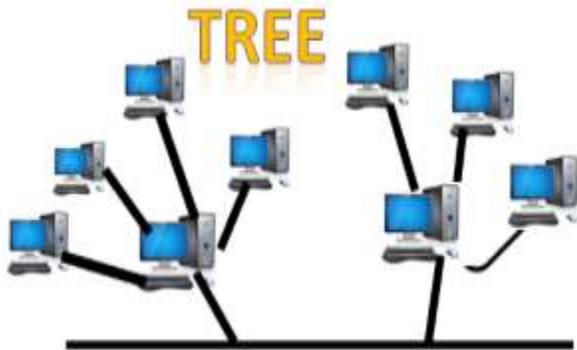
Disadvantages of Star topology

- **A Central point of failure:** If the central hub or switch goes down, then all the connected nodes will not be able to communicate with each other.



- **Cable:** Sometimes cable routing becomes difficult when a significant amount of routing is required.

Tree topology



- Tree topology combines the characteristics of bus topology and star topology.
- A tree topology is a type of structure in which all the computers are connected with each other in hierarchical fashion.
- The top-most node in tree topology is known as a root node, and all other nodes are the descendants of the root node.
- There is only one path exists between two nodes for the data transmission. Thus, it forms a parent-child hierarchy.

Advantages of Tree topology



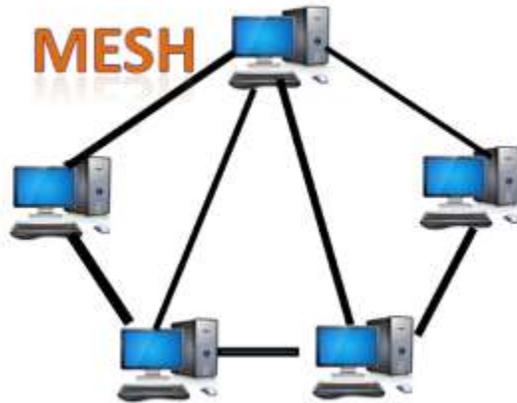
- **Support for broadband transmission:** Tree topology is mainly used to provide broadband transmission, i.e., signals are sent over long distances without being attenuated.
- **Easily expandable:** We can add the new device to the existing network. Therefore, we can say that tree topology is easily expandable.
- **Easily manageable:** In tree topology, the whole network is divided into segments known as star networks which can be easily managed and maintained.
- **Error detection:** Error detection and error correction are very easy in a tree topology.
- **Limited failure:** The breakdown in one station does not affect the entire network.
- **Point-to-point wiring:** It has point-to-point wiring for individual segments.

Disadvantages of Tree topology

- **Difficult troubleshooting:** If any fault occurs in the node, then it becomes difficult to troubleshoot the problem.
 - **High cost:** Devices required for broadband transmission are very costly.
 - **Failure:** A tree topology mainly relies on main bus cable and failure in main bus cable will damage the overall network.
 - **Reconfiguration difficult:** If new devices are added, then it becomes difficult to reconfigure.
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Mesh topology



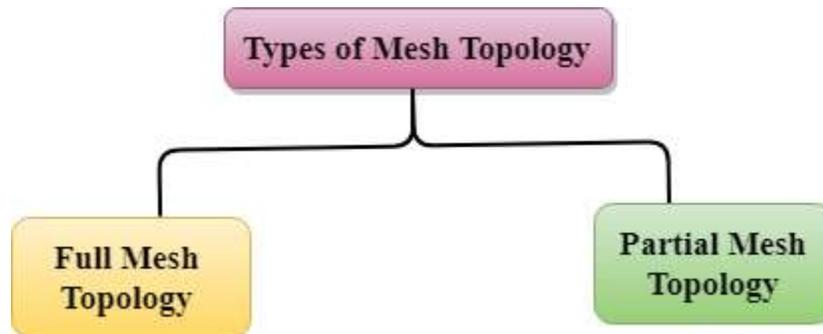
- Mesh technology is an arrangement of the network in which computers are interconnected with each other through various redundant connections.
- There are multiple paths from one computer to another computer.
- It does not contain the switch, hub or any central computer which acts as a central point of communication.
- The Internet is an example of the mesh topology.
- Mesh topology is mainly used for WAN implementations where communication failures are a critical concern.
- Mesh topology is mainly used for wireless networks.
- Mesh topology can be formed by using the formula:
Number of cables = $(n*(n-1))/2$;

Where n is the number of nodes that represents the network.

Mesh topology is divided into two categories:



- Fully connected mesh topology
- Partially connected mesh topology



- **Full Mesh Topology:** In a full mesh topology, each computer is connected to all the computers available in the network.
- **Partial Mesh Topology:** In a partial mesh topology, not all but certain computers are connected to those computers with which they communicate frequently.

Advantages of Mesh topology:

Reliable: The mesh topology networks are very reliable as if any link breakdown will not affect the communication between connected computers.

Fast Communication: Communication is very fast between the nodes.

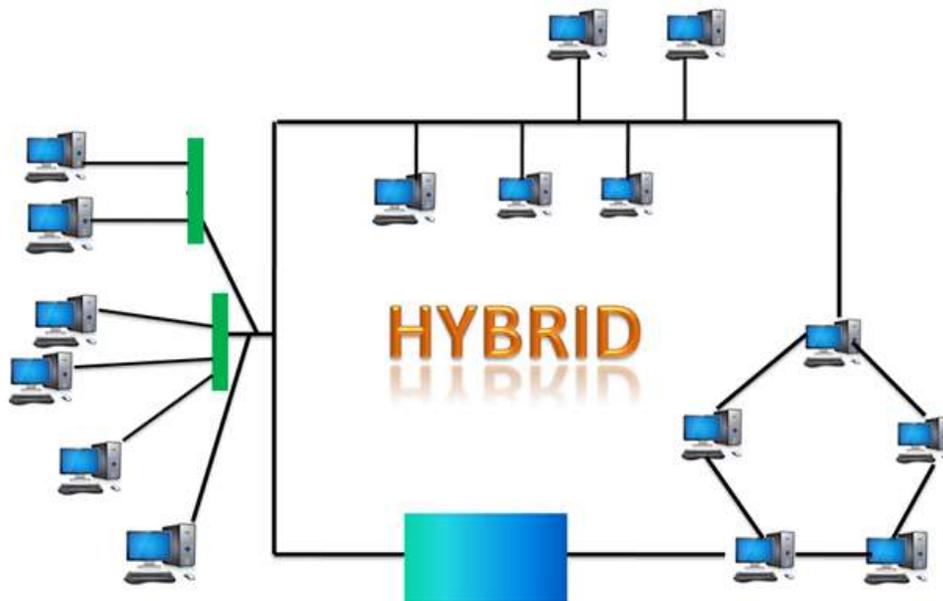
Easier Reconfiguration: Adding new devices would not disrupt the communication between other devices.

Disadvantages of Mesh topology



- **Cost:** A mesh topology contains a large number of connected devices such as a router and more transmission media than other topologies.
- **Management:** Mesh topology networks are very large and very difficult to maintain and manage. If the network is not monitored carefully, then the communication link failure goes undetected.
- **Efficiency:** In this topology, redundant connections are high that reduces the efficiency of the network.

Hybrid Topology





- The combination of various different topologies is known as **Hybrid topology**.
- A Hybrid topology is a connection between different links and nodes to transfer the data.
- When two or more different topologies are combined together is termed as Hybrid topology and if similar topologies are connected with each other will not result in Hybrid topology. For example, if there exist a ring topology in one branch of ICICI bank and bus topology in another branch of ICICI bank, connecting these two topologies will result in Hybrid topology.

Advantages of Hybrid Topology

- **Reliable:** If a fault occurs in any part of the network will not affect the functioning of the rest of the network.
- **Scalable:** Size of the network can be easily expanded by adding new devices without affecting the functionality of the existing network.
- **Flexible:** This topology is very flexible as it can be designed according to the requirements of the organization.
- **Effective:** Hybrid topology is very effective as it can be designed in such a way that the strength of the network is maximized and weakness of the network is minimized.

Disadvantages of Hybrid topology

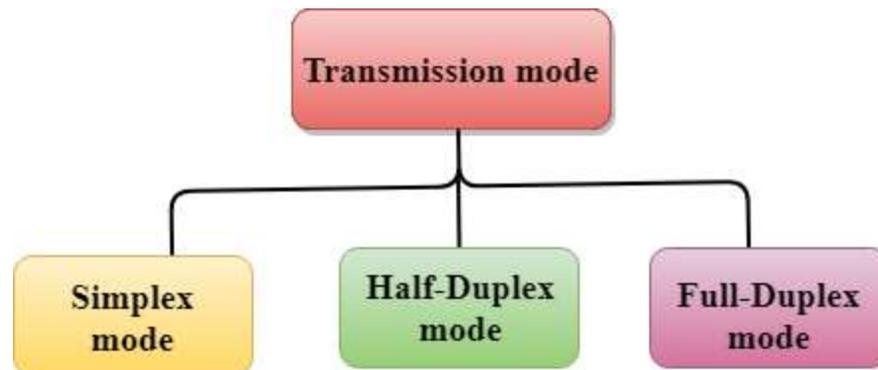
- **Complex design:** The major drawback of the Hybrid topology is the design of the Hybrid network. It is very difficult to design the architecture of the Hybrid network.
- **Costly Hub:** The Hubs used in the Hybrid topology are very expensive as these hubs are different from usual Hubs used in other topologies.
- **Costly infrastructure:** The infrastructure cost is very high as a hybrid network requires a lot of cabling, network devices, etc.



Transmission modes

- The way in which data is transmitted from one device to another device is known as **transmission mode**.
- The transmission mode is also known as the communication mode.
- Each communication channel has a direction associated with it, and transmission media provide the direction. Therefore, the transmission mode is also known as a directional mode.
- The transmission mode is defined in the physical layer.

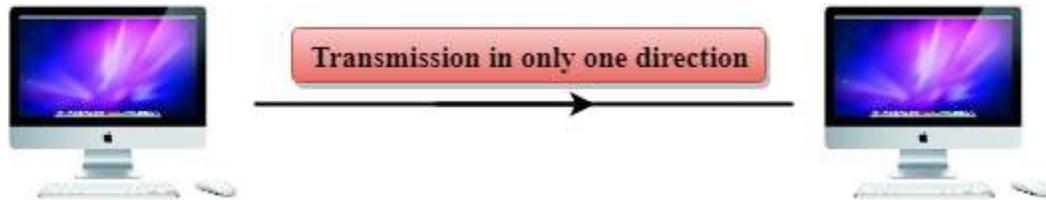
The Transmission mode is divided into three categories:



- Simplex mode
 - Half-duplex mode
 - Full-duplex mode
-



Simplex mode



- In Simplex mode, the communication is unidirectional, i.e., the data flow in one direction.
- A device can only send the data but cannot receive it or it can receive the data but cannot send the data.
- This transmission mode is not very popular as mainly communications require the two-way exchange of data. The simplex mode is used in the business field as in sales that do not require any corresponding reply.
- The radio station is a simplex channel as it transmits the signal to the listeners but never allows them to transmit back.
- Keyboard and Monitor are the examples of the simplex mode as a keyboard can only accept the data from the user and monitor can only be used to display the data on the screen.
- The main advantage of the simplex mode is that the full capacity of the communication channel can be utilized during transmission.

Advantage of Simplex mode:

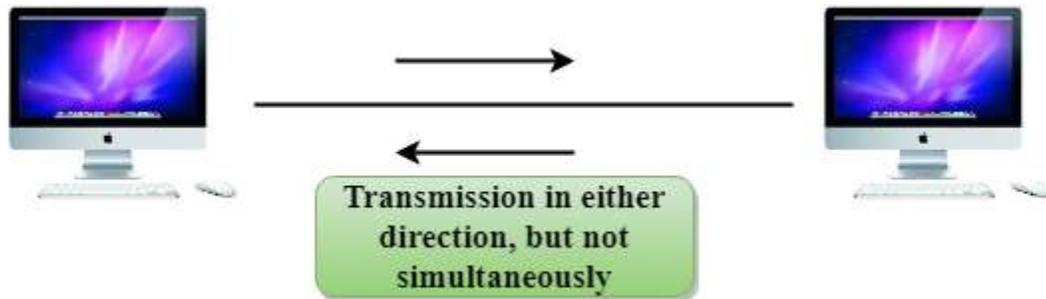
- In simplex mode, the station can utilize the entire bandwidth of the communication channel, so that more data can be transmitted at a time.



Disadvantage of Simplex mode:

- Communication is unidirectional, so it has no inter-communication between devices.

Half-Duplex mode



- In a Half-duplex channel, direction can be reversed, i.e., the station can transmit and receive the data as well.
- Messages flow in both the directions, but not at the same time.
- The entire bandwidth of the communication channel is utilized in one direction at a time.
- In half-duplex mode, it is possible to perform the error detection, and if any error occurs, then the receiver requests the sender to retransmit the data.
- A **Walkie-talkie** is an example of the Half-duplex mode. In Walkie-talkie, one party speaks, and another party listens. After a pause, the other speaks and first party listens. Speaking simultaneously will create the distorted sound which cannot be understood.

Advantage of Half-duplex mode:

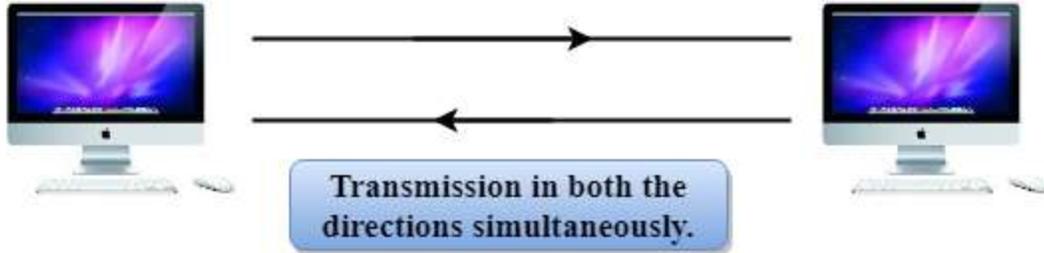


- In half-duplex mode, both the devices can send and receive the data and also can utilize the entire bandwidth of the communication channel during the transmission of data.

Disadvantage of Half-Duplex mode:

- In half-duplex mode, when one device is sending the data, then another has to wait, this causes the delay in sending the data at the right time.

Full-duplex mode



- In Full duplex mode, the communication is bi-directional, i.e., the data flow in both the directions.
- Both the stations can send and receive the message simultaneously.
- Full-duplex mode has two simplex channels. One channel has traffic moving in one direction, and another channel has traffic flowing in the opposite direction.
- The Full-duplex mode is the fastest mode of communication between devices.



Differences b/w Simplex, Half-duplex and Full-duplex mode

Basis for comparison	Simplex mode	Half-duplex mode	Full-duplex mode
Direction of communication	In simplex mode, the communication is unidirectional.	In half-duplex mode, the communication is bidirectional, but one at a time.	In full-duplex mode, the communication is bidirectional.
Send/Receive	A device can only send the data but cannot receive it or it can only receive the data but cannot send it.	Both the devices can send and receive the data, but one at a time.	Both the devices can send and receive the data simultaneously.
Performance	The performance of half-duplex mode is better than the simplex mode.	The performance of full-duplex mode is better than the half-duplex mode.	The Full-duplex mode has better performance among simplex and half-duplex mode as it doubles the utilization



			of the capacity of the communication channel.
Example	Examples of Simplex mode are radio, keyboard, and monitor.	Example of half-duplex is Walkie-Talkies.	Example of the Full-duplex mode is a telephone

Computer Network Models

A communication subsystem is a complex piece of Hardware and software. Early attempts for implementing the software for such subsystems were based on a single, complex, unstructured program with many interacting components. The resultant software was very difficult to test and modify. To overcome such problem, the ISO has developed a layered approach. In a layered approach, networking concept is divided into several layers, and each layer is assigned a particular task. Therefore, we can say that networking tasks depend upon the layers.

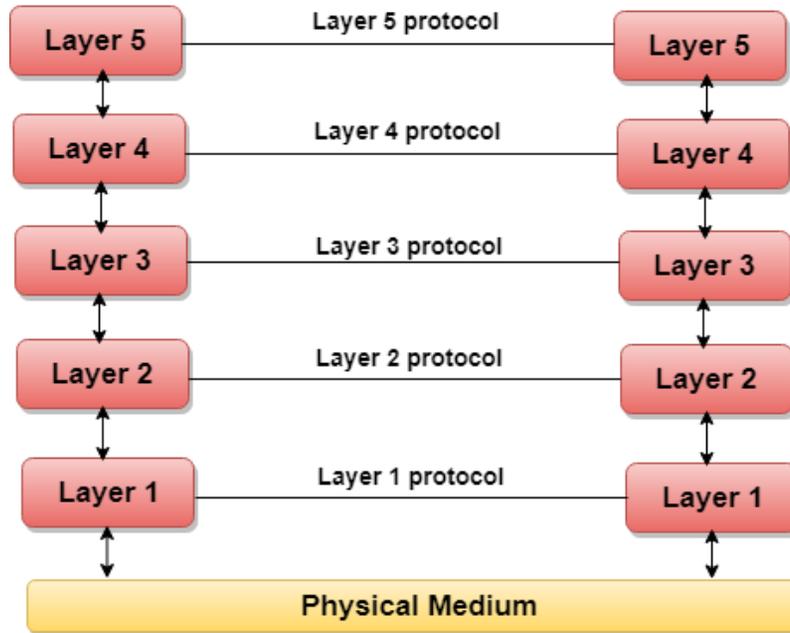
Layered Architecture

- The main aim of the layered architecture is to divide the design into small pieces.
- Each lower layer adds its services to the higher layer to provide a full set of services to manage communications and run the applications.
- It provides modularity and clear interfaces, i.e., provides interaction between subsystems.
- It ensures the independence between layers by providing the services from lower to higher layer without defining how the services are implemented. Therefore, any modification in a layer will not affect the other layers.



- The number of layers, functions, contents of each layer will vary from network to network. However, the purpose of each layer is to provide the service from lower to a higher layer and hiding the details from the layers of how the services are implemented.
- The basic elements of layered architecture are services, protocols, and interfaces.
 - **Service:** It is a set of actions that a layer provides to the higher layer.
 - **Protocol:** It defines a set of rules that a layer uses to exchange the information with peer entity. These rules mainly concern about both the contents and order of the messages used.
 - **Interface:** It is a way through which the message is transferred from one layer to another layer.
- In a layer n architecture, layer n on one machine will have a communication with the layer n on another machine and the rules used in a conversation are known as a layer-n protocol.

Let's take an example of the five-layered architecture.



- In case of layered architecture, no data is transferred from layer n of one machine to layer n of another machine. Instead, each layer passes the data to the layer immediately just below it, until the lowest layer is reached.
- Below layer 1 is the physical medium through which the actual communication takes place.
- In a layered architecture, unmanageable tasks are divided into several small and manageable tasks.
- The data is passed from the upper layer to lower layer through an interface. A Layered architecture provides a clean-cut interface so that minimum information is shared among different layers. It also ensures that the implementation of one layer can be easily replaced by another implementation.
- A set of layers and protocols is known as network architecture.

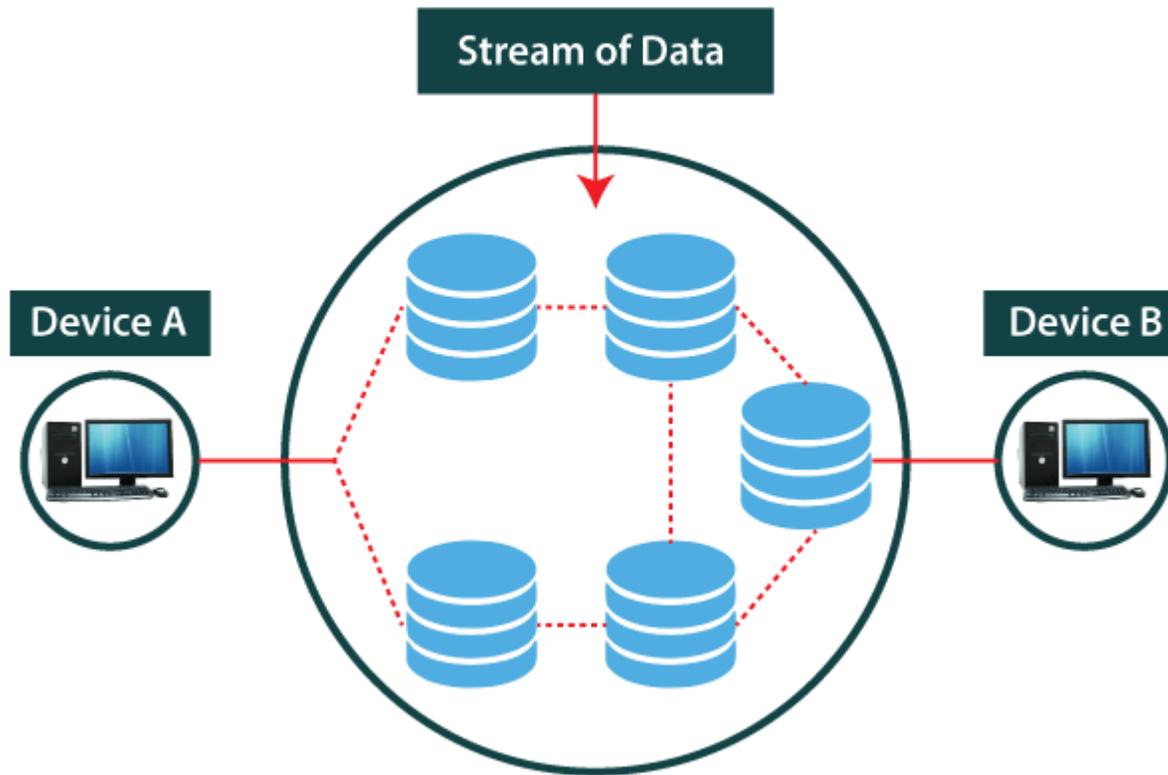


Why do we require Layered architecture?

- **Divide-and-conquer approach:** Divide-and-conquer approach makes a design process in such a way that the unmanageable tasks are divided into small and manageable tasks. In short, we can say that this approach reduces the complexity of the design.
- **Modularity:** Layered architecture is more modular. Modularity provides the independence of layers, which is easier to understand and implement.
- **Easy to modify:** It ensures the independence of layers so that implementation in one layer can be changed without affecting other layers.
- **Easy to test:** Each layer of the layered architecture can be analyzed and tested individually.
- **Difference between Connection-Oriented and Connectionless Service**
- Data communication is a telecommunication network to send and receive data between two or more computers over the same or different network. There are two ways to establish a connection before sending data from one device to another, that are **Connection-Oriented** and **Connectionless Service**. Connection-oriented service involves the creation and termination of the connection for sending the data between two or more devices. In contrast, connectionless service does not require establishing any connection and termination process for transferring the data over a network.
- **Connection-Oriented Service**
- A connection-oriented service is a network service that was designed and developed after the telephone system. A connection-oriented service is used to create an end to end connection between the sender and the receiver before transmitting the data over the same or different networks. In connection-oriented service, packets are transmitted to the receiver in the same order the sender has sent them. It uses a handshake method that creates a connection between the user and sender for transmitting the data over the network. Hence it is also known as a reliable network service.



Connection-oriented Communication



○

What is a TCP?

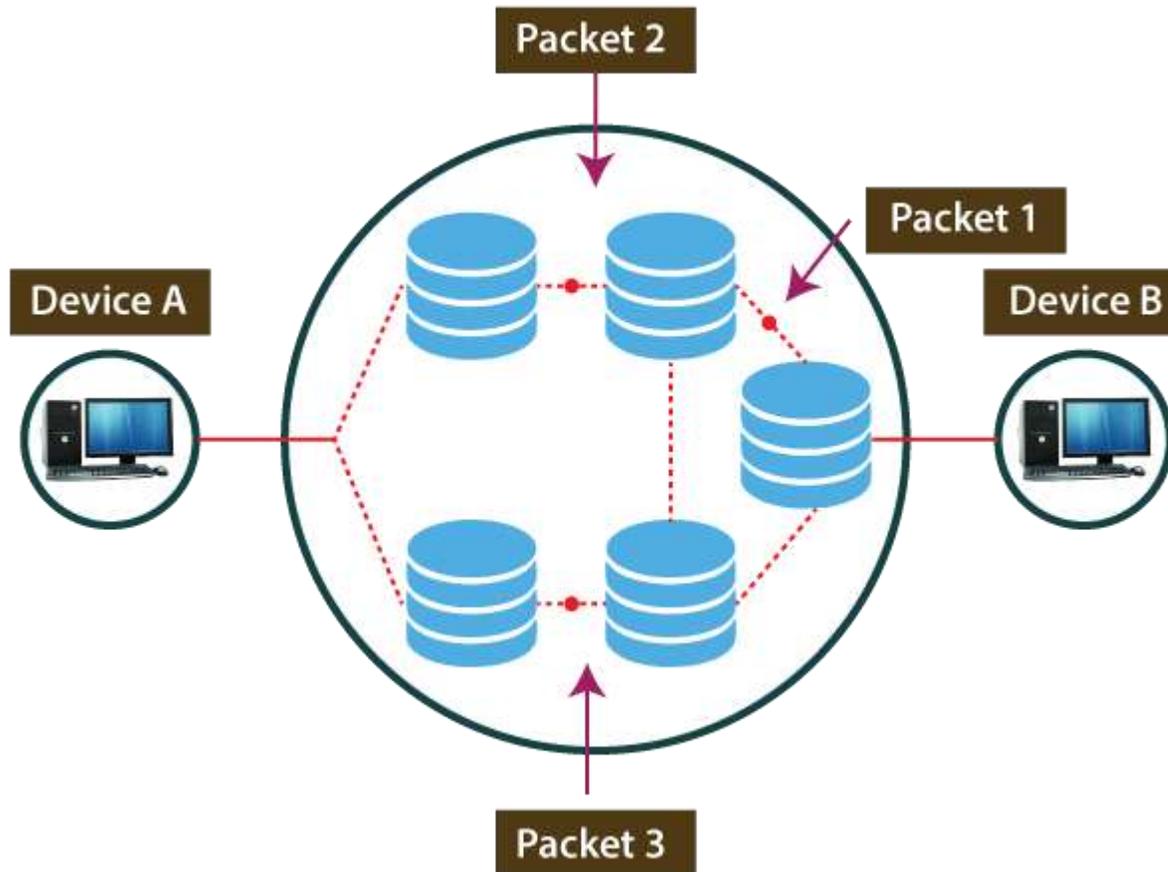
- TCP (Transmission Control Protocol) is a connection-oriented protocol that allows communication between two or more computer devices by establishing connections in the same or different networks. It is the most important protocol that uses **internet protocol** to transfer the data from one end to another. Hence, it is



sometimes referred to as TCP/IP. It ensures that the connection is established and maintained until the data packet is transferring between the sender and receiver is complete.

- **Connectionless Service**
- A connection is similar to a **postal system**, in which each letter takes along different route paths from the source to the destination address. Connectionless service is used in the network system to transfer data from one end to another end without creating any connection. So it does not require establishing a connection before sending the data from the sender to the receiver. It is not a reliable network service because it does not guarantee the transfer of data packets to the receiver, and data packets can be received in any order to the receiver. Therefore we can say that the data packet does not follow a **defined** path. In connectionless service, the transmitted data packet is not received by the receiver due to network congestion, and the data may be lost.

Connectionless Communication



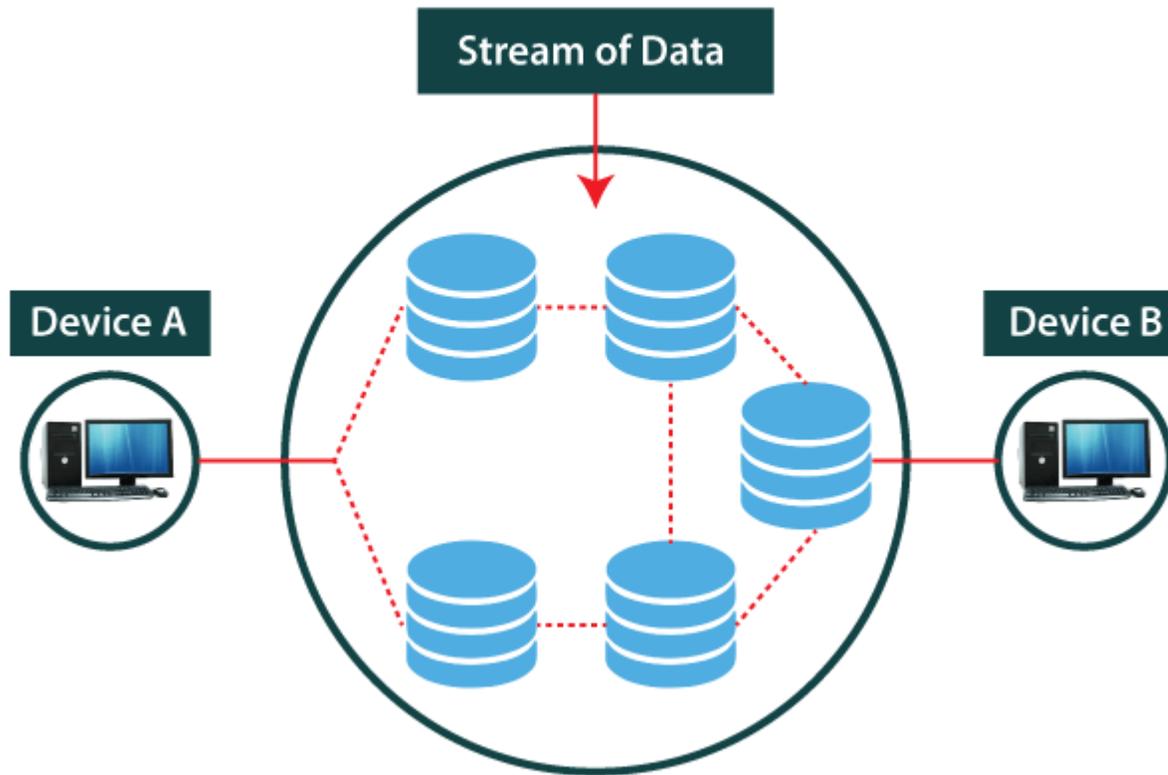
- For example, a sender can directly send any data to the receiver without establishing any connection because it is a connectionless service. Data sent by the sender will be in the packet or data streams containing the receiver's address. In connectionless service, the data can be travelled and received in any order. However, it does not guarantee to transfer of the packets to the right destination.
- What is UDP?



- The UDP (User Datagram Protocol) is a connectionless protocol that allows communication between two or more devices without establishing any connection. In this protocol, a sender sends the data packets to the receiver that holds the destination address. A UDP does not ensure to deliver the data packets to the correct destination, and it does not generate any acknowledgment about the sender's data. Similarly, it does not acknowledge the receiver about the data. Hence, it is an unreliable protocol.
- **Connection-Oriented vs Connectionless Service**
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Connection-oriented Communication



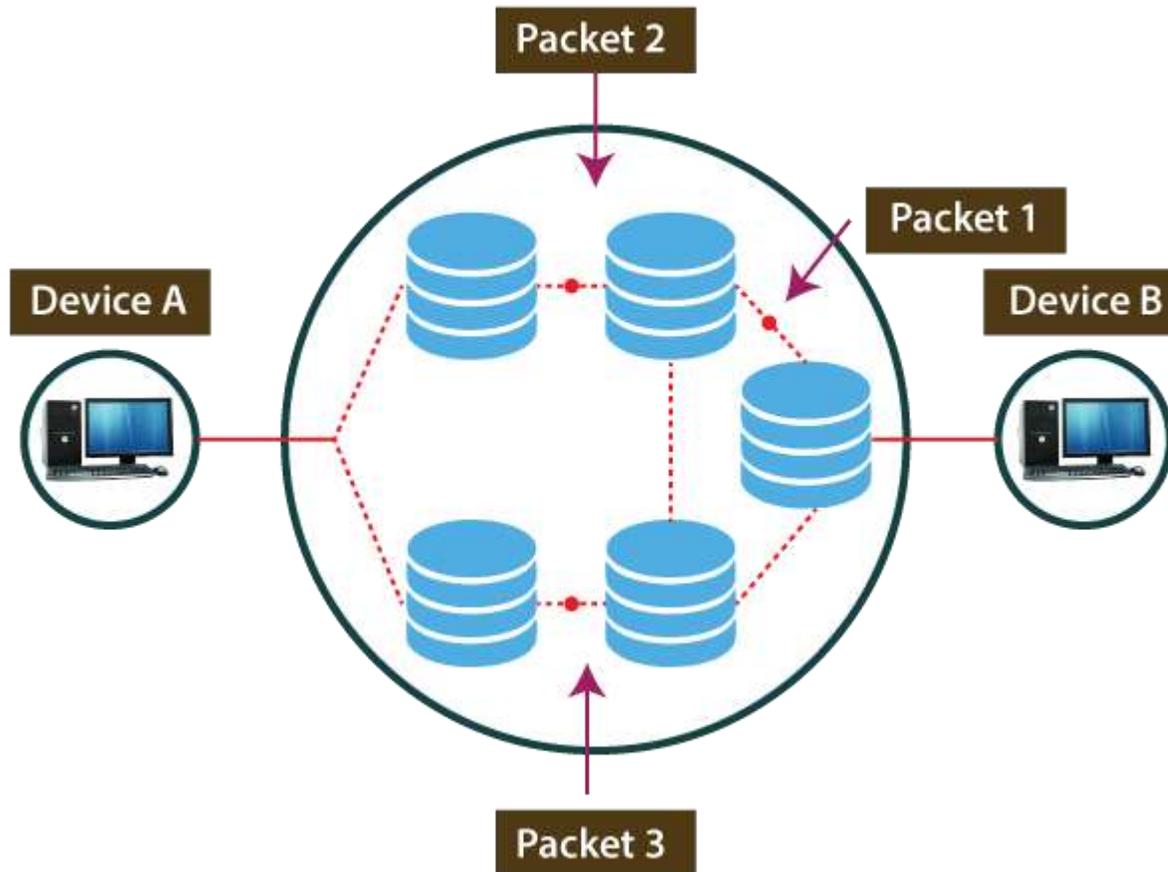
- Suppose, a sender wants to send data to the receiver. Then, first, the sender sends a request packet to a receiver in the form of an **SYN** packet. After that, the receiver responds to the sender's request with an (SYN-ACK) signal/packets. That represents the confirmation is received by the receiver to start the communication between the sender and the receiver. Now a sender can send the message or data to the receiver.



- Similarly, a receiver can respond or send the data to the sender in the form of packets. After successfully exchanging or transmitting data, a sender can terminate the connection by sending a signal to the receiver. In this way, we can say that it is a reliable network service.
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Unit :2 Network Models

Computer Network Models

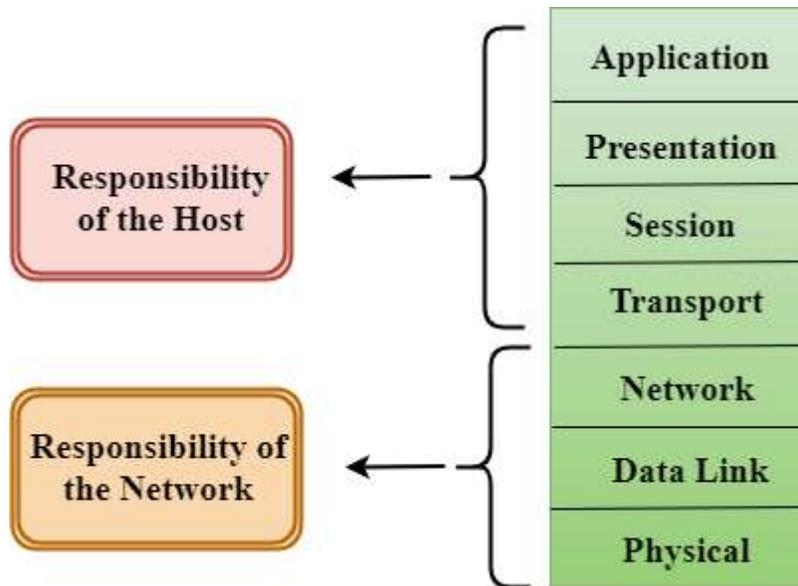
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OSI Model

- OSI stands for **Open System Interconnection** is a reference model that describes how information from a software application in one computer moves through a physical medium to the software application in another computer.
- OSI consists of seven layers, and each layer performs a particular network function.
- OSI model was developed by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) in 1984, and it is now considered as an architectural model for the inter-computer communications.
- OSI model divides the whole task into seven smaller and manageable tasks. Each layer is assigned a particular task.
- Each layer is self-contained, so that task assigned to each layer can be performed independently.

Characteristics of OSI Model:



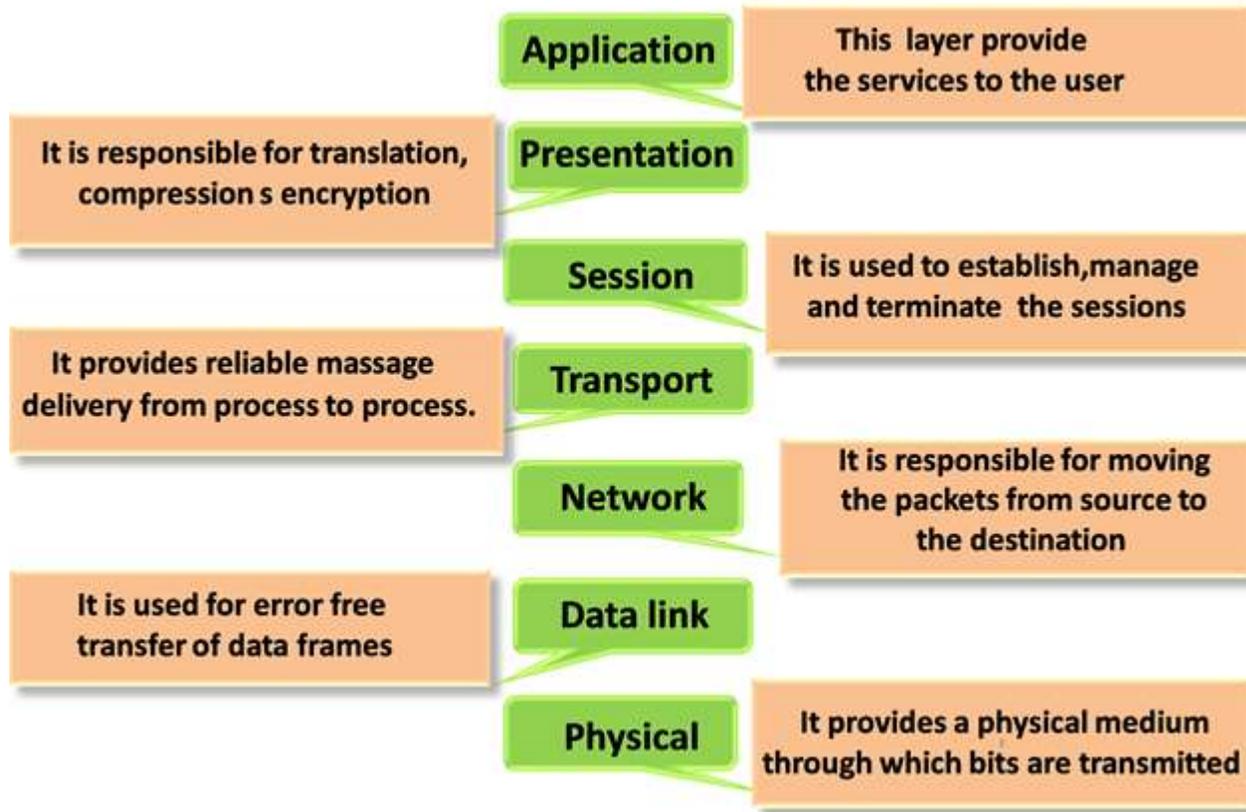
- The OSI model is divided into two layers: upper layers and lower layers.
- The upper layer of the OSI model mainly deals with the application related issues, and they are implemented only in the software. The application layer is closest to the end user. Both the end user and the application layer interact with the software applications. An upper layer refers to the layer just above another layer.
- The lower layer of the OSI model deals with the data transport issues. The data link layer and the physical layer are implemented in hardware and software. The physical layer is the lowest layer of the OSI model and is closest to the physical medium. The physical layer is mainly responsible for placing the information on the physical medium.

Functions of the OSI Layers

There are the seven OSI layers. Each layer has different functions. A list of seven layers are given below:

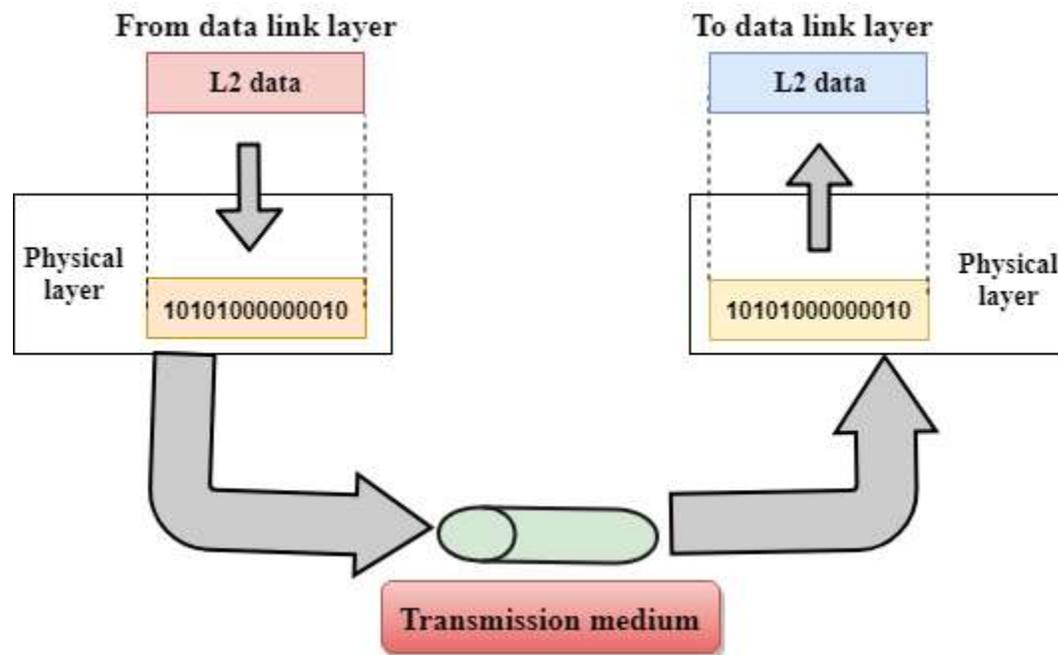


1. Physical Layer
2. Data-Link Layer
3. Network Layer
4. Transport Layer
5. Session Layer
6. Presentation Layer
7. Application Layer





Physical layer



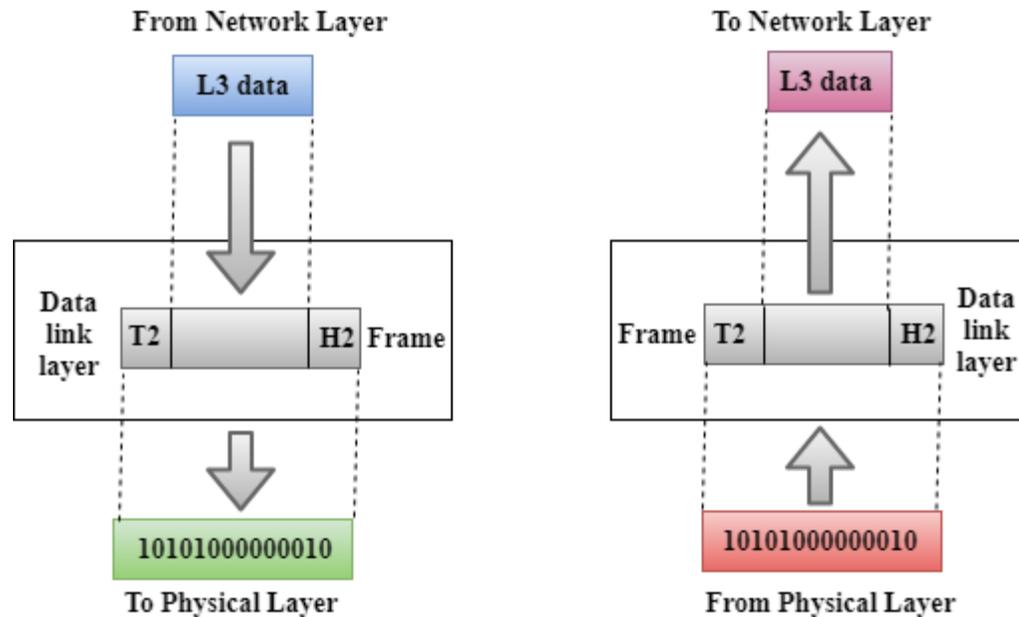
- The main functionality of the physical layer is to transmit the individual bits from one node to another node.
- It is the lowest layer of the OSI model.
- It establishes, maintains and deactivates the physical connection.
- It specifies the mechanical, electrical and procedural network interface specifications.

Functions of a Physical layer:



- **Line Configuration:** It defines the way how two or more devices can be connected physically.
- **Data Transmission:** It defines the transmission mode whether it is simplex, half-duplex or full-duplex mode between the two devices on the network.
- **Topology:** It defines the way how network devices are arranged.
- **Signals:** It determines the type of the signal used for transmitting the information.

Data-Link Layer



- This layer is responsible for the error-free transfer of data frames.
- It defines the format of the data on the network.
- It provides a reliable and efficient communication between two or more devices.



- It is mainly responsible for the unique identification of each device that resides on a local network.
- It contains two sub-layers:
 - **Logical Link Control Layer**
 - It is responsible for transferring the packets to the Network layer of the receiver that is receiving.
 - It identifies the address of the network layer protocol from the header.
 - It also provides flow control.
 - **Media Access Control Layer**
 - A Media access control layer is a link between the Logical Link Control layer and the network's physical layer.
 - It is used for transferring the packets over the network.

Functions of the Data-link layer

- **Framing:** The data link layer translates the physical's raw bit stream into packets known as Frames. The Data link layer adds the header and trailer to the frame. The header which is added to the frame contains the hardware destination and source address.

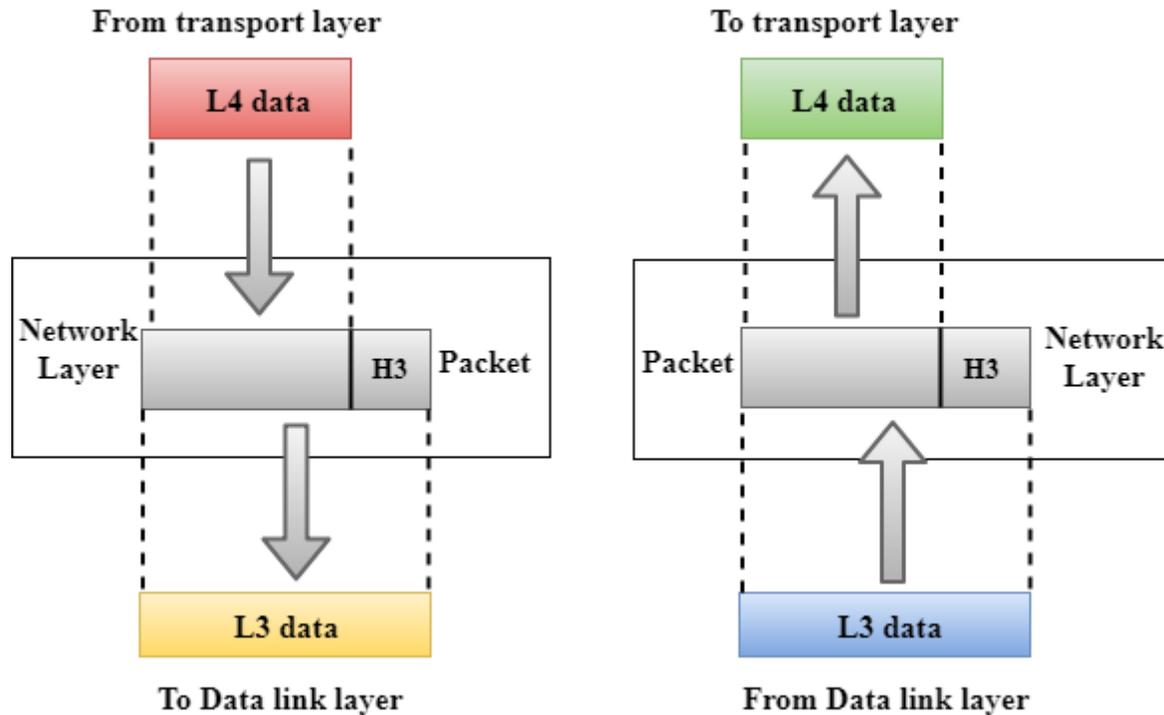


- **Physical Addressing:** The Data link layer adds a header to the frame that contains a destination address. The frame is transmitted to the destination address mentioned in the header.



- **Flow Control:** Flow control is the main functionality of the Data-link layer. It is the technique through which the constant data rate is maintained on both the sides so that no data get corrupted. It ensures that the transmitting station such as a server with higher processing speed does not exceed the receiving station, with lower processing speed.
- **Error Control:** Error control is achieved by adding a calculated value CRC (Cyclic Redundancy Check) that is placed to the Data link layer's trailer which is added to the message frame before it is sent to the physical layer. If any error seems to occur, then the receiver sends the acknowledgment for the retransmission of the corrupted frames.
- **Access Control:** When two or more devices are connected to the same communication channel, then the data link layer protocols are used to determine which device has control over the link at a given time.

Network Layer



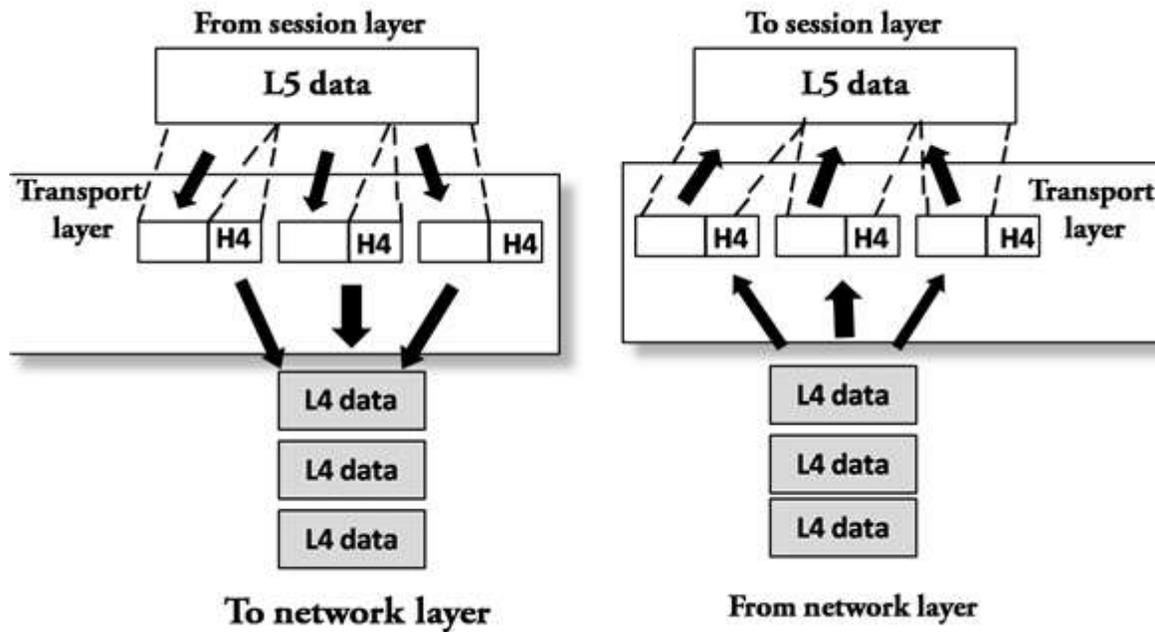
- It is a layer 3 that manages device addressing, tracks the location of devices on the network.
- It determines the best path to move data from source to the destination based on the network conditions, the priority of service, and other factors.
- The Data link layer is responsible for routing and forwarding the packets.
- Routers are the layer 3 devices, they are specified in this layer and used to provide the routing services within an internetwork.
- The protocols used to route the network traffic are known as Network layer protocols. Examples of protocols are IP and Ipv6.



Functions of Network Layer:

- **Internetworking:** An internetworking is the main responsibility of the network layer. It provides a logical connection between different devices.
- **Addressing:** A Network layer adds the source and destination address to the header of the frame. Addressing is used to identify the device on the internet.
- **Routing:** Routing is the major component of the network layer, and it determines the best optimal path out of the multiple paths from source to the destination.
- **Packetizing:** A Network Layer receives the packets from the upper layer and converts them into packets. This process is known as Packetizing. It is achieved by internet protocol (IP).

Transport Layer



- The Transport layer is a Layer 4 ensures that messages are transmitted in the order in which they are sent and there is no duplication of data.
- The main responsibility of the transport layer is to transfer the data completely.
- It receives the data from the upper layer and converts them into smaller units known as segments.
- This layer can be termed as an end-to-end layer as it provides a point-to-point connection between source and destination to deliver the data reliably.

The two protocols used in this layer are:

- **Transmission Control Protocol**



- It is a standard protocol that allows the systems to communicate over the internet.
- It establishes and maintains a connection between hosts.
- When data is sent over the TCP connection, then the TCP protocol divides the data into smaller units known as segments. Each segment travels over the internet using multiple routes, and they arrive in different orders at the destination. The transmission control protocol reorders the packets in the correct order at the receiving end.
- **User Datagram Protocol**
 - User Datagram Protocol is a transport layer protocol.
 - It is an unreliable transport protocol as in this case receiver does not send any acknowledgment when the packet is received, the sender does not wait for any acknowledgment. Therefore, this makes a protocol unreliable.

Functions of Transport Layer:

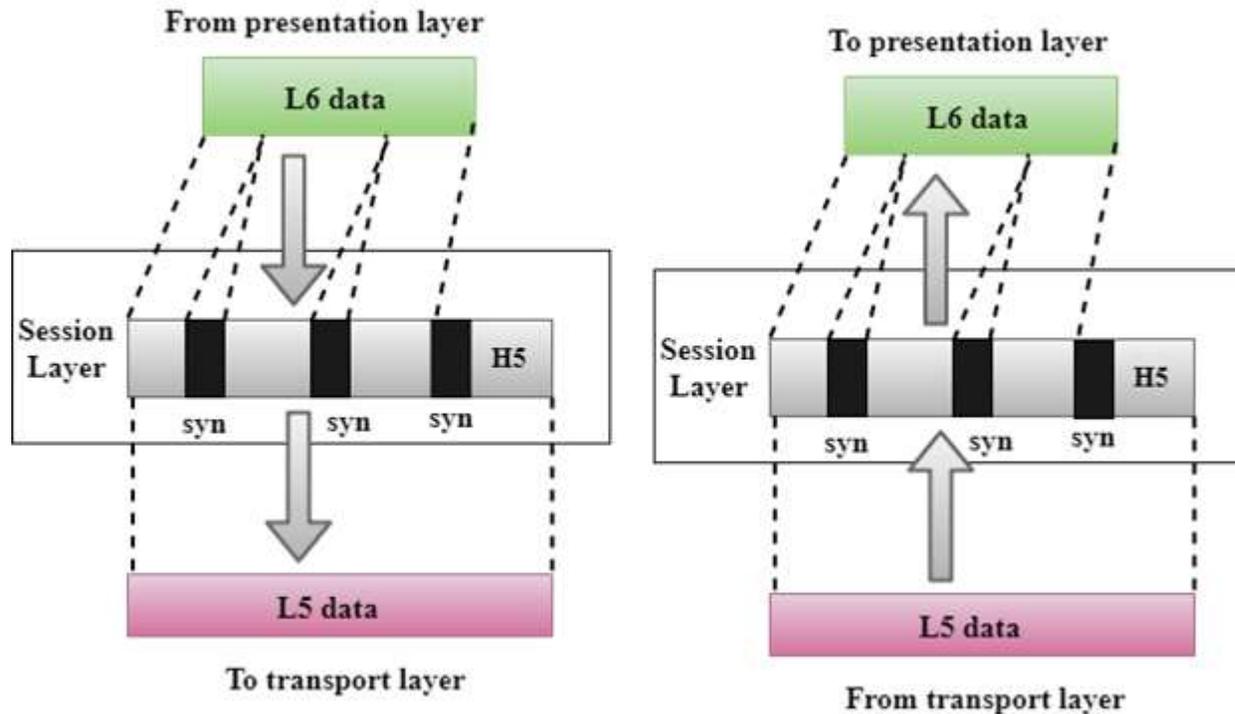
- **Service-point addressing:** Computers run several programs simultaneously due to this reason, the transmission of data from source to the destination not only from one computer to another computer but also from one process to another process. The transport layer adds the header that contains the address known as a service-point address or port address. The responsibility of the network layer is to transmit the data from one computer to another computer and the responsibility of the transport layer is to transmit the message to the correct process.
- **Segmentation and reassembly:** When the transport layer receives the message from the upper layer, it divides the message into multiple segments, and each segment is assigned with a sequence number that



uniquely identifies each segment. When the message has arrived at the destination, then the transport layer reassembles the message based on their sequence numbers.

- **Connection control:** Transport layer provides two services Connection-oriented service and connectionless service. A connectionless service treats each segment as an individual packet, and they all travel in different routes to reach the destination. A connection-oriented service makes a connection with the transport layer at the destination machine before delivering the packets. In connection-oriented service, all the packets travel in the single route.
- **Flow control:** The transport layer also responsible for flow control but it is performed end-to-end rather than across a single link.
- **Error control:** The transport layer is also responsible for Error control. Error control is performed end-to-end rather than across the single link. The sender transport layer ensures that message reach at the destination without any error.

Session Layer



- It is a layer 3 in the OSI model.
- The Session layer is used to establish, maintain and synchronizes the interaction between communicating devices.

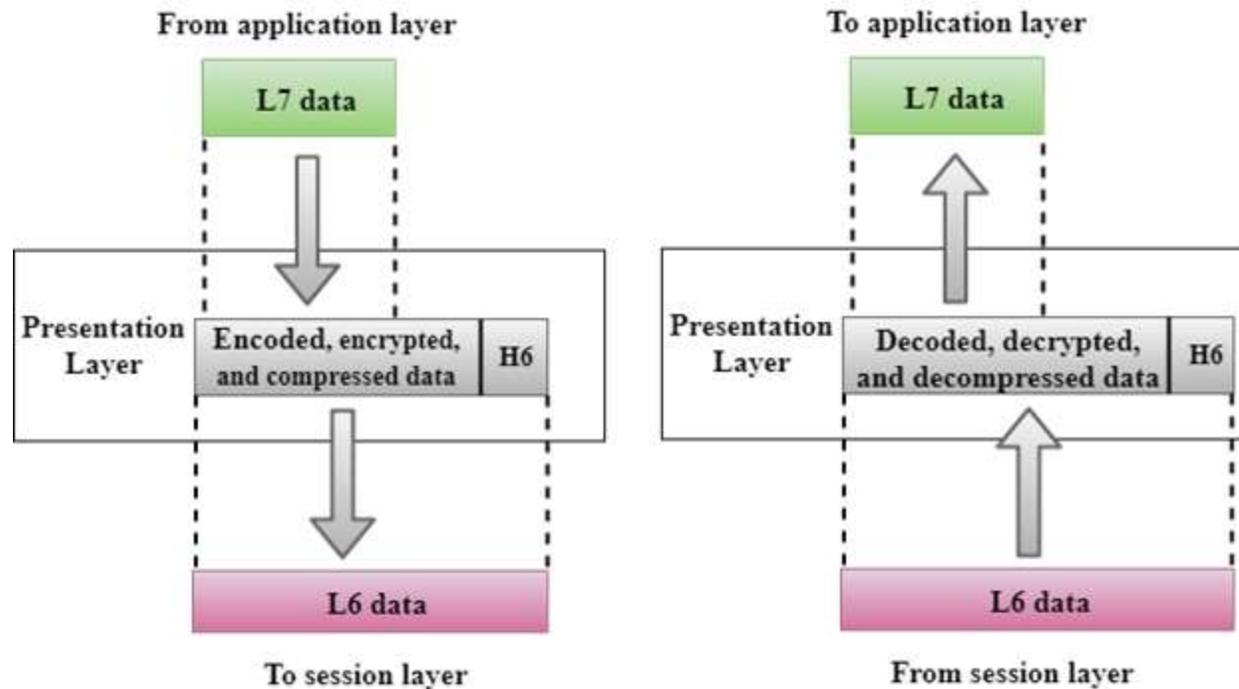
Functions of Session layer:

- **Dialog control:** Session layer acts as a dialog controller that creates a dialog between two processes or we can say that it allows the communication between two processes which can be either half-duplex or full-duplex.



- **Synchronization:** Session layer adds some checkpoints when transmitting the data in a sequence. If some error occurs in the middle of the transmission of data, then the transmission will take place again from the checkpoint. This process is known as Synchronization and recovery.

Presentation Layer



- A Presentation layer is mainly concerned with the syntax and semantics of the information exchanged between the two systems.
- It acts as a data translator for a network.

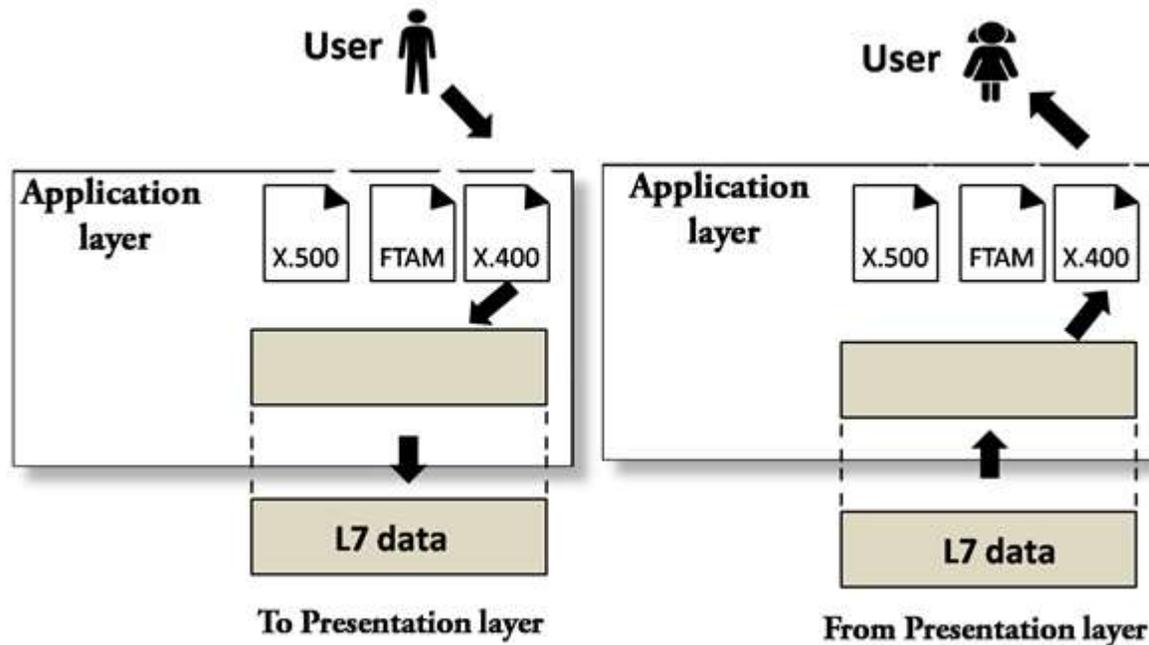


- This layer is a part of the operating system that converts the data from one presentation format to another format.
- The Presentation layer is also known as the syntax layer.

Functions of Presentation layer:

- **Translation:** The processes in two systems exchange the information in the form of character strings, numbers and so on. Different computers use different encoding methods, the presentation layer handles the interoperability between the different encoding methods. It converts the data from sender-dependent format into a common format and changes the common format into receiver-dependent format at the receiving end.
- **Encryption:** Encryption is needed to maintain privacy. Encryption is a process of converting the sender-transmitted information into another form and sends the resulting message over the network.
- **Compression:** Data compression is a process of compressing the data, i.e., it reduces the number of bits to be transmitted. Data compression is very important in multimedia such as text, audio, video.

Application Layer



- An application layer serves as a window for users and application processes to access network service.
- It handles issues such as network transparency, resource allocation, etc.
- An application layer is not an application, but it performs the application layer functions.
- This layer provides the network services to the end-users.

Functions of Application layer:

- **File transfer, access, and management (FTAM):** An application layer allows a user to access the files in a remote computer, to retrieve the files from a computer and to manage the files in a remote computer.

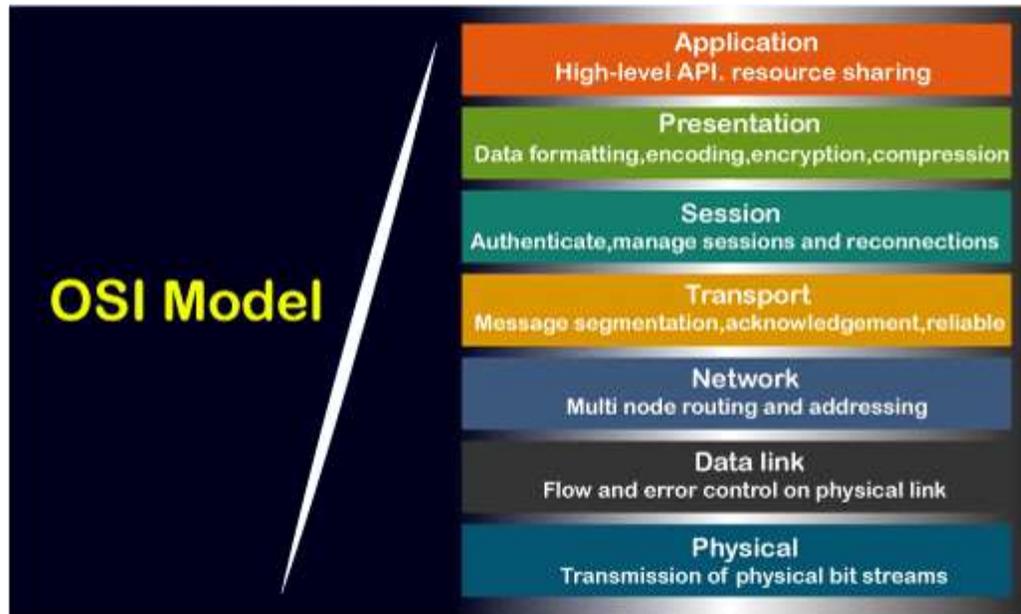


- **Mail services:** An application layer provides the facility for email forwarding and storage.
- Directory services: An application provides the distributed database sources and is used to provide that global information about various objects.
- **2.2 TCP/IP Reference Model, Comparison of OSI and TCP/IP**

OSI vs TCP/IP

What is OSI model?

The OSI stands for Open System Interconnection, which was developed in 1980s. It is a conceptual model used for network communication. It is not implemented entirely, but it is still referenced today. This OSI model consists of seven layers, and each layer is connected to each other. The data moves down the OSI model, and each layer adds additional information. The data moves down until it reaches the last layer of the OSI model. When the data is received at the last layer of the OSI model, then the data is transmitted over the network. Once the data is reached on the other side, then the process will get reversed.

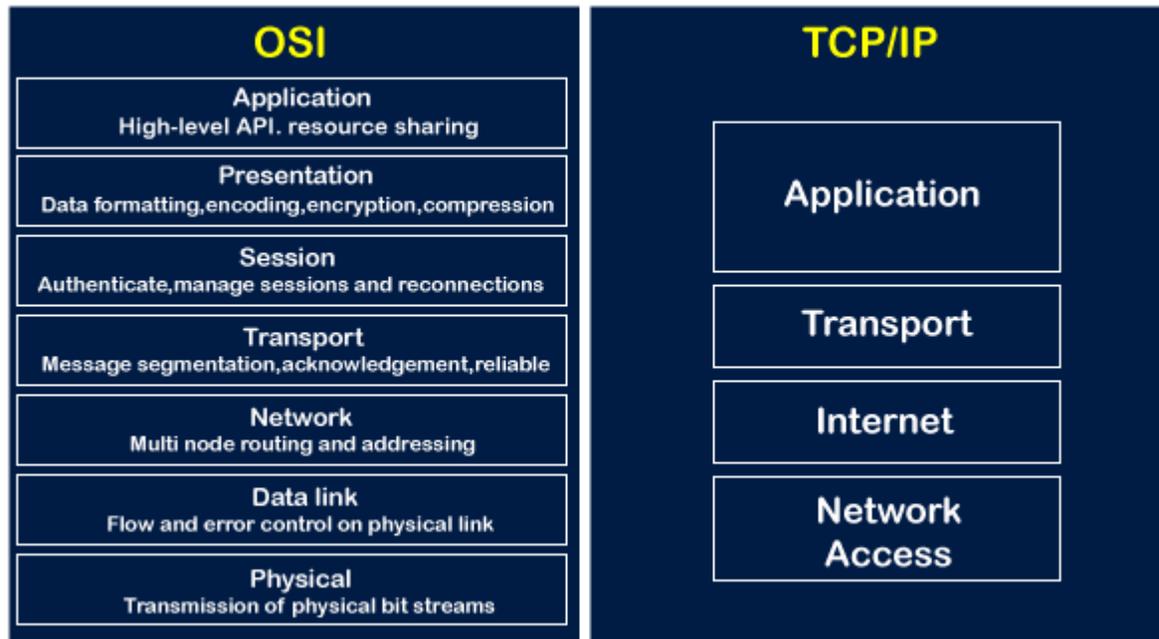


What is TCP/IP model?

The TCP model stands for **Transmission Control Protocol**, whereas IP stands for **Internet Protocol**. A number of protocols that make the internet possibly comes under the TCP/IP model. Nowadays, we do not hear the name of the TCP/IP model much, we generally hear the name of the IPv4 or IPv6, but it is still valid. This model consists of 4 layers. Now, we will look at the diagrammatic representation of the [TCP/IP model](#).



OSI Model & TCP/IP



As shown in the above diagram, the TCP/IP model has 4 layers, while the OSI model consists of 7 layers. Diagrammatically, it looks that the 4 layers of the TCP/IP model exactly fit the 7 layers of the OSI model, but this is not reality. The application layer of the [TCP/IP](#) model maps to the first three layers, i.e., application, session, and presentation layer of the OSI model. The transport layer of the TCP maps directly to the transport layer of the OSI model. The internet layer of the TCP/IP model maps directly to the network layer of the OSI model. The last two layers of the OSI model map to the network layer of the TCP/IP model. TCP/IP is the most widely used model as compared to the OSI model for providing communication between computers over the [internet](#).

Similarities between the OSI and TCP/IP model



The following are the similarities between the OSI and TCP/IP model:

- **Share common architecture**

Both the models are the logical models and having similar architectures as both the models are constructed with the layers.

- **Define standards**

Both the layers have defined standards, and they also provide the framework used for implementing the standards and devices.

- **Simplified troubleshooting process**

Both models have simplified the troubleshooting process by breaking the complex function into simpler components.

- **Pre-defined standards**

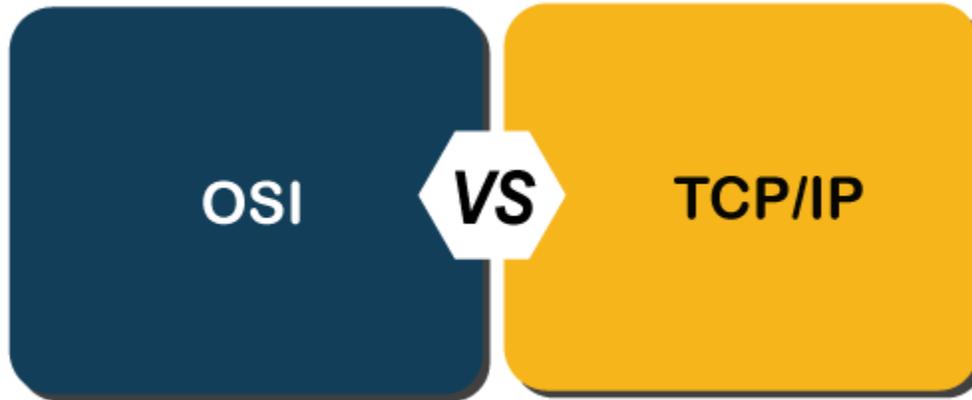
The standards and protocols which are already pre-defined; these models do not redefine them; they just reference or use them. For example, the Ethernet standards were already defined by the IEEE before the development of these models; instead of recreating them, models have used these pre-defined standards.

- **Both have similar functionality of 'transport' and 'network' layers**

The function which is performed between the '**presentation**' and the '**network**' layer is similar to the function performed at the **transport** layer.



Differences between the OSI and TCP/IP model



Let's see the differences between the OSI and TCP/IP model in a tabular form:

OSI Model	TCP/IP Model
It stands for Open System Interconnection .	It stands for Transmission Control Protocol .
OSI model has been developed by ISO (International Standard Organization).	It was developed by ARPANET (Advanced Research Project Agency Network).



<p>It is an independent standard and generic protocol used as a communication gateway between the network and the end user.</p>	<p>It consists of standard protocols that lead to the development of an internet. It is a communication protocol that provides the connection among the hosts.</p>
<p>In the OSI model, the transport layer provides a guarantee for the delivery of the packets.</p>	<p>The transport layer does not provide the surety for the delivery of packets. But still, we can say that it is a reliable model.</p>
<p>This model is based on a vertical approach.</p>	<p>This model is based on a horizontal approach.</p>
<p>In this model, the session and presentation layers are separated, i.e., both the layers are different.</p>	<p>In this model, the session and presentation layer are not different layers. Both layers are included in the application layer.</p>
<p>It is also known as a reference model through which various networks are built. For example, the TCP/IP model is built from</p>	<p>It is an implemented model of an OSI model.</p>



<p>the OSI model. It is also referred to as a guidance tool.</p>	
<p>In this model, the network layer provides both connection-oriented and connectionless service.</p>	<p>The network layer provides only connectionless service.</p>
<p>Protocols in the OSI model are hidden and can be easily replaced when the technology changes.</p>	<p>In this model, the protocol cannot be easily replaced.</p>
<p>It consists of 7 layers.</p>	<p>It consists of 4 layers.</p>
<p>OSI model defines the services, protocols, and interfaces as well as provides a proper distinction between them. It is protocol independent.</p>	<p>In the TCP/IP model, services, protocols, and interfaces are not properly separated. It is protocol dependent.</p>
<p>The usage of this model is very low.</p>	<p>This model is highly used.</p>



It provides standardization to the devices like router, motherboard, switches, and other hardware devices.

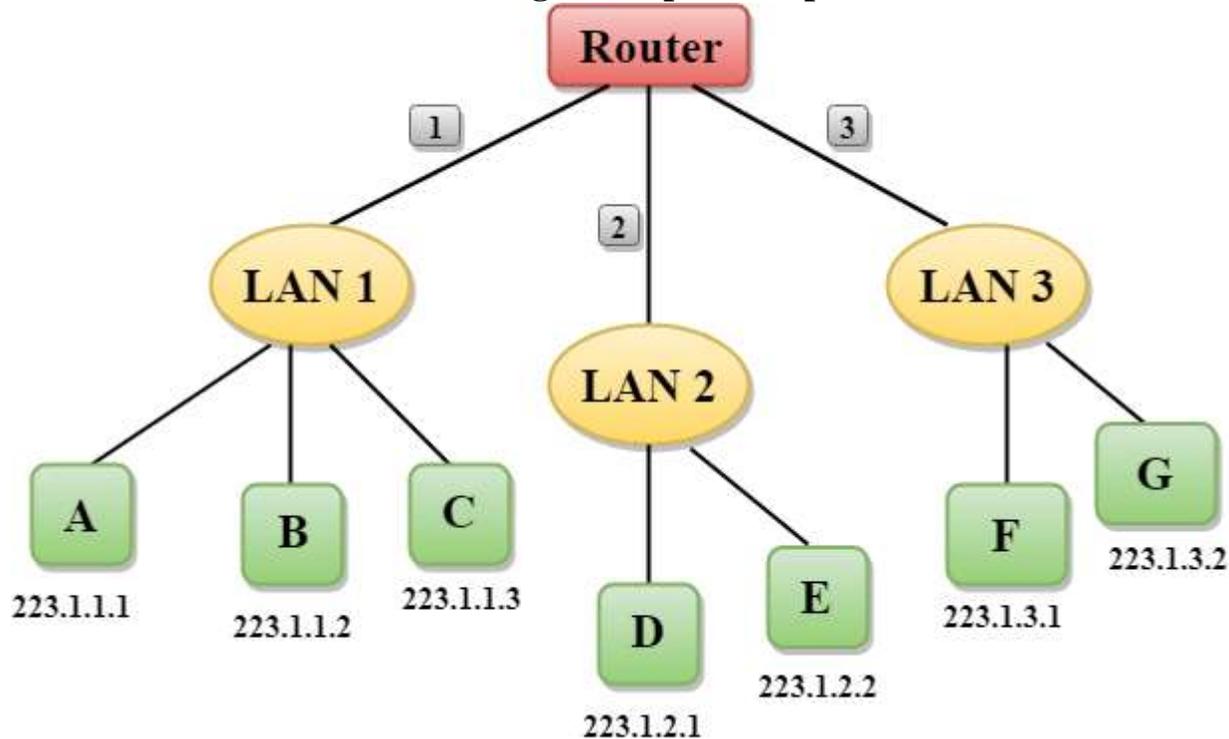
It does not provide the standardization to the devices. It provides a connection between various computers.

Network Addressing

- Network Addressing is one of the major responsibilities of the network layer.
- Network addresses are always logical, i.e., software-based addresses.
- A host is also known as end system that has one link to the network. The boundary between the host and link is known as an interface. Therefore, the host can have only one interface.
- A router is different from the host in that it has two or more links that connect to it. When a router forwards the datagram, then it forwards the packet to one of the links. The boundary between the router and link is known as an interface, and the router can have multiple interfaces, one for each of its links. Each interface is capable of sending and receiving the IP packets, so IP requires each interface to have an address.
- Each IP address is 32 bits long, and they are represented in the form of "dot-decimal notation" where each byte is written in the decimal form, and they are separated by the period. An IP address would look like 193.32.216.9 where 193 represents the decimal notation of first 8 bits of an address, 32 represents the decimal notation of second 8 bits of an address.



- Let's understand through a simple example.



- In the above figure, a router has three interfaces labeled as 1, 2 & 3 and each router interface contains its own IP address.
- Each host contains its own interface and IP address.
- All the interfaces attached to the LAN 1 is having an IP address in the form of 223.1.1.xxx, and the interfaces attached to the LAN 2 and LAN 3 have an IP address in the form of 223.1.2.xxx and 223.1.3.xxx respectively.
- Each IP address consists of two parts. The first part (first three bytes in IP address) specifies the network and second part (last byte of an IP address) specifies the host in the network.



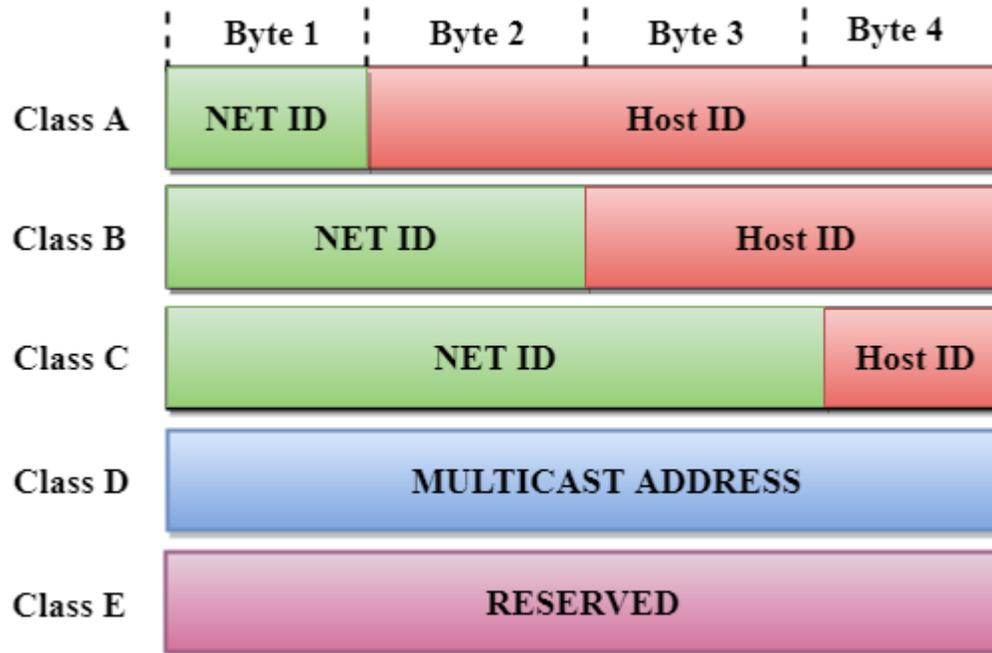
Classful Addressing

An IP address is 32-bit long. An IP address is divided into sub-classes:

- Class A
- Class B
- Class C
- Class D
- Class E

An ip address is divided into two parts:

- **Network ID:** It represents the number of networks.
- **Host ID:** It represents the number of hosts.



In the above diagram, we observe that each class have a specific range of IP addresses. The class of IP address is used to determine the number of bits used in a class and number of networks and hosts available in the class.

Class A

In Class A, an IP address is assigned to those networks that contain a large number of hosts.

- The network ID is 8 bits long.
- The host ID is 24 bits long.

In Class A, the first bit in higher order bits of the first octet is always set to 0 and the remaining 7 bits determine the network ID. The 24 bits determine the host ID in any network.



The total number of networks in Class A = $2^7 = 128$ network address

The total number of hosts in Class A = $2^{24} - 2 = 16,777,214$ host address



Class B

In Class B, an IP address is assigned to those networks that range from small-sized to large-sized networks.

- The Network ID is 16 bits long.
- The Host ID is 16 bits long.

In Class B, the higher order bits of the first octet is always set to 10, and the remaining 14 bits determine the network ID. The other 16 bits determine the Host ID.

The total number of networks in Class B = $2^{14} = 16384$ network address

The total number of hosts in Class B = $2^{16} - 2 = 65534$ host address



Class C



In Class C, an IP address is assigned to only small-sized networks.

- The Network ID is 24 bits long.
- The host ID is 8 bits long.

In Class C, the higher order bits of the first octet is always set to 110, and the remaining 21 bits determine the network ID. The 8 bits of the host ID determine the host in a network.

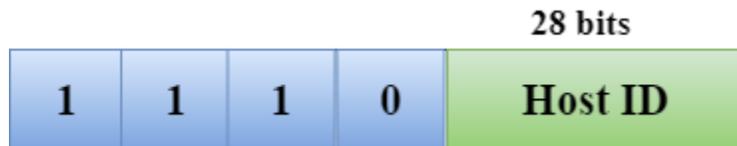
The total number of networks = $2^{21} = 2097152$ network address

The total number of hosts = $2^8 - 2 = 254$ host address



Class D

In Class D, an IP address is reserved for multicast addresses. It does not possess subnetting. The higher order bits of the first octet is always set to 1110, and the remaining bits determines the host ID in any network.



Class E



In Class E, an IP address is used for the future use or for the research and development purposes. It does not possess any subnetting. The higher order bits of the first octet is always set to 1111, and the remaining bits determines the host ID in any network.



Rules for assigning Host ID:

The Host ID is used to determine the host within any network. The Host ID is assigned based on the following rules:

- The Host ID must be unique within any network.
 - The Host ID in which all the bits are set to 0 cannot be assigned as it is used to represent the network ID of the IP address.
 - The Host ID in which all the bits are set to 1 cannot be assigned as it is reserved for the multicast address.
-

Rules for assigning Network ID:

If the hosts are located within the same local network, then they are assigned with the same network ID. The following are the rules for assigning Network ID:

- The network ID cannot start with 127 as 127 is used by Class A.



- The Network ID in which all the bits are set to 0 cannot be assigned as it is used to specify a particular host on the local network.
- The Network ID in which all the bits are set to 1 cannot be assigned as it is reserved for the multicast address.

Classful Network Architecture

Class	Higher bits	NET ID bits	HOST ID bits	No.of networks	No.of hosts per network	Range
A	0	8	24	2^7	2^{24}	0.0.0.0 to 127.255.255.255
B	10	16	16	2^{14}	2^{16}	128.0.0.0 to 191.255.255.255
C	110	24	8	2^{21}	2^8	192.0.0.0 to 223.255.255.255
D	1110	Not Defined	Not Defined	Not Defined	Not Defined	224.0.0.0 to 239.255.255.255
E	1111	Not Defined	Not Defined	Not Defined	Not Defined	240.0.0.0 to 255.255.255.255



Unit 3 :Transmission Media

What is Transmission media?

- Transmission media is a communication channel that carries the information from the sender to the receiver. Data is transmitted through the electromagnetic signals.
- The main functionality of the transmission media is to carry the information in the form of bits through **LAN**(Local Area Network).
- It is a physical path between transmitter and receiver in data communication.
- In a copper-based network, the bits in the form of electrical signals.
- In a fibre based network, the bits in the form of light pulses.
- In **OSI**(Open System Interconnection) phase, transmission media supports the Layer 1. Therefore, it is considered to be as a Layer 1 component.
- The electrical signals can be sent through the copper wire, fibre optics, atmosphere, water, and vacuum.
- The characteristics and quality of data transmission are determined by the characteristics of medium and signal.
- Transmission media is of two types are wired media and wireless media. In wired media, medium characteristics are more important whereas, in wireless media, signal characteristics are more important.

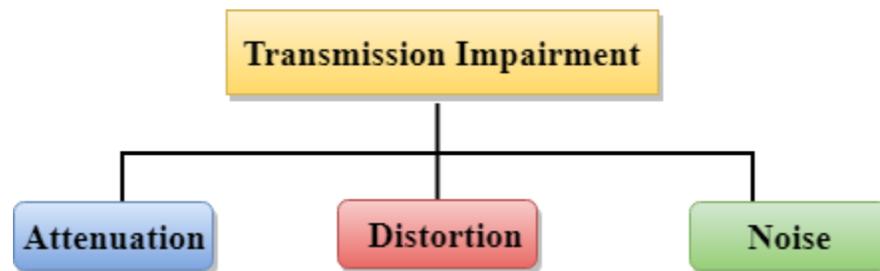


- Different transmission media have different properties such as bandwidth, delay, cost and ease of installation and maintenance.
- The transmission media is available in the lowest layer of the OSI reference model, i.e., **Physical layer**.

Some factors need to be considered for designing the transmission media:

- **Bandwidth:** All the factors are remaining constant, the greater the bandwidth of a medium, the higher the data transmission rate of a signal.
- **Transmission impairment:** When the received signal is not identical to the transmitted one due to the transmission impairment. The quality of the signals will get destroyed due to transmission impairment.
- **Interference:** An interference is defined as the process of disrupting a signal when it travels over a communication medium on the addition of some unwanted signal.

Causes Of Transmission Impairment:

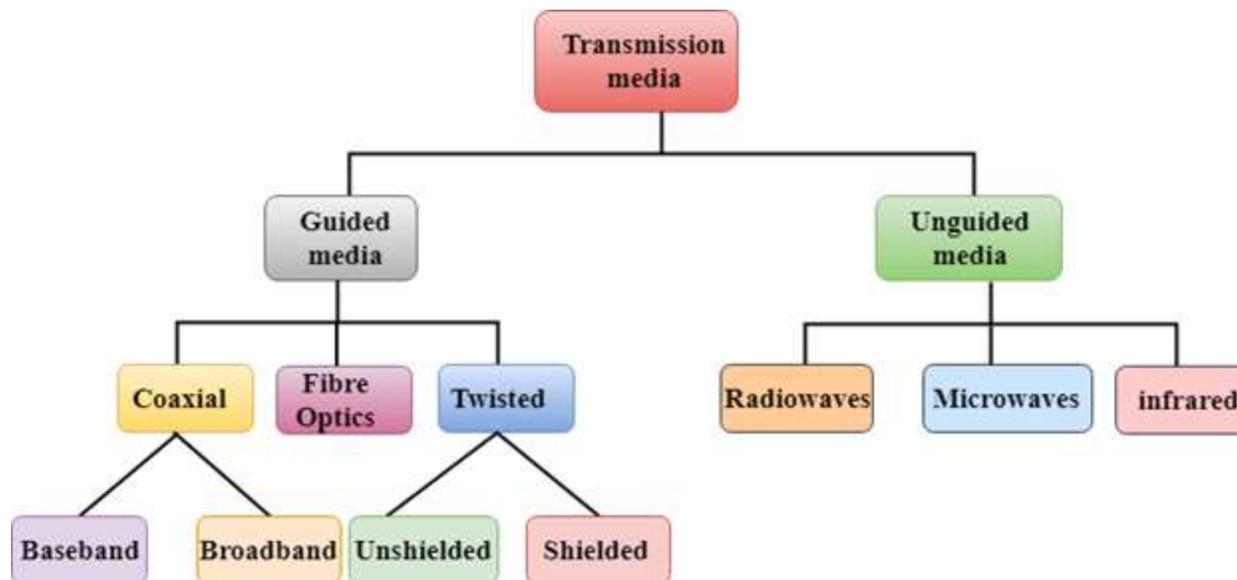


- **Attenuation:** Attenuation means the loss of energy, i.e., the strength of the signal decreases with increasing the distance which causes the loss of energy.



- **Distortion:** Distortion occurs when there is a change in the shape of the signal. This type of distortion is examined from different signals having different frequencies. Each frequency component has its own propagation speed, so they reach at a different time which leads to the delay distortion.
- **Noise:** When data is travelled over a transmission medium, some unwanted signal is added to it which creates the noise.

Classification Of Transmission Media:



- Guided Transmission Media
- UnGuided Transmission Media



Guided Media

It is defined as the physical medium through which the signals are transmitted. It is also known as Bounded media.

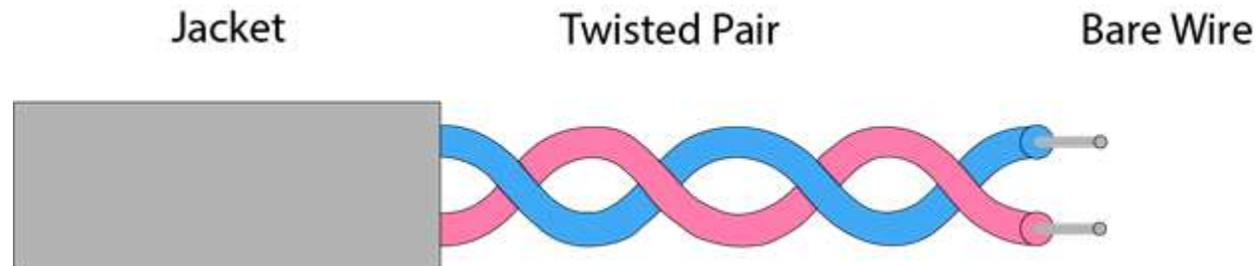
Types Of Guided media:

Twisted pair:

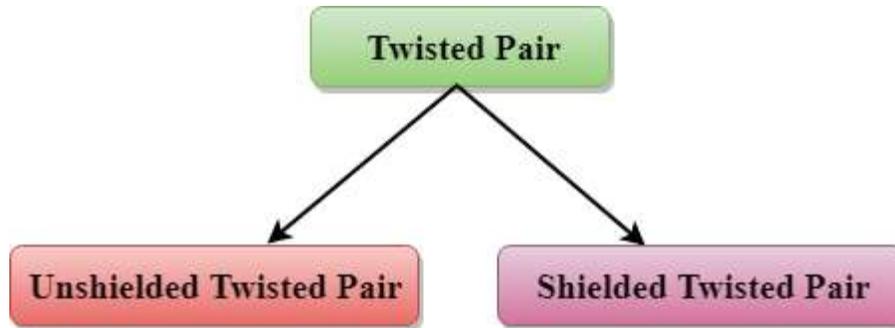
Twisted pair is a physical media made up of a pair of cables twisted with each other. A twisted pair cable is cheap as compared to other transmission media. Installation of the twisted pair cable is easy, and it is a lightweight cable. The frequency range for twisted pair cable is from 0 to 3.5KHz.

A twisted pair consists of two insulated copper wires arranged in a regular spiral pattern.

The degree of reduction in noise interference is determined by the number of turns per foot. Increasing the number of turns per foot decreases noise interference.



Types of Twisted pair:



Unshielded Twisted Pair:

An unshielded twisted pair is widely used in telecommunication. Following are the categories of the unshielded twisted pair cable:

- **Category 1:** Category 1 is used for telephone lines that have low-speed data.
- **Category 2:** It can support upto 4Mbps.
- **Category 3:** It can support upto 16Mbps.
- **Category 4:** It can support upto 20Mbps. Therefore, it can be used for long-distance communication.
- **Category 5:** It can support upto 200Mbps.

Advantages Of Unshielded Twisted Pair:

- It is cheap.
- Installation of the unshielded twisted pair is easy.
- It can be used for high-speed LAN.



Disadvantage:

- This cable can only be used for shorter distances because of attenuation.

Shielded Twisted Pair

A shielded twisted pair is a cable that contains the mesh surrounding the wire that allows the higher transmission rate.

Characteristics Of Shielded Twisted Pair:

- The cost of the shielded twisted pair cable is not very high and not very low.
- An installation of STP is easy.
- It has higher capacity as compared to unshielded twisted pair cable.
- It has a higher attenuation.
- It is shielded that provides the higher data transmission rate.

Disadvantages

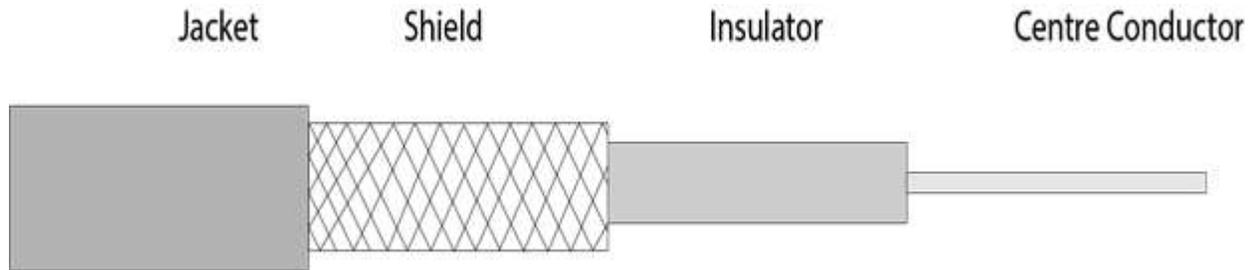
- It is more expensive as compared to UTP and coaxial cable.
- It has a higher attenuation rate.

Coaxial Cable

- Coaxial cable is very commonly used transmission media, for example, TV wire is usually a coaxial cable.



- The name of the cable is coaxial as it contains two conductors parallel to each other.
- It has a higher frequency as compared to Twisted pair cable.
- The inner conductor of the coaxial cable is made up of copper, and the outer conductor is made up of copper mesh. The middle core is made up of non-conductive cover that separates the inner conductor from the outer conductor.
- The middle core is responsible for the data transferring whereas the copper mesh prevents from the **EMI**(Electromagnetic interference).



Coaxial cable is of two types:

1. **Baseband transmission:** It is defined as the process of transmitting a single signal at high speed.
2. **Broadband transmission:** It is defined as the process of transmitting multiple signals simultaneously.

Advantages Of Coaxial cable:

- The data can be transmitted at high speed.
- It has better shielding as compared to twisted pair cable.
- It provides higher bandwidth.



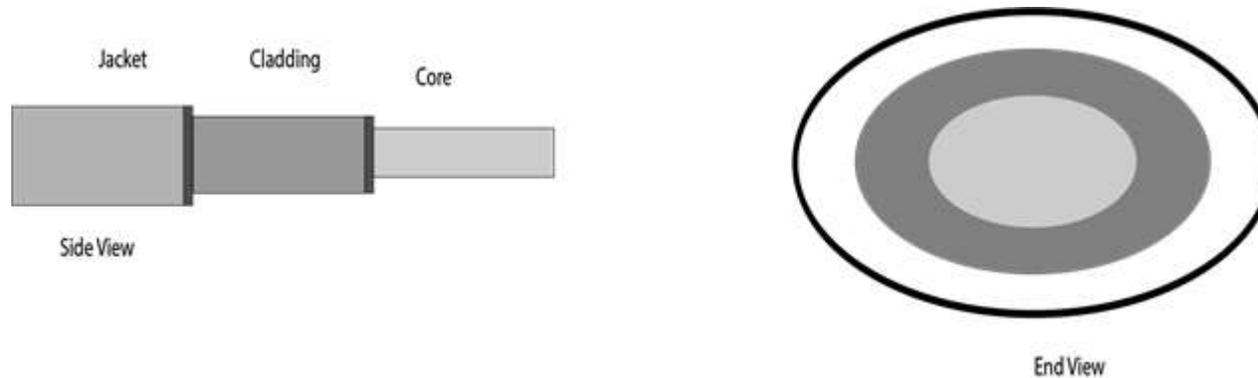
Disadvantages Of Coaxial cable:

- It is more expensive as compared to twisted pair cable.
 - If any fault occurs in the cable causes the failure in the entire network.
-

Fibre Optic

- Fibre optic cable is a cable that uses electrical signals for communication.
- Fibre optic is a cable that holds the optical fibres coated in plastic that are used to send the data by pulses of light.
- The plastic coating protects the optical fibres from heat, cold, electromagnetic interference from other types of wiring.
- Fibre optics provide faster data transmission than copper wires.

Diagrammatic representation of fibre optic cable:



Basic elements of Fibre optic cable:

- **Core:** The optical fibre consists of a narrow strand of glass or plastic known as a core. A core is a light transmission area of the fibre. The more the area of the core, the more light will be transmitted into the fibre.
- **Cladding:** The concentric layer of glass is known as cladding. The main functionality of the cladding is to provide the lower refractive index at the core interface as to cause the reflection within the core so that the light waves are transmitted through the fibre.
- **Jacket:** The protective coating consisting of plastic is known as a jacket. The main purpose of a jacket is to preserve the fibre strength, absorb shock and extra fibre protection.

Following are the advantages of fibre optic cable over copper:

- **Greater Bandwidth:** The fibre optic cable provides more bandwidth as compared copper. Therefore, the fibre optic carries more data as compared to copper cable.
- **Faster speed:** Fibre optic cable carries the data in the form of light. This allows the fibre optic cable to carry the signals at a higher speed.



- **Longer distances:** The fibre optic cable carries the data at a longer distance as compared to copper cable.
- **Better reliability:** The fibre optic cable is more reliable than the copper cable as it is immune to any temperature changes while it can cause obstruct in the connectivity of copper cable.
- **Thinner and Sturdier:** Fibre optic cable is thinner and lighter in weight so it can withstand more pull pressure than copper cable.

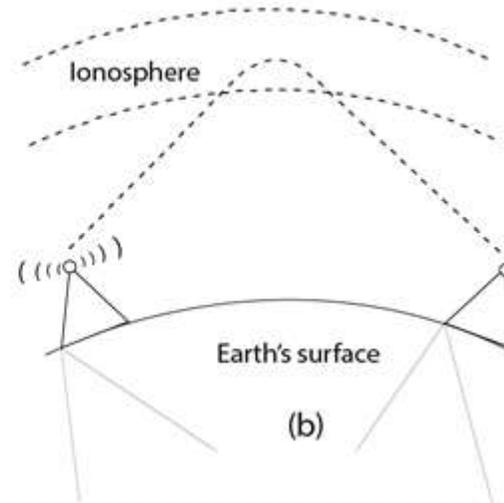
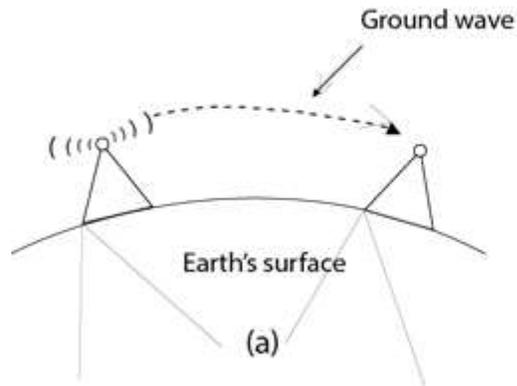
UnGuided Transmission

- An unguided transmission transmits the electromagnetic waves without using any physical medium. Therefore it is also known as **wireless transmission**.
- In unguided media, air is the media through which the electromagnetic energy can flow easily.

Unguided transmission is broadly classified into three categories:

Radio waves

- Radio waves are the electromagnetic waves that are transmitted in all the directions of free space.
- Radio waves are omnidirectional, i.e., the signals are propagated in all the directions.
- The range in frequencies of radio waves is from 3Khz to 1 khz.
- In the case of radio waves, the sending and receiving antenna are not aligned, i.e., the wave sent by the sending antenna can be received by any receiving antenna.
- An example of the radio wave is **FM radio**.



Applications Of Radio waves:

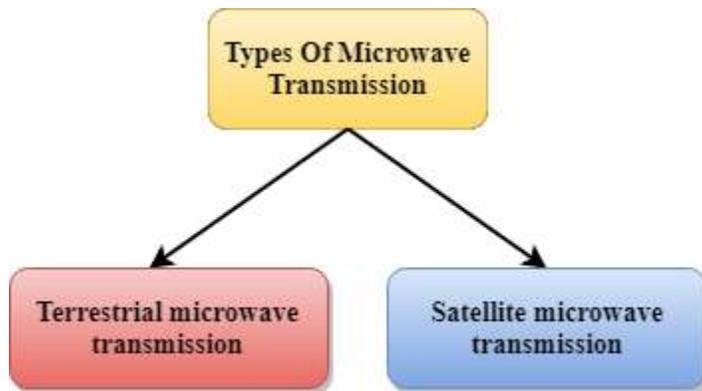
- A Radio wave is useful for multicasting when there is one sender and many receivers.
- An FM radio, television, cordless phones are examples of a radio wave.

Advantages Of Radio transmission:

- Radio transmission is mainly used for wide area networks and mobile cellular phones.
- Radio waves cover a large area, and they can penetrate the walls.
- Radio transmission provides a higher transmission rate.



Microwaves



Microwaves are of two types:

- Terrestrial microwave
- Satellite microwave communication.

Terrestrial Microwave Transmission

- Terrestrial Microwave transmission is a technology that transmits the focused beam of a radio signal from one ground-based microwave transmission antenna to another.
- Microwaves are the electromagnetic waves having the frequency in the range from 1GHz to 1000 GHz.
- Microwaves are unidirectional as the sending and receiving antenna is to be aligned, i.e., the waves sent by the sending antenna are narrowly focussed.



- In this case, antennas are mounted on the towers to send a beam to another antenna which is km away.
- It works on the line of sight transmission, i.e., the antennas mounted on the towers are the direct sight of each other.

Characteristics of Microwave:

- **Frequency range:** The frequency range of terrestrial microwave is from 4-6 GHz to 21-23 GHz.
- **Bandwidth:** It supports the bandwidth from 1 to 10 Mbps.
- **Short distance:** It is inexpensive for short distance.
- **Long distance:** It is expensive as it requires a higher tower for a longer distance.
- **Attenuation:** Attenuation means loss of signal. It is affected by environmental conditions and antenna size.

Advantages Of Microwave:

- Microwave transmission is cheaper than using cables.
- It is free from land acquisition as it does not require any land for the installation of cables.
- Microwave transmission provides an easy communication in terrains as the installation of cable in terrain is quite a difficult task.
- Communication over oceans can be achieved by using microwave transmission.



Disadvantages of Microwave transmission:

- **Eavesdropping:** An eavesdropping creates insecure communication. Any malicious user can catch the signal in the air by using its own antenna.
- **Out of phase signal:** A signal can be moved out of phase by using microwave transmission.
- **Susceptible to weather condition:** A microwave transmission is susceptible to weather condition. This means that any environmental change such as rain, wind can distort the signal.
- **Bandwidth limited:** Allocation of bandwidth is limited in the case of microwave transmission.

Satellite Microwave Communication

- A satellite is a physical object that revolves around the earth at a known height.
- Satellite communication is more reliable nowadays as it offers more flexibility than cable and fibre optic systems.
- We can communicate with any point on the globe by using satellite communication.

How Does Satellite work?

The satellite accepts the signal that is transmitted from the earth station, and it amplifies the signal. The amplified signal is retransmitted to another earth station.

Advantages Of Satellite Microwave Communication:

- The coverage area of a satellite microwave is more than the terrestrial microwave.
- The transmission cost of the satellite is independent of the distance from the centre of the coverage area.



- Satellite communication is used in mobile and wireless communication applications.
- It is easy to install.
- It is used in a wide variety of applications such as weather forecasting, radio/TV signal broadcasting, mobile communication, etc.

Disadvantages Of Satellite Microwave Communication:

- Satellite designing and development requires more time and higher cost.
- The Satellite needs to be monitored and controlled on regular periods so that it remains in orbit.
- The life of the satellite is about 12-15 years. Due to this reason, another launch of the satellite has to be planned before it becomes non-functional.

Infrared

- An infrared transmission is a wireless technology used for communication over short ranges.
- The frequency of the infrared is in the range from 300 GHz to 400 THz.
- It is used for short-range communication such as data transfer between two cell phones, TV remote operation, data transfer between a computer and cell phone resides in the same closed area.

Characteristics Of Infrared:

- It supports high bandwidth, and hence the data rate will be very high.



- Infrared waves cannot penetrate the walls. Therefore, the infrared communication in one room cannot be interrupted by the nearby rooms.
- An infrared communication provides better security with minimum interference.
- Infrared communication is unreliable outside the building because the sun rays will interfere with the infrared waves



Unit 4 :Wired and Wireless LAN

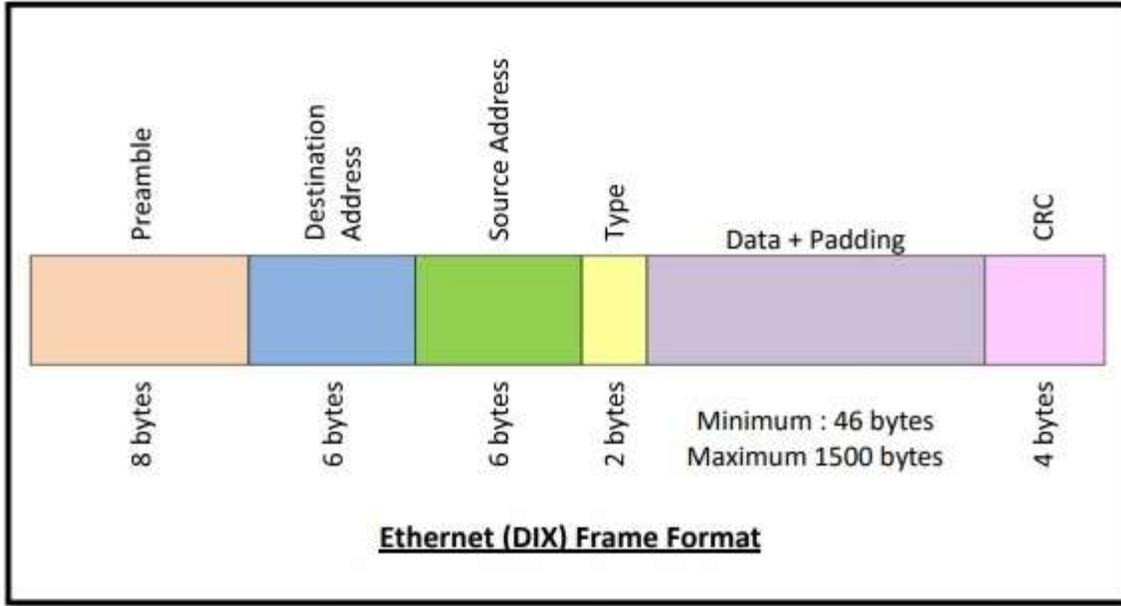
Classic Ethernet is the original form of Ethernet used primarily in LANs. It provides data rates between 3 to 10 Mbps. It operates both in the physical layer and in the MAC sublayer of the OSI model. In the physical layer, the features of the cables and networks are considered. In MAC sublayer, the frame formats for the Ethernet data frame are laid down.

Classic Ethernet was first standardized in 1980s as IEEE 802.3 standard.

Frame Format of Classic Ethernet

Classic Ethernet frames can be either of Ethernet (DIX) or of IEEE 802.3 standard. The frames of the two standards are very similar except for one field. The main fields of a frame of classic Ethernet are –

- **Preamble** – It is the starting field that provides alert and timing pulse for transmission. In case of Ethernet (DIX) it is an 8 byte field and in case of IEEE 802.3 it is of 7 bytes.
- **Start of Frame Delimiter (SOF)** – It is a 1 byte field in an IEEE 802.3 frame that contains an alternating pattern of ones and zeros ending with two ones.
- **Destination Address** – It is a 6 byte field containing physical address of destination stations.
- **Source Address** – It is a 6 byte field containing the physical address of the sending station.
- **Type/Length** – This is a 2 byte field. In case of Ethernet (DIX), the field is type that instructs the receiver which process to give the frame to. In case of IEEE 802.3, the field is length that stores the number of bytes in the data field.
- **Data** – This is a variable sized field carries the data from the upper layers. The maximum size of data field is 1500 bytes.
- **Padding** – This is added to the data to bring its length to the minimum requirement of 46 bytes.
- **CRC** – CRC stands for cyclic redundancy check. It contains the error detection information.



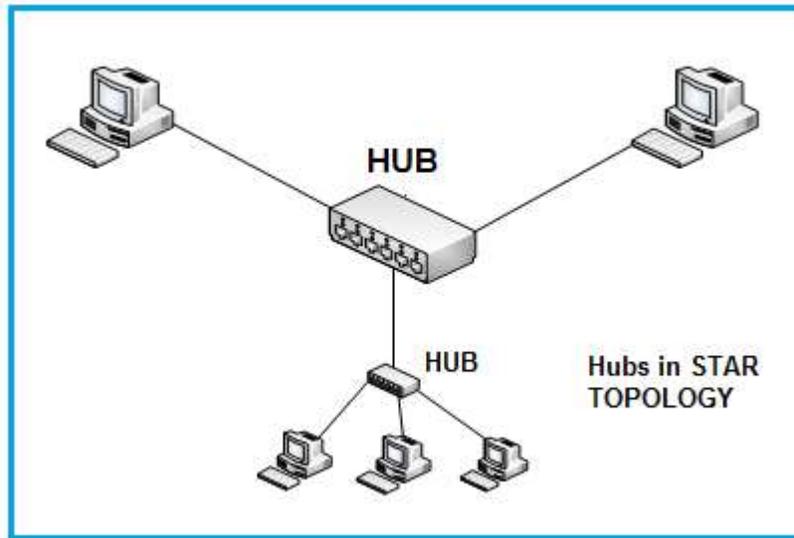


Unit 5: Network Devices

Hardware devices that are used to connect computers, printers, fax machines and other electronic devices to a network are called **network devices**. These devices transfer data in a fast, secure and correct way over same or different networks. Network devices may be inter-network or intra-network. Some devices are installed on the device, like NIC card or RJ45 connector, whereas some are part of the network, like router, switch, etc. Let us explore some of these devices in greater detail.

What is Hub?

A **Hub** is a network device which connects multiple nodes or PCs on its ports or connections using twisted pair or optical cables. It operates on layer-1 of OSI stack i.e. physical layer. The ethernet hub does not manage traffic passing through them. It simply broadcasts the packet out to all the ports except the port of entry. Hubs are of various types and are available in various port configurations viz. 4, 5, 8, 12 and so on.



The figure-1 depicts hub used to interface various nodes or PCs in a star configuration. The ethernet hub organizes cables and relays signals to the other media segments. It can also be used in other configurations based on packets travel between nodes. Refer [Hub basics and Hub types >>](#).

Following are the types of hubs.

- Active Hub
- Passive Hub
- Intelligent Hub

Let us understand difference between active hub and passive hub types.

Active hub



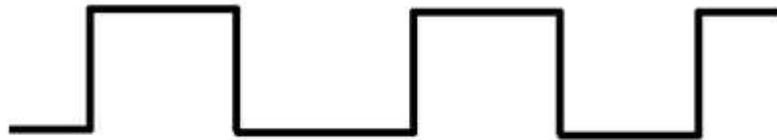
- Function: It houses electronic components used to amplify or regenerate signals between nodes.
- Advantages: It helps in extending distance between the two nodes.
- Disadvantages: It amplifies noise in addition to the desired signals. They are very expensive compare to passive hub.
- It requires power supply.

Passive hub

- Function: It simply combines signals of a network segments.
- Advantages: Passive hubs are cheaper compare to active hub. It does not amplify noise.
- Disadvantages: It reduces cable distance by half as it does not amplify or boost the signals.
- It does not require power supply.
- It is only used to share the physical medium.

Modem

Modem is a device that enables a computer to send or receive data over telephone or cable lines. The data stored on the computer is digital whereas a telephone line or cable wire can transmit only analog data.



Digital Data Waveform



Analog Data Waveform

The main function of the modem is to convert digital signal into analog and vice versa. Modem is a combination of two devices – **modulator** and **demodulator**. The **modulator** converts digital data into analog data when the data is being sent by the computer. The **demodulator** converts analog data signals into digital data when it is being received by the computer.

Types of Modem

Modem can be categorized in several ways like direction in which it can transmit data, type of connection to the transmission line, transmission mode, etc.

Depending on direction of data transmission, modem can be of these types –



- **Simplex** – A simplex modem can transfer data in only one direction, from digital device to network (modulator) or network to digital device (demodulator).
- **Half duplex** – A half-duplex modem has the capacity to transfer data in both the directions but only one at a time.
- **Full duplex** – A full duplex modem can transmit data in both the directions simultaneously.

RJ45 Connector

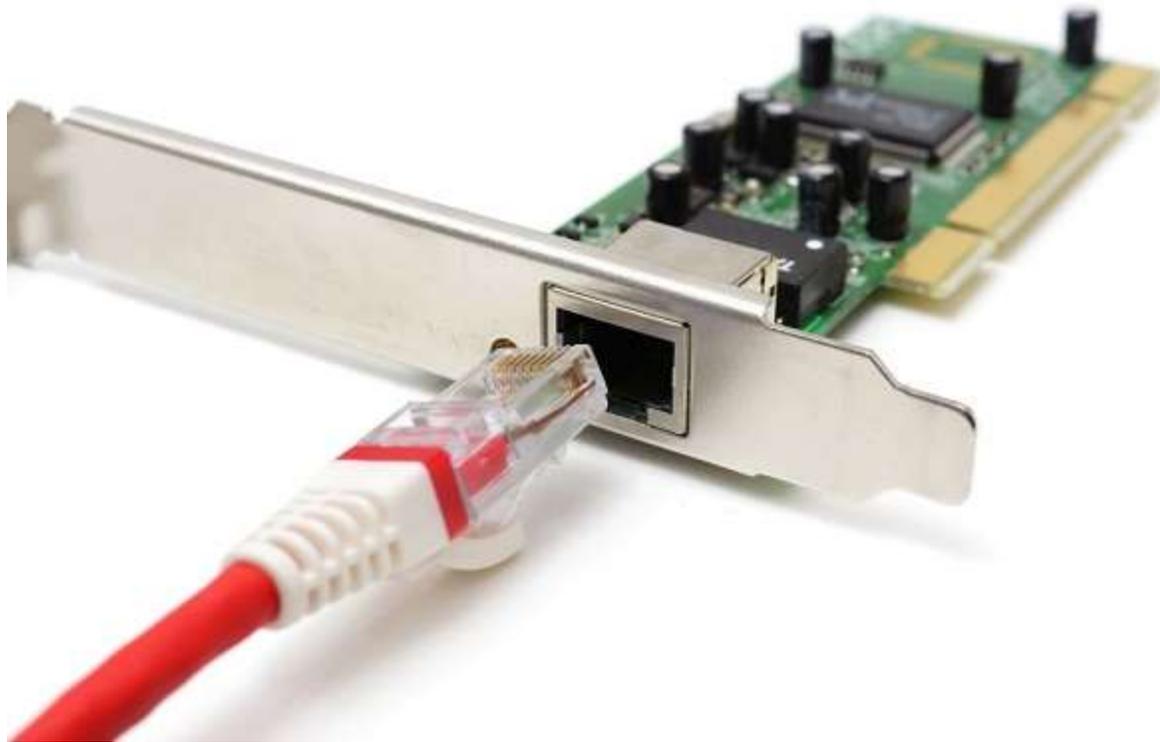
RJ45 is the acronym for **Registered Jack 45**. **RJ45 connector** is an 8-pin jack used by devices to physically connect to **Ethernet** based **local area networks (LANs)**. **Ethernet** is a technology that defines protocols for establishing a LAN. The cable used for Ethernet LANs are twisted pair ones and have **RJ45 connector pins** at both ends. These pins go into the corresponding socket on devices and connect the device to the network.



Ethernet Card



Ethernet card, also known as **network interface card (NIC)**, is a hardware component used by computers to connect to **Ethernet LAN** and communicate with other devices on the LAN. The earliest **Ethernet cards** were external to the system and needed to be installed manually. In modern computer systems, it is an internal hardware component. The NIC has **RJ45 socket** where network cable is physically plugged in.





Ethernet card speeds may vary depending upon the protocols it supports. Old Ethernet cards had maximum speed of **10 Mbps**. However, modern cards support fast Ethernets up to a speed of **100 Mbps**. Some cards even have capacity of **1 Gbps**.

Router

A **router** is a **network layer** hardware device that transmits data from one LAN to another if both networks support the same set of protocols. So a **router** is typically connected to at least two LANs and the **internet service provider (ISP)**. It receives its data in the form of **packets**, which are **data frames** with their **destination address** added. Router also strengthens the signals before transmitting them. That is why it is also called **repeater**.



Routing Table



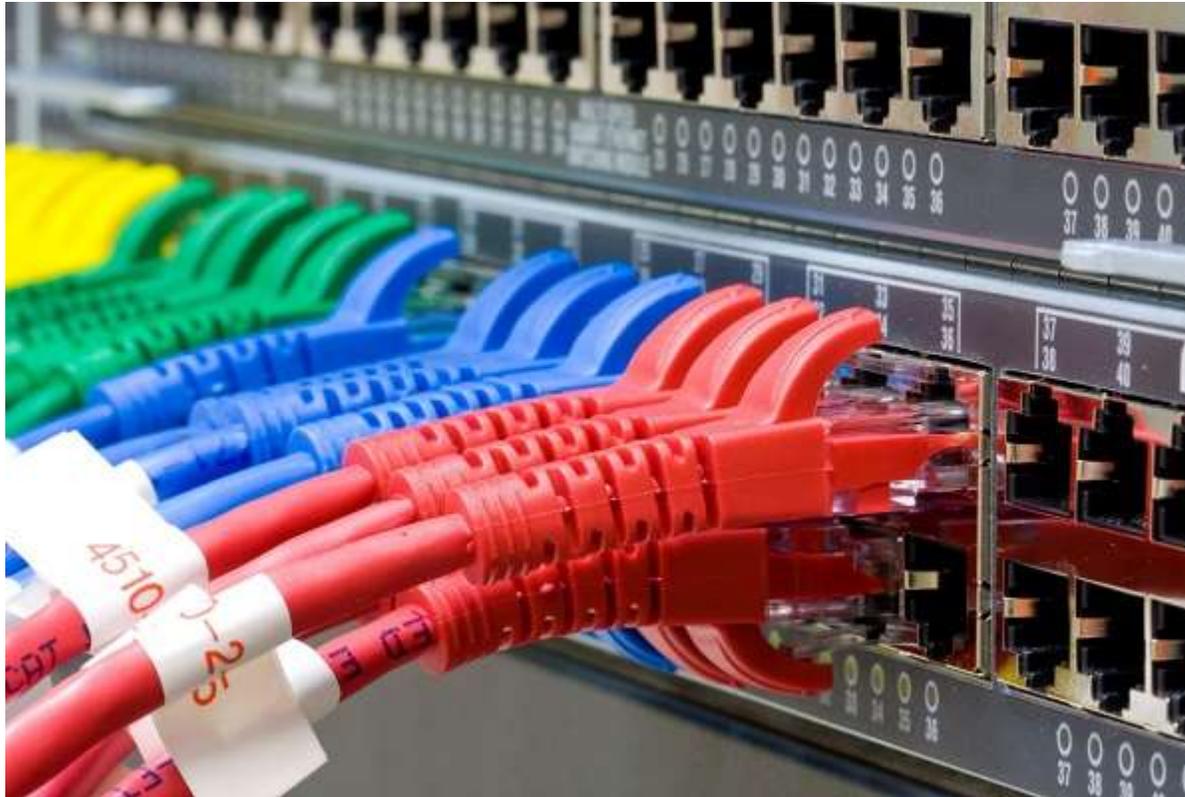
A router reads its routing table to decide the best available route the packet can take to reach its destination quickly and accurately. The routing table may be of these two types –

- **Static** – In a static routing table the routes are fed manually. So it is suitable only for very small networks that have maximum two to three routers.
- **Dynamic** – In a dynamic routing table, the router communicates with other routers through protocols to determine which routes are free. This is suited for larger networks where manual feeding may not be feasible due to large number of routers.

Switch

Switch is a network device that connects other devices to **Ethernet** networks through **twisted pair** cables. It uses **packet switching** technique to **receive, store** and **forward data packets** on the network. The switch maintains a list of network addresses of all the devices connected to it.

On receiving a packet, it checks the destination address and transmits the packet to the correct port. Before forwarding, the packets are checked for collision and other network errors. The data is transmitted in full duplex mode



Data transmission speed in switches can be double that of other network devices like hubs used for networking. This is because switch shares its maximum speed with all the devices connected to it. This helps in maintaining network speed even during high traffic. In fact, higher data speeds are achieved on networks through use of multiple switches.

Gateway



Gateway is a network device used to connect two or more dissimilar networks. In networking parlance, networks that use different protocols are **dissimilar networks**. A gateway usually is a computer with multiple **NICs** connected to different networks. A gateway can also be configured completely using software. As networks connect to a different network through gateways, these gateways are usually hosts or end points of the network.





Gateway uses **packet switching** technique to transmit data from one network to another. In this way it is similar to a **router**, the only difference being router can transmit data only over networks that use same protocols.

Wi-Fi Card

Wi-Fi is the acronym for **wireless fidelity**. **Wi-Fi technology** is used to achieve **wireless connection** to any network. **Wi-Fi card** is a **card** used to connect any device to the local network wirelessly. The physical area of the network which provides internet access through Wi-Fi is called **Wi-Fi hotspot**. Hotspots can be set up at home, office or any public space. Hotspots themselves are connected to the network through wires.



A **Wi-Fi card** is used to add capabilities like **teleconferencing**, **downloading** digital camera images, **video chat**, etc. to old devices. Modern devices come with their in-built **wireless network adapter**.



Unit 6: Network Security

Network security is the security provided to a network from unauthorized access and risks. It is the duty of network administrators to adopt preventive measures to protect their networks from potential security threats.

Computer networks that are involved in regular transactions and communication within the government, individuals, or business require security. The most common and simple way of protecting a network resource is by assigning it a unique name and a corresponding password.

Types of Network Security Devices

Active Devices

These security devices block the surplus traffic. Firewalls, antivirus scanning devices, and content filtering devices are the examples of such devices.

Passive Devices

These devices identify and report on unwanted traffic, for example, intrusion detection appliances.

Preventative Devices

These devices scan the networks and identify potential security problems. For example, penetration testing devices and vulnerability assessment appliances.

Unified Threat Management (UTM)

These devices serve as all-in-one security devices. Examples include firewalls, content filtering, web caching, etc.

Firewalls



A firewall is a network security system that manages and regulates the network traffic based on some protocols. A firewall establishes a barrier between a trusted internal network and the internet.

Firewalls exist both as software that run on a hardware and as hardware appliances. Firewalls that are hardware-based also provide other functions like acting as a DHCP server for that network.

Most personal computers use software-based firewalls to secure data from threats from the internet. Many routers that pass data between networks contain firewall components and conversely, many firewalls can perform basic routing functions.

Firewalls are commonly used in private networks or *intranets* to prevent unauthorized access from the internet. Every message entering or leaving the intranet goes through the firewall to be examined for security measures.

An ideal firewall configuration consists of both hardware and software based devices. A firewall also helps in providing remote access to a private network through secure authentication certificates and logins.

Hardware and Software Firewalls

Hardware firewalls are standalone products. These are also found in broadband routers. Most hardware firewalls provide a minimum of four network ports to connect other computers. For larger networks – e.g., for business purpose – business networking firewall solutions are available.

Software firewalls are installed on your computers. A software firewall protects your computer from internet threats.

Antivirus

An antivirus is a tool that is used to detect and remove malicious software. It was originally designed to detect and remove viruses from computers.

Modern antivirus software provide protection not only from virus, but also from worms, Trojan-horses, adwares, spywares, keyloggers, etc. Some products also provide protection from malicious URLs, spam, phishing attacks, botnets, DDoS attacks, etc.

Content Filtering



Content filtering devices screen unpleasant and offensive emails or webpages. These are used as a part of firewalls in corporations as well as in personal computers. These devices generate the message "Access Denied" when someone tries to access any unauthorized web page or email.

Content is usually screened for pornographic content and also for violence- or hate-oriented content. Organizations also exclude shopping and job related contents.

Content filtering can be divided into the following categories –

- Web filtering
- Screening of Web sites or pages
- E-mail filtering
- Screening of e-mail for spam
- Other objectionable content

Intrusion Detection Systems

Intrusion Detection Systems, also known as Intrusion Detection and Prevention Systems, are the appliances that monitor malicious activities in a network, log information about such activities, take steps to stop them, and finally report them.

Intrusion detection systems help in sending an alarm against any malicious activity in the network, drop the packets, and reset the connection to save the IP address from any blockage. Intrusion detection systems can also perform the following actions –

- Correct Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC) errors
- Prevent TCP sequencing issues
- Clean up unwanted transport and network layer options



1 Message- -Confidentiality, Integrity, Authentication, Non repudiation.

Message Authentication

1. Message Authentication

- message authentication is concerned with:
 - protecting the integrity of a message
 - validating identity of originator
 - non-repudiation of origin (dispute resolution)

To now, have been concerned with protecting message content (ie secrecy) by encrypting the message. Will now consider how to protect message integrity (ie protection from modification), as well as confirming the identity of the sender. Generically this is the problem of message authentication, and in eCommerce applications is arguably more important than secrecy.

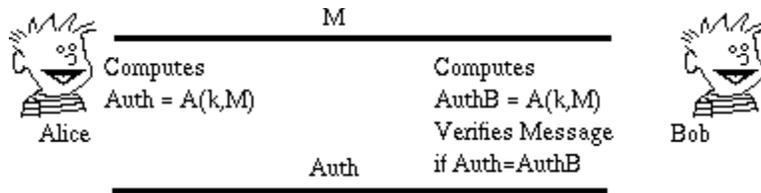
2. Message Authentication Code (MAC)

- **authenticator, signature, or message authentication code (MAC)**
- electronic equivalent of a signature on a message
- sent along with the message
- is generated via some algorithm which depends on both the message and some (public or private) key known only to the sender and receiver
- message may be of any length
- MAC may be of any length, but more often is some fixed size
- this requires the use of some **hash function**
 - to condense the message to the required size
 - if this is not achieved by the authentication scheme
- need to consider replay problems with message and MAC
 - require a message sequence number, timestamp or negotiated random values



In general, want to send an "electronic signature" along with the message to validate its contents, and the senders identity. Unless the message is processed in a way that provides both encryption and authentication (as when a chaining mode is used with a block cipher), the electronic signature is separate from the encrypted message. Unless the amount of information sent is to be doubled, some means is needed to create a "digest" (MAC) of the message of a suitable, fairly small, size.

3. Message Authentication Process



Message Authentication Process

show here we see Alice sending both a message, and the signature (Auth) to Bob. Bob recomputes the signature on the message as he received it, and confirms that it is the same as the one Alice sent him. If so, the message is assumed to be unmodified.

4. Authentication using Private-key Ciphers

- if a message is being encrypted using a session key known only to the sender and receiver, then the message may also be authenticated
 - since only sender or receiver could have created it
 - any interference will corrupt the message (provided it includes sufficient redundancy to detect change)
 - but this does not provide non-repudiation since it is impossible to prove who created the message

As mentioned above, if a message is sent encrypted using a chaining mode of a block cipher (CBC or CFB) then implicitly the message is also authenticated, since any external modification



would corrupt the decryption, and since only the sender & receiver supposedly know the key used. However since the algorithm is symmetric, there is no way to prove to a 3rd party who did what.

5. Authentication using Private-key Ciphers

- message authentication may also be done using the standard modes of use of a block cipher
 - sometimes do not want to send encrypted messages
 - can use either CBC or CFB modes and send final block, since this will depend on all previous bits of the message
 - no hash function is required, since this method accepts arbitrary length input and produces a fixed output
 - usually use a fixed known IV
 - this is the approach used in Australian EFT standards AS8205
 - major disadvantage is small size of resulting MAC since 64-bits is probably too small

Can also use block cipher chaining modes to create a separate authenticator, by just sending the last block. However this suffers from being a bit too small for acceptable use today.

Hashing Functions

1. Hashing Functions

- used to condense an arbitrary length message to a fixed size
- usually for subsequent signature by a digital signature algorithm
- it is usually assumed that the hash function is public and not keyed
- traditional CRCs do not satisfy the above requirements
- length should be large enough to resist birthday attacks
 - 64-bits is now regarded as too small
 - using 128-512 is regarded as suitable



Hash functions are used to "digest" or "condense" a message down to a fixed size, which can then be signed, in a way that makes finding other messages with the same hash extremely difficult (so the signature won't apply easily to other messages). The hash needs to be large enough to resist "birthday attacks" on it - see Stallings 8.4 and 8A.

2. Hashing Function Design Principles

- a good cryptographic hash function h should have the following properties:
 - h should destroy all homomorphic structures in the underlying public key cryptosystem (be unable to compute hash value of 2 messages combined given their individual hash values)
 - h should be computed on the entire message
 - h should be a one-way function so that messages are not disclosed by their signatures
 - it should be computationally infeasible given a message and its hash value to compute another message with the same hash value
 - should resist **birthday attacks** (finding any 2 messages with the same hash value, perhaps by iterating through minor permutations of 2 messages)

These are the "mathematical" specifications for good hash functions. Essentially it must be extremely difficult to find 2 messages with the same hash, and the hash should not be related to the message in any obvious way (ie it should be a complex non-linear function of the message). There are quite a few similarities in the evolution of hash functions & block ciphers, and in the evolution of the design requirements on both.

Types of Cyber Attacks

A cyber-attack is an exploitation of computer systems and networks. It uses malicious code to alter computer code, logic or data and lead to cybercrimes, such as information and identity theft.

We are living in a digital era. Now a day, most of the people use computer and internet. Due to the dependency on digital things, the illegal computer activity is growing and changing like any type of crime.



Cyber-attacks can be classified into the following categories:



Classification of Cyber attacks

Web-based attacks

These are the attacks which occur on a website or web applications. Some of the important web-based attacks are as follows-

1. Injection attacks

It is the attack in which some data will be injected into a web application to manipulate the application and fetch the required information.

Example- SQL Injection, code Injection, log Injection, XML Injection etc.

2. DNS Spoofing

DNS Spoofing is a type of computer security hacking. Whereby a data is introduced into a DNS resolver's cache causing the name server to return an incorrect IP address, diverting traffic to the attacker's computer or any other computer. The DNS spoofing attacks can go on for a long period of time without being detected and can cause serious security issues.



3. Session Hijacking

It is a security attack on a user session over a protected network. Web applications create cookies to store the state and user sessions. By stealing the cookies, an attacker can have access to all of the user data.

4. Phishing

Phishing is a type of attack which attempts to steal sensitive information like user login credentials and credit card number. It occurs when an attacker is masquerading as a trustworthy entity in electronic communication.

5. Brute force

It is a type of attack which uses a trial and error method. This attack generates a large number of guesses and validates them to obtain actual data like user password and personal identification number. This attack may be used by criminals to crack encrypted data, or by security analysts to test an organization's network security.

6. Denial of Service

It is an attack which meant to make a server or network resource unavailable to the users. It accomplishes this by flooding the target with traffic or sending it information that triggers a crash. It uses the single system and single internet connection to attack a server. It can be classified into the following-

Volume-based attacks- Its goal is to saturate the bandwidth of the attacked site, and is measured in bit per second.

Protocol attacks- It consumes actual server resources, and is measured in a packet.

Application layer attacks- Its goal is to crash the web server and is measured in request per second.

7. Dictionary attacks

This type of attack stored the list of a commonly used password and validated them to get original password.



8. URL Interpretation

It is a type of attack where we can change the certain parts of a URL, and one can make a web server to deliver web pages for which he is not authorized to browse.

9. File Inclusion attacks

It is a type of attack that allows an attacker to access unauthorized or essential files which is available on the web server or to execute malicious files on the web server by making use of the include functionality.

10. Man in the middle attacks

It is a type of attack that allows an attacker to intercepts the connection between client and server and acts as a bridge between them. Due to this, an attacker will be able to read, insert and modify the data in the intercepted connection.

System-based attacks

These are the attacks which are intended to compromise a computer or a computer network. Some of the important system-based attacks are as follows-

1. Virus

It is a type of malicious software program that spread throughout the computer files without the knowledge of a user. It is a self-replicating malicious computer program that replicates by inserting copies of itself into other computer programs when executed. It can also execute instructions that cause harm to the system.

2. Worm

It is a type of malware whose primary function is to replicate itself to spread to uninfected computers. It works same as the computer virus. Worms often originate from email attachments that appear to be from trusted senders.



3. Trojan horse

It is a malicious program that occurs unexpected changes to computer setting and unusual activity, even when the computer should be idle. It misleads the user of its true intent. It appears to be a normal application but when opened/executed some malicious code will run in the background.

4. Backdoors

It is a method that bypasses the normal authentication process. A developer may create a backdoor so that an application or operating system can be accessed for troubleshooting or other purposes.

5. Bots

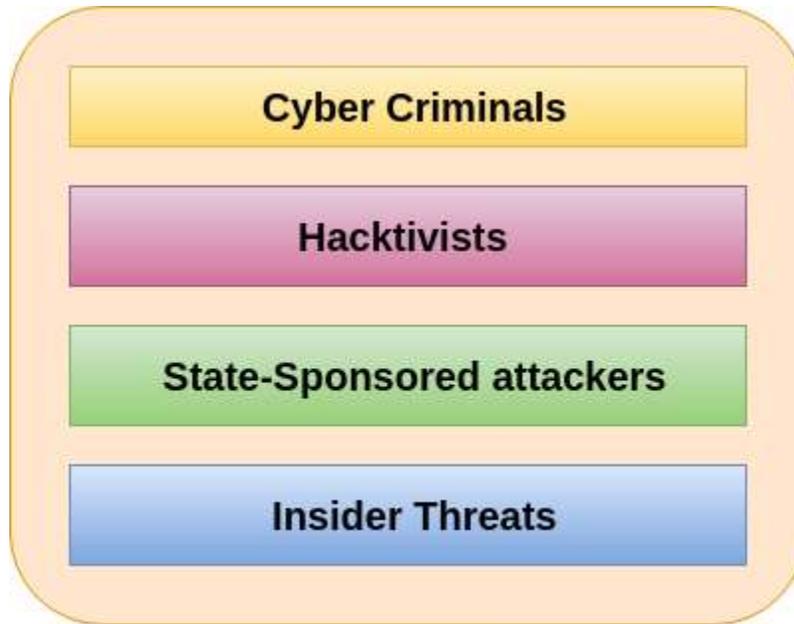
A bot (short for "robot") is an automated process that interacts with other network services. Some bots program run automatically, while others only execute commands when they receive specific input. Common examples of bots program are the crawler, chatroom bots, and malicious bots.

Types of Cyber Attackers

In computer and computer networks, an attacker is the individual or organization who performs the malicious activities to destroy, expose, alter, disable, steal or gain unauthorized access to or make unauthorized use of an asset.

As the Internet access becomes more pervasive across the world, and each of us spends more time on the web, there is also an attacker grows as well. Attackers use every tools and techniques they would try and attack us to get unauthorized access.

There are four types of attackers which are described below-



Types of CyberAttackers

Cyber Criminals

Cybercriminals are individual or group of people who use technology to commit cybercrime with the intention of stealing sensitive company information or personal data and generating profits. In today's, they are the most prominent and most active type of attacker.

Cybercriminals use computers in three broad ways to do cybercrimes-

- **Select computer as their target-** In this, they attack other people's computers to do cybercrime, such as spreading viruses, data theft, identity theft, etc.



- **Uses the computer as their weapon-** In this, they use the computer to do conventional crime such as spam, fraud, illegal gambling, etc.
- **Uses the computer as their accessory-** In this, they use the computer to steal data illegally.

Hacktivists

Hacktivists are individuals or groups of hackers who carry out malicious activity to promote a political agenda, religious belief, or social ideology. According to Dan Lohrmann, chief security officer for Security Mentor, a national security training firm that works with states said "Hacktivism is a digital disobedience. It's hacking for a cause." Hacktivists are not like cybercriminals who hack computer networks to steal data for the cash. They are individuals or groups of hackers who work together and see themselves as fighting injustice.

State-sponsored Attacker

State-sponsored attackers have particular objectives aligned with either the political, commercial or military interests of their country of origin. These type of attackers are not in a hurry. The government organizations have highly skilled hackers and specialize in detecting vulnerabilities and exploiting these before the holes are patched. It is very challenging to defeat these attackers due to the vast resources at their disposal.

Insider Threats

The insider threat is a threat to an organization's security or data that comes from within. These type of threats are usually occurred from employees or former employees, but may also arise from third parties, including contractors, temporary workers, employees or customers.

Insider threats can be categorized below-



Insider Threats

Malicious-

Malicious threats are attempts by an insider to access and potentially harm an organization's data, systems or IT infrastructure. These insider threats are often attributed to dissatisfied employees or ex-employees who believe that the organization was doing something wrong with them in some way, and they feel justified in seeking revenge.

Insiders may also become threats when they are disguised by malicious outsiders, either through financial incentives or extortion.

Accidental-

Accidental threats are threats which are accidentally done by insider employees. In this type of threats, an employee might accidentally delete an important file or inadvertently share confidential data with a business partner going beyond company's policy or legal requirements.



Negligent-

These are the threats in which employees try to avoid the policies of an organization put in place to protect endpoints and valuable data. For example, if the organization have strict policies for external file sharing, employees might try to share work on public cloud applications so that they can work at home. There is nothing wrong with these acts, but they can open up to dangerous threats nonetheless.

Cryptography

Cryptography is the science of encrypting and decrypting data. Based on complex mathematics, cryptography provides several important information security services such as authentication, confidentiality, integrity, and non-repudiation. Cryptographic protocols and applications make cryptography user-friendly and enable users to secure their data without having to carry out the complex mathematics themselves. Modern cryptography relies on cryptographic keys, usually a short string of text, for encoding and decoding messages in combination with cryptographic algorithms. Based on the type of keys used, cryptography is classified as either symmetric or asymmetric key cryptography. Both symmetric and asymmetric key cryptography provide data confidentiality. Asymmetric key encryption is sometimes called public key encryption. Digital signatures, one of the by-products of public key cryptography, enable the verification of authenticity, integrity, and non-repudiation.

Difference between Substitution Cipher Technique and Transposition Cipher Technique

Both **Substitution cipher technique** and **Transposition cipher technique** are the types of Traditional cipher which are used to convert the plain text into cipher text.

Substitution Cipher Technique:

In Substitution Cipher Technique plain text characters are replaced with other characters, numbers and symbols as well as in substitution Cipher Technique, character's identity is changed while its position remains unchanged.



Transposition Cipher Technique:

Transposition Cipher Technique rearranges the position of the plain text's characters. In transposition Cipher Technique, The position of the character is changed but character's identity is not changed.

Difference between Substitution Cipher Technique and Transposition Cipher Technique:

SUBSTITUTION CIPHER		
S.NO	TECHNIQUE	TRANSPOSITION CIPHER TECHNIQUE
1.	In substitution Cipher Technique, plain text characters are replaced with other characters, numbers and symbols.	In transposition Cipher Technique, plain text characters are rearranged with respect to the position.
2.	Substitution Cipher's forms are: Mono alphabetic substitution cipher and poly alphabetic substitution cipher.	Transposition Cipher's forms are: Key-less transposition cipher and keyed transposition cipher.



3. In substitution Cipher Technique, character's identity is changed while its position remains unchanged.

While in transposition Cipher Technique, The position of the character is changed but character's identity is not changed.

4. In substitution Cipher Technique, The letter with low frequency can detect plaint ext.

While in transposition Cipher Technique, The Keys which are nearer to correct key can disclose plain text.

5. The example of substitution Cipher is Caesar Cipher.

The example of transposition Cipher is Reil Fence Cipher.

One-time pad cipher

One-time pad cipher is a type of Vignere cipher which includes the following features –

It is an unbreakable cipher.

The key is exactly same as the length of message which is encrypted.

The key is made up of random symbols.



As the name suggests, key is used one time only and never used again for any other message to be encrypted.

Due to this, encrypted message will be vulnerable to attack for a cryptanalyst. The key used for a one-time pad cipher is called pad, as it is printed on pads of paper.

Why is it Unbreakable?

The key is unbreakable owing to the following features –

The key is as long as the given message.

The key is truly random and specially auto-generated.

Key and plain text calculated as modulo 10/26/2.

Each key should be used once and destroyed by both sender and receiver.

There should be two copies of key: one with the sender and other with the receiver.

Encryption

To encrypt a letter, a user needs to write a key underneath the plaintext. The plaintext letter is placed on the top and the key letter on the left. The cross section achieved between two letters is the plain text. It is described in the example below –

Decryption

To decrypt a letter, user takes the key letter on the left and finds cipher text letter in that row. The plain text letter is placed at the top of the column where the user can find the cipher text letter.



AES – The Advances Encryption Standard;

The more popular and widely adopted symmetric encryption algorithm likely to be encountered nowadays is the Advanced Encryption Standard (AES). It is found at least six time faster than triple DES.

A replacement for DES was needed as its key size was too small. With increasing computing power, it was considered vulnerable against exhaustive key search attack. Triple DES was designed to overcome this drawback but it was found slow.

The features of AES are as follows –

- Symmetric key symmetric block cipher
- 128-bit data, 128/192/256-bit keys
- Stronger and faster than Triple-DES
- Provide full specification and design details
- Software implementable in C and Java

Operation of AES

AES is an iterative rather than Feistel cipher. It is based on ‘substitution–permutation network’. It comprises of a series of linked operations, some of which involve replacing inputs by specific outputs (substitutions) and others involve shuffling bits around (permutations).

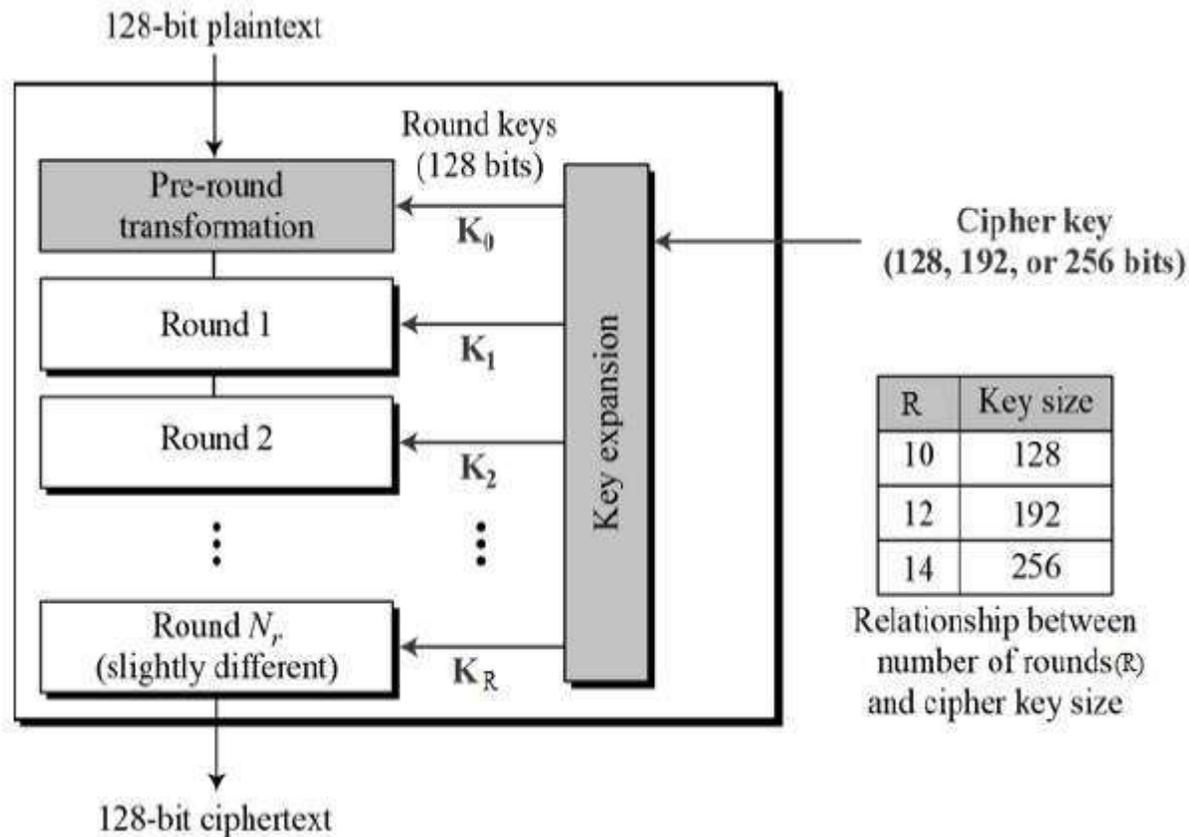
Interestingly, AES performs all its computations on bytes rather than bits. Hence, AES treats the 128 bits of a plaintext block as 16 bytes. These 16 bytes are arranged in four columns and four rows for processing as a matrix

–



Unlike DES, the number of rounds in AES is variable and depends on the length of the key. AES uses 10 rounds for 128-bit keys, 12 rounds for 192-bit keys and 14 rounds for 256-bit keys. Each of these rounds uses a different 128-bit round key, which is calculated from the original AES key.

The schematic of AES structure is given in the following illustration –



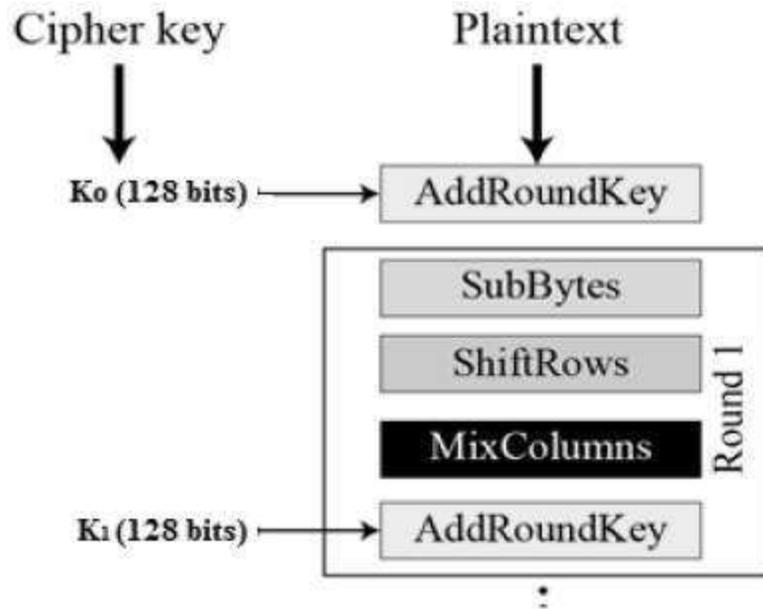
R	Key size
10	128
12	192
14	256

Relationship between number of rounds(R) and cipher key size

Encryption Process



Here, we restrict to description of a typical round of AES encryption. Each round comprise of four sub-processes. The first round process is depicted below –



Byte Substitution (SubBytes)

The 16 input bytes are substituted by looking up a fixed table (S-box) given in design. The result is in a matrix of four rows and four columns.

Shiftrows

Each of the four rows of the matrix is shifted to the left. Any entries that ‘fall off’ are re-inserted on the right side of row. Shift is carried out as follows –

- First row is not shifted.



- Second row is shifted one (byte) position to the left.
- Third row is shifted two positions to the left.
- Fourth row is shifted three positions to the left.
- The result is a new matrix consisting of the same 16 bytes but shifted with respect to each other.

MixColumns

Each column of four bytes is now transformed using a special mathematical function. This function takes as input the four bytes of one column and outputs four completely new bytes, which replace the original column. The result is another new matrix consisting of 16 new bytes. It should be noted that this step is not performed in the last round.

Addroundkey

The 16 bytes of the matrix are now considered as 128 bits and are XORed to the 128 bits of the round key. If this is the last round then the output is the ciphertext. Otherwise, the resulting 128 bits are interpreted as 16 bytes and we begin another similar round.

Decryption Process

The process of decryption of an AES ciphertext is similar to the encryption process in the reverse order. Each round consists of the four processes conducted in the reverse order –

- Add round key
- Mix columns
- Shift rows
- Byte substitution



Since sub-processes in each round are in reverse manner, unlike for a Feistel Cipher, the encryption and decryption algorithms need to be separately implemented, although they are very closely related.

AES Analysis

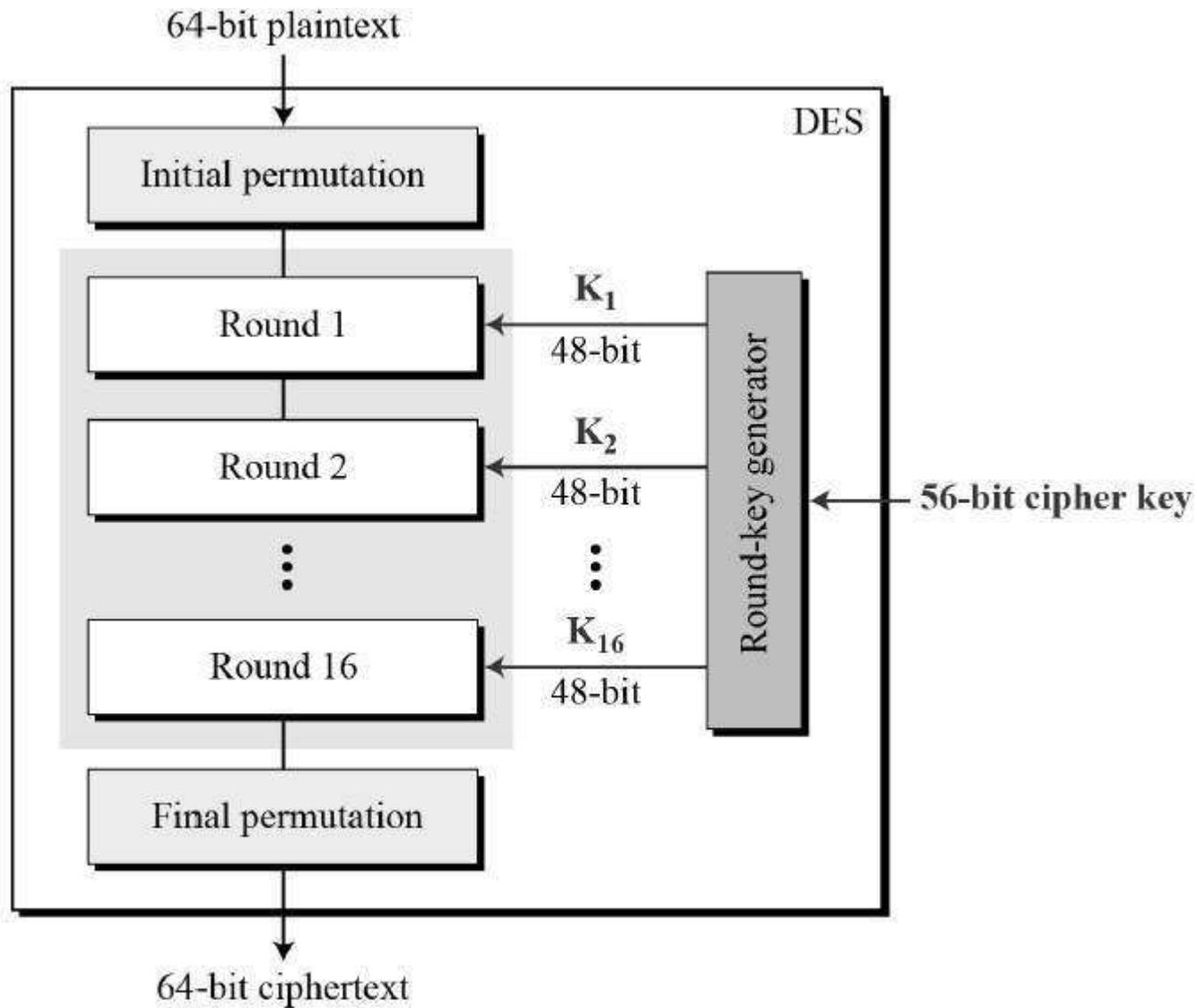
In present day cryptography, AES is widely adopted and supported in both hardware and software. Till date, no practical cryptanalytic attacks against AES have been discovered. Additionally, AES has built-in flexibility of key length, which allows a degree of 'future-proofing' against progress in the ability to perform exhaustive key searches.

However, just as for DES, the AES security is assured only if it is correctly implemented and good key management is employed.

Data Encryption Standard (DES)

The Data Encryption Standard (DES) is a symmetric-key block cipher published by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST).

DES is an implementation of a Feistel Cipher. It uses 16 round Feistel structure. The block size is 64-bit. Though, key length is 64-bit, DES has an effective key length of 56 bits, since 8 of the 64 bits of the key are not used by the encryption algorithm (function as check bits only). General Structure of DES is depicted in the following illustration –



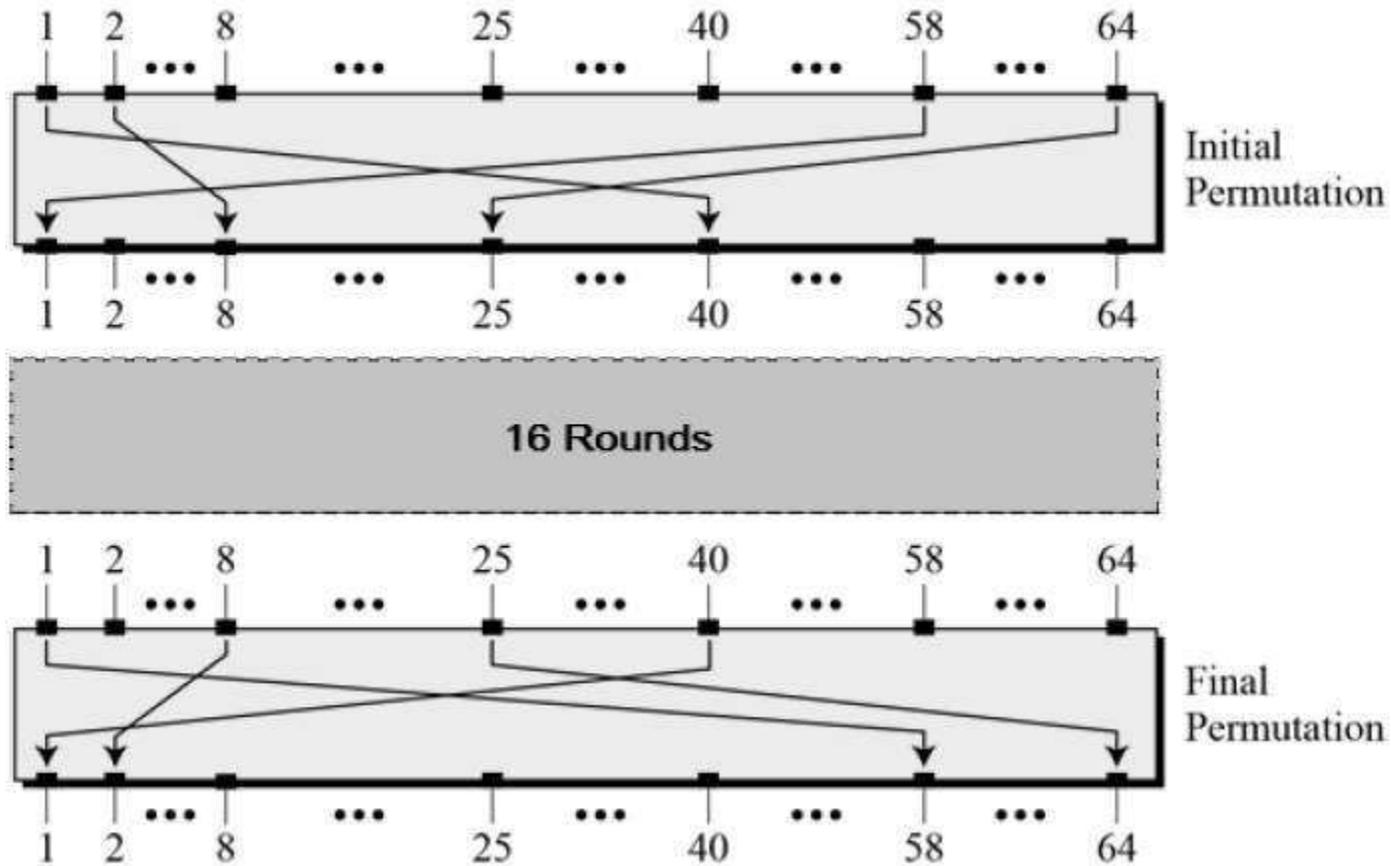
Since DES is based on the Feistel Cipher, all that is required to specify DES is –



- Round function
- Key schedule
- Any additional processing – Initial and final permutation

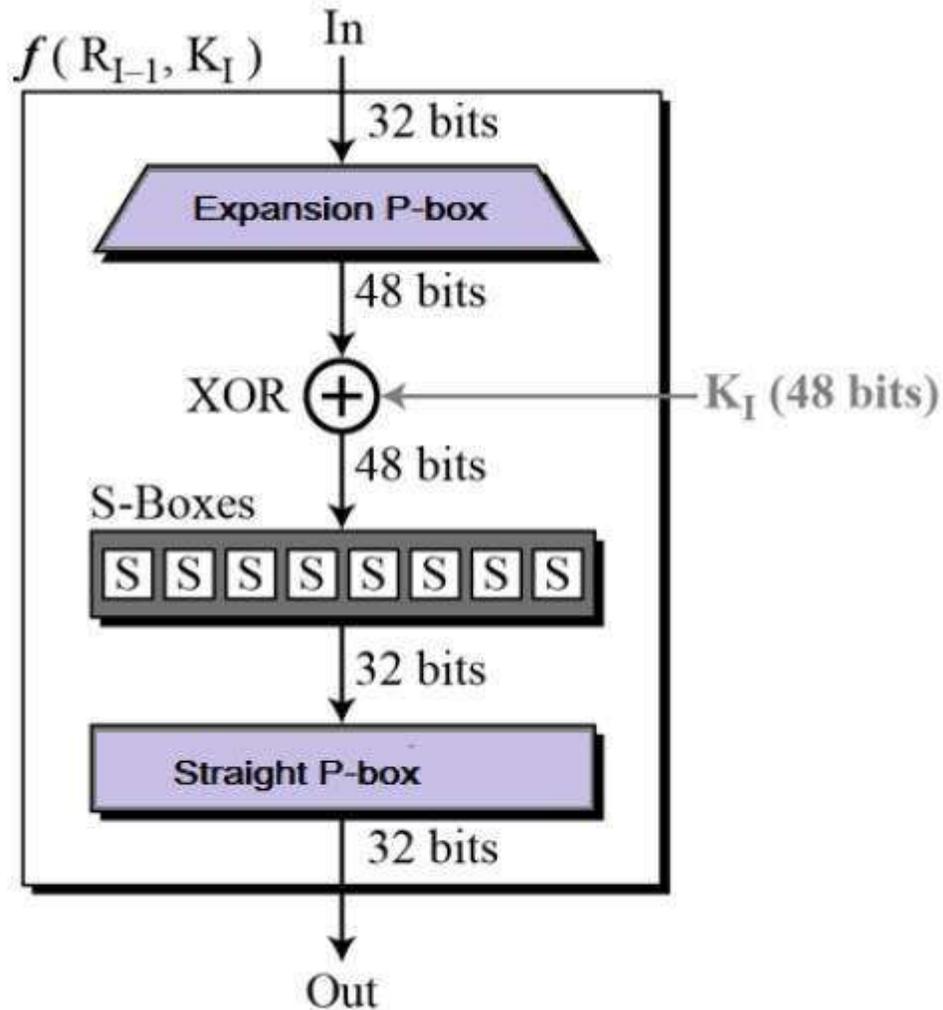
Initial and Final Permutation

The initial and final permutations are straight Permutation boxes (P-boxes) that are inverses of each other. They have no cryptography significance in DES. The initial and final permutations are shown as follows –

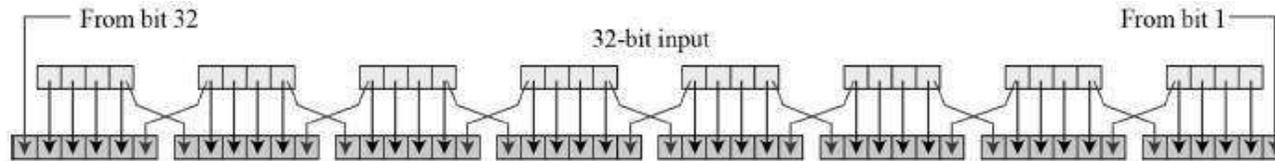


Round Function

The heart of this cipher is the DES function, f . The DES function applies a 48-bit key to the rightmost 32 bits to produce a 32-bit output.



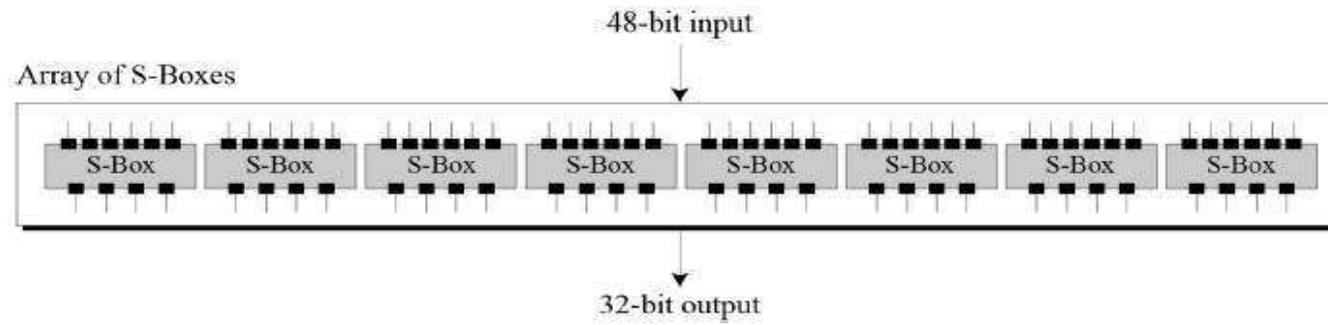
- **Expansion Permutation Box** – Since right input is 32-bit and round key is a 48-bit, we first need to expand right input to 48 bits. Permutation logic is graphically depicted in the following illustration –



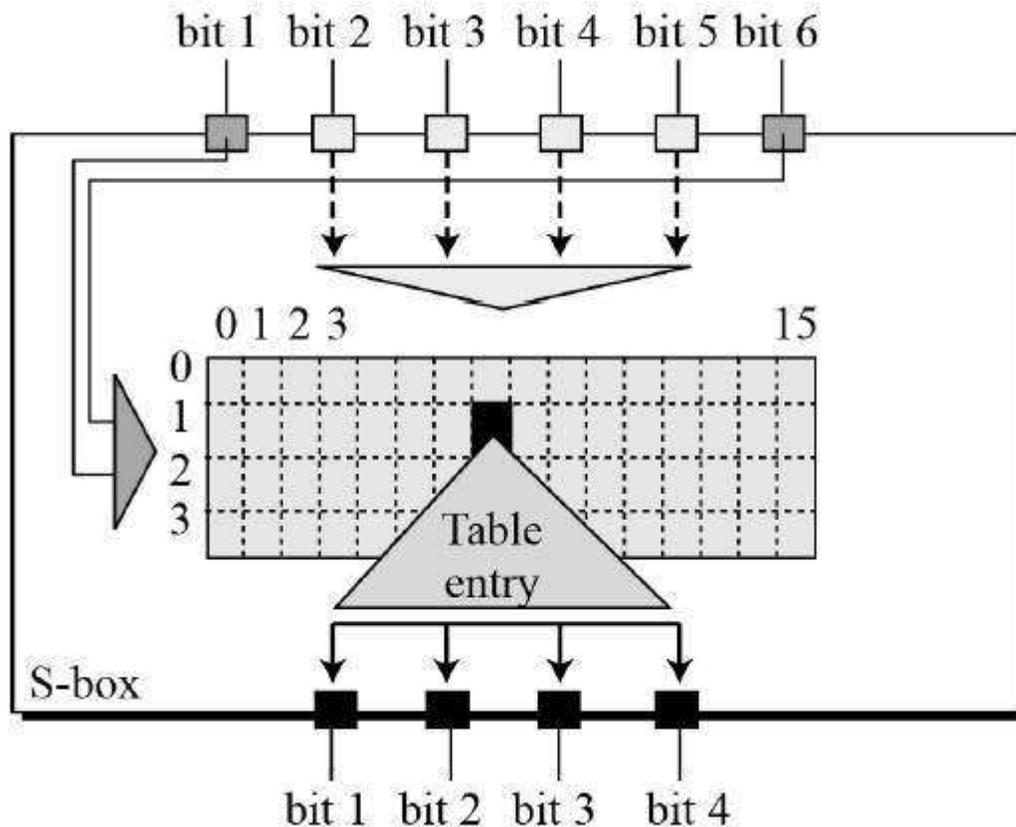
- The graphically depicted permutation logic is generally described as table in DES specification illustrated as shown –

32	01	02	03	04	05
04	05	06	07	08	09
08	09	10	11	12	13
12	13	14	15	16	17
16	17	18	19	20	21
20	21	22	23	24	25
24	25	26	27	28	29
28	29	31	31	32	01

- **XOR (Whitener).** – After the expansion permutation, DES does XOR operation on the expanded right section and the round key. The round key is used only in this operation.
- **Substitution Boxes.** – The S-boxes carry out the real mixing (confusion). DES uses 8 S-boxes, each with a 6-bit input and a 4-bit output. Refer the following illustration –



- The S-box rule is illustrated below –



- There are a total of eight S-box tables. The output of all eight s-boxes is then combined in to 32 bit section.
- **Straight Permutation** – The 32 bit output of S-boxes is then subjected to the straight permutation with rule shown in the following illustration:



16	07	20	21	29	12	28	17
01	15	23	26	05	18	31	10
02	08	24	14	32	27	03	09
19	13	30	06	22	11	04	25

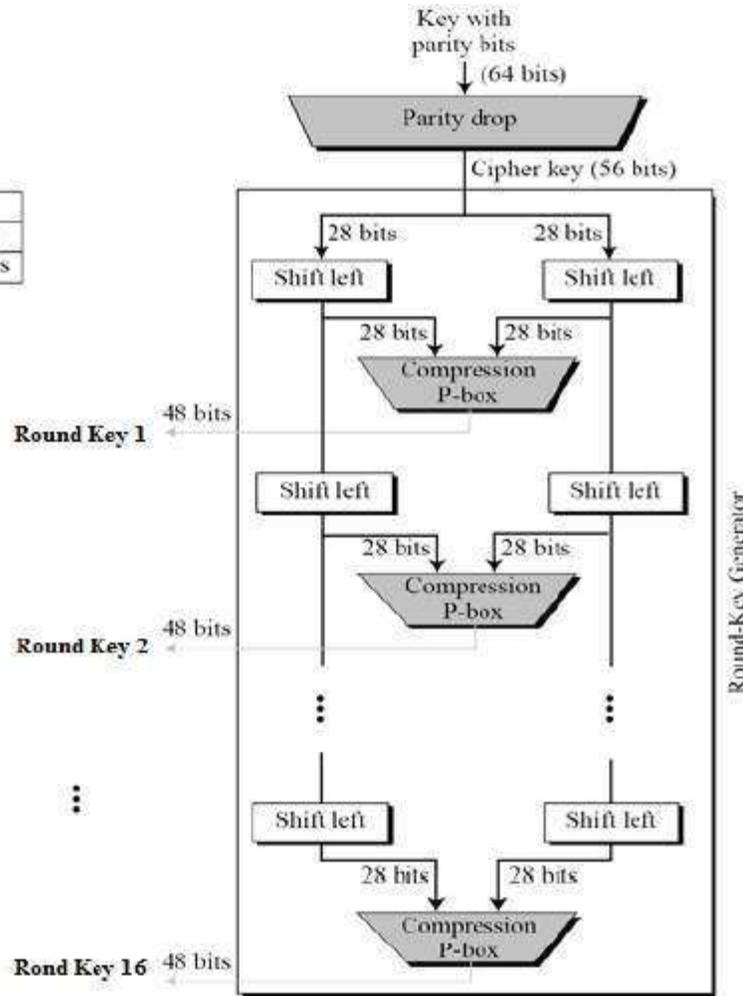
Key Generation

The round-key generator creates sixteen 48-bit keys out of a 56-bit cipher key. The process of key generation is depicted in the following illustration –



Shifting

Rounds	Shift
1, 2, 9, 16	one bit
Others	two bits



The logic for Parity drop, shifting, and Compression P-box is given in the DES description.

DES Analysis



The DES satisfies both the desired properties of block cipher. These two properties make cipher very strong.

- **Avalanche effect** – A small change in plaintext results in the very great change in the ciphertext.
- **Completeness** – Each bit of ciphertext depends on many bits of plaintext.

During the last few years, cryptanalysis have found some weaknesses in DES when key selected are weak keys. These keys shall be avoided.

DES has proved to be a very well designed block cipher. There have been no significant cryptanalytic attacks on DES other than exhaustive key search.

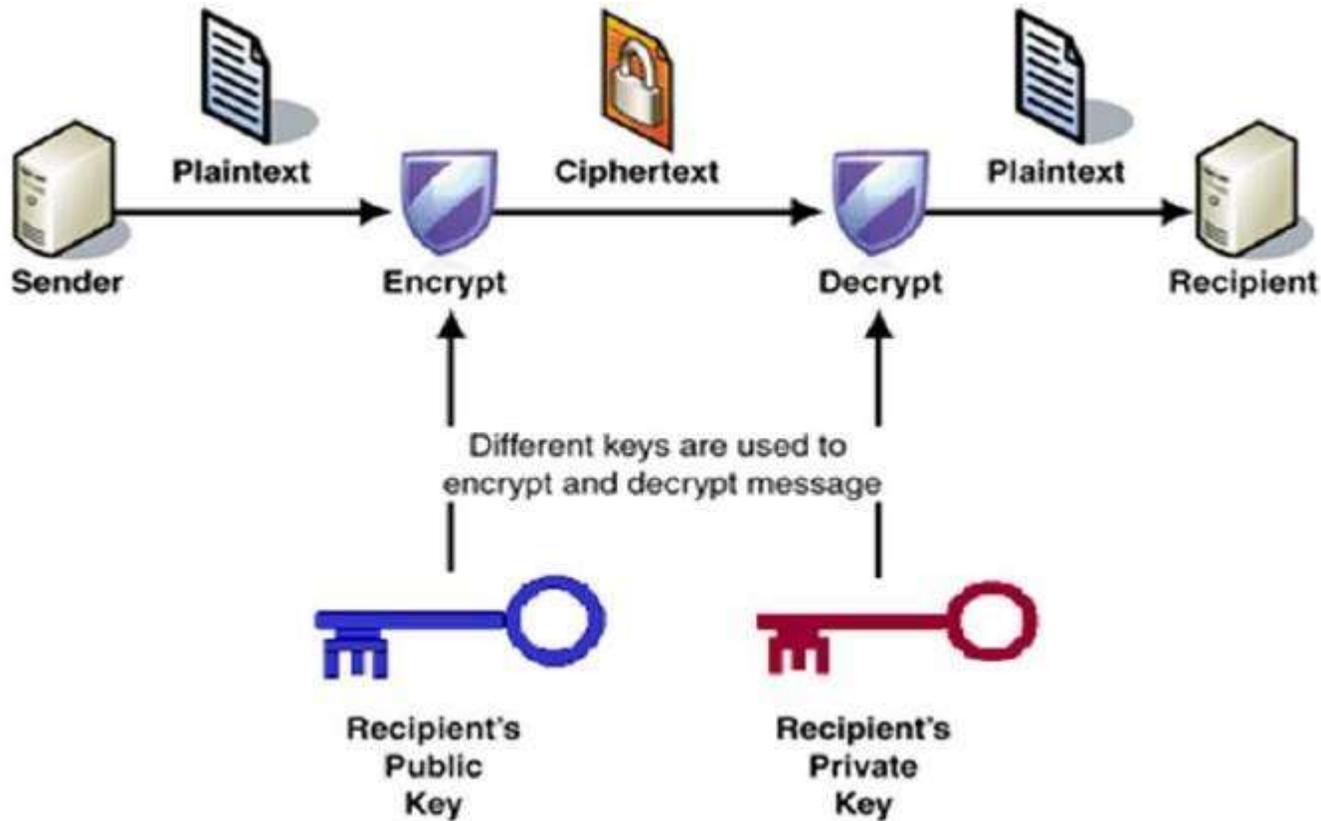
Public Key Cryptography

Unlike symmetric key cryptography, we do not find historical use of public-key cryptography. It is a relatively new concept.

Symmetric cryptography was well suited for organizations such as governments, military, and big financial corporations were involved in the classified communication.

With the spread of more unsecure computer networks in last few decades, a genuine need was felt to use cryptography at larger scale. The symmetric key was found to be non-practical due to challenges it faced for key management. This gave rise to the public key cryptosystems.

The process of encryption and decryption is depicted in the following illustration –



The most important properties of public key encryption scheme are –

- Different keys are used for encryption and decryption. This is a property which set this scheme different than symmetric encryption scheme.
- Each receiver possesses a unique decryption key, generally referred to as his private key.
- Receiver needs to publish an encryption key, referred to as his public key.



- Some assurance of the authenticity of a public key is needed in this scheme to avoid spoofing by adversary as the receiver. Generally, this type of cryptosystem involves trusted third party which certifies that a particular public key belongs to a specific person or entity only.
- Encryption algorithm is complex enough to prohibit attacker from deducing the plaintext from the ciphertext and the encryption (public) key.
- Though private and public keys are related mathematically, it is not be feasible to calculate the private key from the public key. In fact, intelligent part of any public-key cryptosystem is in designing a relationship between two keys.

There are three types of Public Key Encryption schemes. We discuss them in following sections –

RSA Cryptosystem

This cryptosystem is one the initial system. It remains most employed cryptosystem even today. The system was invented by three scholars **Ron Rivest**, **Adi Shamir**, and **Len Adleman** and hence, it is termed as RSA cryptosystem.

We will see two aspects of the RSA cryptosystem, firstly generation of key pair and secondly encryption-decryption algorithms.

Generation of RSA Key Pair

Each person or a party who desires to participate in communication using encryption needs to generate a pair of keys, namely public key and private key. The process followed in the generation of keys is described below –

- **Generate the RSA modulus (n)**
 - Select two large primes, p and q .



- Calculate $n=p*q$. For strong unbreakable encryption, let n be a large number, typically a minimum of 512 bits.
- **Find Derived Number (e)**
 - Number e must be greater than 1 and less than $(p - 1)(q - 1)$.
 - There must be no common factor for e and $(p - 1)(q - 1)$ except for 1. In other words two numbers e and $(p - 1)(q - 1)$ are coprime.
- **Form the public key**
 - The pair of numbers (n, e) form the RSA public key and is made public.
 - Interestingly, though n is part of the public key, difficulty in factorizing a large prime number ensures that attacker cannot find in finite time the two primes $(p \& q)$ used to obtain n . This is strength of RSA.
- **Generate the private key**
 - Private Key d is calculated from $p, q,$ and e . For given n and e , there is unique number d .
 - Number d is the inverse of e modulo $(p - 1)(q - 1)$. This means that d is the number less than $(p - 1)(q - 1)$ such that when multiplied by e , it is equal to 1 modulo $(p - 1)(q - 1)$.
 - This relationship is written mathematically as follows –

$$ed = 1 \text{ mod } (p - 1)(q - 1)$$

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm takes $p, q,$ and e as input and gives d as output.

Example



An example of generating RSA Key pair is given below. (For ease of understanding, the primes p & q taken here are small values. Practically, these values are very high).

- Let two primes be $p = 7$ and $q = 13$. Thus, modulus $n = pq = 7 \times 13 = 91$.
- Select $e = 5$, which is a valid choice since there is no number that is common factor of 5 and $(p - 1)(q - 1) = 6 \times 12 = 72$, except for 1.
- The pair of numbers $(n, e) = (91, 5)$ forms the public key and can be made available to anyone whom we wish to be able to send us encrypted messages.
- Input $p = 7$, $q = 13$, and $e = 5$ to the Extended Euclidean Algorithm. The output will be $d = 29$.
- Check that the d calculated is correct by computing –

$$de = 29 \times 5 = 145 = 1 \pmod{72}$$

- Hence, public key is $(91, 5)$ and private keys is $(91, 29)$.

Encryption and Decryption

Once the key pair has been generated, the process of encryption and decryption are relatively straightforward and computationally easy.

Interestingly, RSA does not directly operate on strings of bits as in case of symmetric key encryption. It operates on numbers modulo n . Hence, it is necessary to represent the plaintext as a series of numbers less than n .

RSA Encryption

- Suppose the sender wish to send some text message to someone whose public key is (n, e) .
- The sender then represents the plaintext as a series of numbers less than n .



- To encrypt the first plaintext P , which is a number modulo n . The encryption process is simple mathematical step as –

$$C = P^e \text{ mod } n$$

- In other words, the ciphertext C is equal to the plaintext P multiplied by itself e times and then reduced modulo n . This means that C is also a number less than n .
- Returning to our Key Generation example with plaintext $P = 10$, we get ciphertext C –

$$C = 10^5 \text{ mod } 91$$

RSA Decryption

- The decryption process for RSA is also very straightforward. Suppose that the receiver of public-key pair (n, e) has received a ciphertext C .
- Receiver raises C to the power of his private key d . The result modulo n will be the plaintext P .

$$\text{Plaintext} = C^d \text{ mod } n$$

- Returning again to our numerical example, the ciphertext $C = 82$ would get decrypted to number 10 using private key 29 –

$$\text{Plaintext} = 82^{29} \text{ mod } 91 = 10$$

RSA Analysis

The security of RSA depends on the strengths of two separate functions. The RSA cryptosystem is most popular public-key cryptosystem strength of which is based on the practical difficulty of factoring the very large numbers.



- **Encryption Function** – It is considered as a one-way function of converting plaintext into ciphertext and it can be reversed only with the knowledge of private key d .
- **Key Generation** – The difficulty of determining a private key from an RSA public key is equivalent to factoring the modulus n . An attacker thus cannot use knowledge of an RSA public key to determine an RSA private key unless he can factor n . It is also a one way function, going from p & q values to modulus n is easy but reverse is not possible.

If either of these two functions are proved non one-way, then RSA will be broken. In fact, if a technique for factoring efficiently is developed then RSA will no longer be safe.

The strength of RSA encryption drastically goes down against attacks if the number p and q are not large primes and/ or chosen public key e is a small number.

Digital signatures

Digital signatures are the public-key primitives of message authentication. In the physical world, it is common to use handwritten signatures on handwritten or typed messages. They are used to bind signatory to the message.

Similarly, a digital signature is a technique that binds a person/entity to the digital data. This binding can be independently verified by receiver as well as any third party.

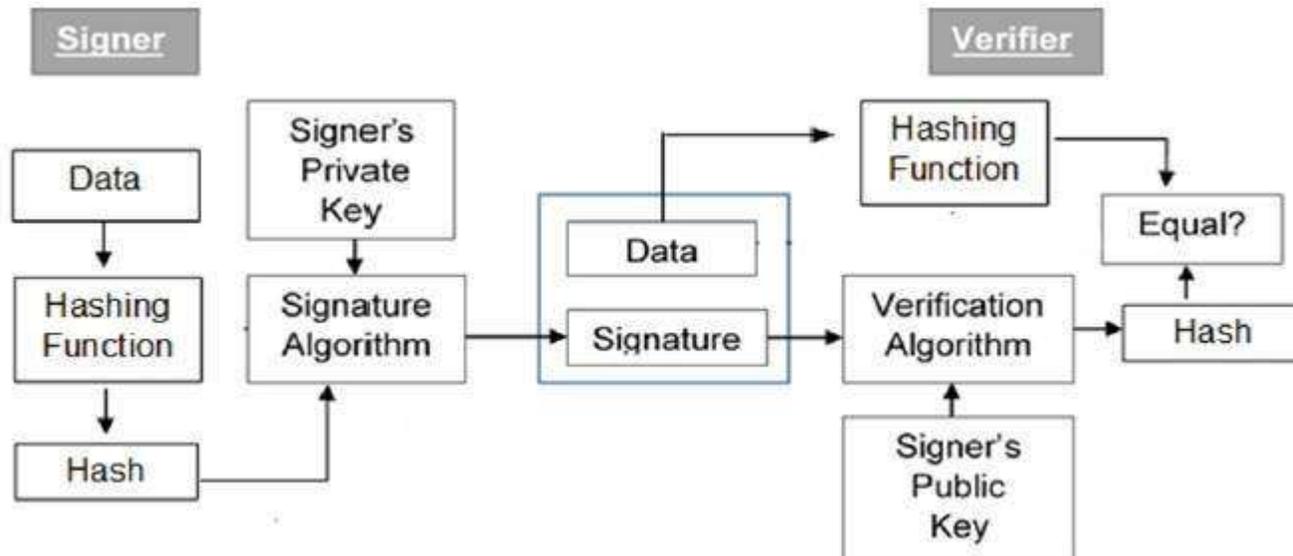
Digital signature is a cryptographic value that is calculated from the data and a secret key known only by the signer.

In real world, the receiver of message needs assurance that the message belongs to the sender and he should not be able to repudiate the origination of that message. This requirement is very crucial in business applications, since likelihood of a dispute over exchanged data is very high.



Model of Digital Signature

As mentioned earlier, the digital signature scheme is based on public key cryptography. The model of digital signature scheme is depicted in the following illustration –



The following points explain the entire process in detail –

- Each person adopting this scheme has a public-private key pair.
- Generally, the key pairs used for encryption/decryption and signing/verifying are different. The private key used for signing is referred to as the signature key and the public key as the verification key.
- Signer feeds data to the hash function and generates hash of data.
- Hash value and signature key are then fed to the signature algorithm which produces the digital signature on given hash. Signature is appended to the data and then both are sent to the verifier.



- Verifier feeds the digital signature and the verification key into the verification algorithm. The verification algorithm gives some value as output.
- Verifier also runs same hash function on received data to generate hash value.
- For verification, this hash value and output of verification algorithm are compared. Based on the comparison result, verifier decides whether the digital signature is valid.
- Since digital signature is created by ‘private’ key of signer and no one else can have this key; the signer cannot repudiate signing the data in future.

It should be noticed that instead of signing data directly by signing algorithm, usually a hash of data is created. Since the hash of data is a unique representation of data, it is sufficient to sign the hash in place of data. The most important reason of using hash instead of data directly for signing is efficiency of the scheme.

Let us assume RSA is used as the signing algorithm. As discussed in public key encryption chapter, the encryption/signing process using RSA involves modular exponentiation.

Signing large data through modular exponentiation is computationally expensive and time consuming. The hash of the data is a relatively small digest of the data, hence **signing a hash is more efficient than signing the entire data**.

Importance of Digital Signature

Out of all cryptographic primitives, the digital signature using public key cryptography is considered as very important and useful tool to achieve information security.

Apart from ability to provide non-repudiation of message, the digital signature also provides message authentication and data integrity. Let us briefly see how this is achieved by the digital signature –



- **Message authentication** – When the verifier validates the digital signature using public key of a sender, he is assured that signature has been created only by sender who possess the corresponding secret private key and no one else.
- **Data Integrity** – In case an attacker has access to the data and modifies it, the digital signature verification at receiver end fails. The hash of modified data and the output provided by the verification algorithm will not match. Hence, receiver can safely deny the message assuming that data integrity has been breached.
- **Non-repudiation** – Since it is assumed that only the signer has the knowledge of the signature key, he can only create unique signature on a given data. Thus the receiver can present data and the digital signature to a third party as evidence if any dispute arises in the future.

By adding public-key encryption to digital signature scheme, we can create a cryptosystem that can provide the four essential elements of security namely – Privacy, Authentication, Integrity, and Non-repudiation.

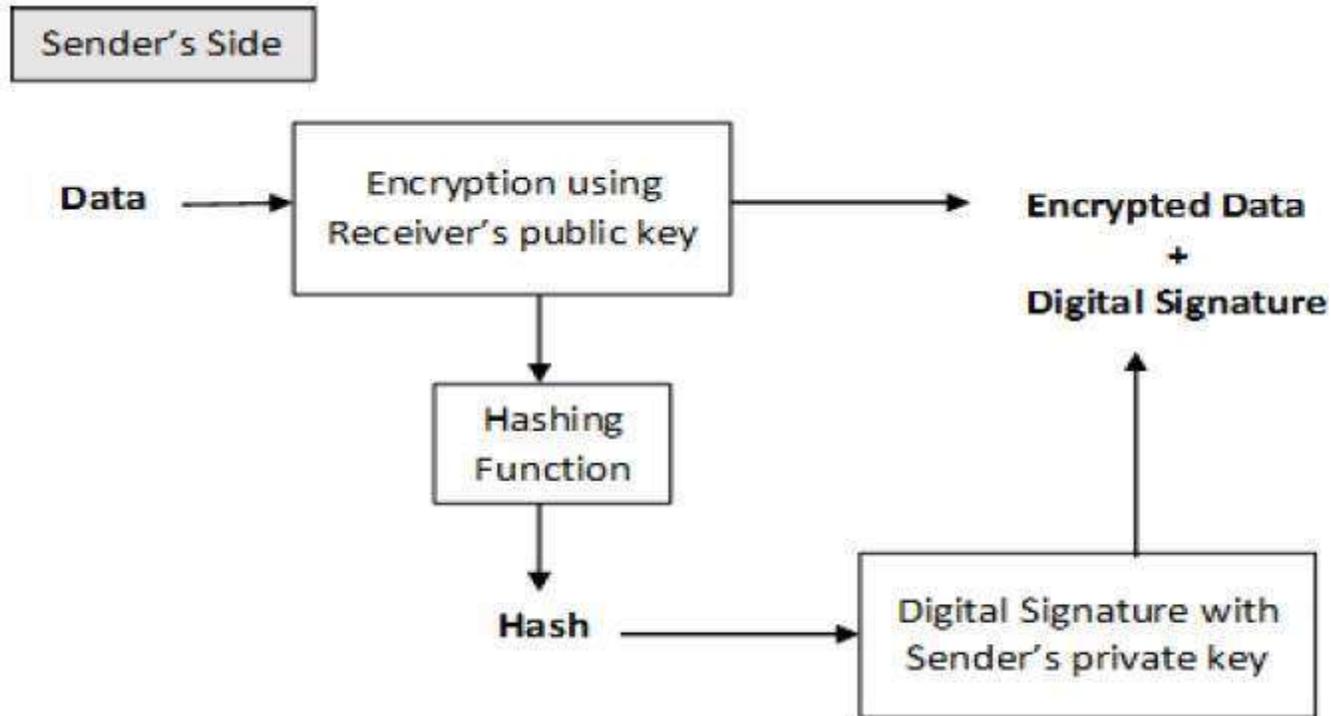
Encryption with Digital Signature

In many digital communications, it is desirable to exchange an encrypted messages than plaintext to achieve confidentiality. In public key encryption scheme, a public (encryption) key of sender is available in open domain, and hence anyone can spoof his identity and send any encrypted message to the receiver.

This makes it essential for users employing PKC for encryption to seek digital signatures along with encrypted data to be assured of message authentication and non-repudiation.

This can archived by combining digital signatures with encryption scheme. Let us briefly discuss how to achieve this requirement. There are **two possibilities, sign-then-encrypt** and **encrypt-then-sign**.

However, the crypto system based on sign-then-encrypt can be exploited by receiver to spoof identity of sender and sent that data to third party. Hence, this method is not preferred. The process of encrypt-then-sign is more reliable and widely adopted. This is depicted in the following illustration –



Message digests

The receiver after receiving the encrypted data and signature on it, first verifies the signature using sender's public key. After ensuring the validity of the signature, he then retrieves the data through decryption using his private key.

A message digest is a cryptographic hash function containing a string of digits created by a one-way hashing formula.



Message digests are designed to protect the integrity of a piece of data or media to detect changes and alterations to any part of a message. They are a type of cryptography utilizing hash values that can warn the copyright owner of any modifications applied to their work.

Message digest hash numbers represent specific files containing the protected works. One message digest is assigned to particular data content. It can reference a change made deliberately or accidentally, but it prompts the owner to identify the modification as well as the individual(s) making the change. Message digests are algorithmic numbers.

What is a Firewall?

A firewall is a type of cybersecurity tool that is used to filter traffic on a network. Firewalls can be used to separate network nodes from external traffic sources, internal traffic sources, or even specific applications. Firewalls can be software, hardware, or cloud-based, with each type of firewall having its own unique pros and cons.

The primary goal of a firewall is to block malicious traffic requests and data packets while allowing legitimate traffic through.

Packet-Filtering Firewalls



As the most “basic” and oldest type of firewall architecture, packet-filtering firewalls basically create a checkpoint at a traffic router or switch. The firewall performs a simple check of the data packets coming through the router—inspecting information such as the destination and origination IP address, packet type, port number, and other surface-level information without opening up the packet to inspect its contents.



If the information packet doesn't pass the inspection, it is dropped.

The good thing about these firewalls is that they aren't very resource-intensive. This means they don't have a huge impact on system performance and are relatively simple. However, they're also relatively easy to bypass compared to firewalls with more robust inspection capabilities.

Proxy Firewalls (Application-Level Gateways/Cloud Firewalls)

Proxy firewalls operate at the application layer to filter incoming traffic between your network and the traffic source—hence, the name “application-level gateway.” These firewalls are delivered via a cloud-based solution or another proxy device. Rather than letting traffic connect directly, the proxy firewall first establishes a connection to the source of the traffic and inspects the incoming data packet.

This check is similar to the stateful inspection firewall in that it looks at both the packet and at the TCP handshake protocol. However, proxy firewalls may also perform deep-layer packet inspections, checking the actual contents of the information packet to verify that it contains no malware.

steganography

Steganography is the technique of hiding secret data within an ordinary, non-secret, file or message in order to avoid detection; the secret data is then extracted at its destination. The use of steganography can be combined with encryption as an extra step for hiding or protecting data. The word *steganography* is derived from the Greek words *steganos* (meaning *hidden* or *covered*) and the Greek root *graph* (meaning *to write*).

Steganography can be used to conceal almost any type of digital content, including text, image, video or audio content; the data to be hidden can be hidden inside almost any other type of digital content. The content to be concealed through



steganography -- called *hidden text* -- is often encrypted before being incorporated into the innocuous-seeming *cover text* file or data stream. If not encrypted, the hidden text is commonly processed in some way in order to increase the difficulty of detecting the secret content.

Steganography is practiced by those wishing to convey a secret message or code. While there are many legitimate uses for steganography, malware developers have also been found to use steganography to obscure the transmission of malicious code.

Forms of steganography have been used for centuries and include almost any technique for hiding a secret message in an otherwise harmless container. For example, using invisible ink to hide secret messages in otherwise inoffensive messages; hiding documents recorded on microdot -- which can be as small as 1 millimeter in diameter -- on or inside legitimate-seeming correspondence; and even by using multiplayer gaming environments to share information.

Steganography techniques

In modern digital steganography, data is first encrypted or obfuscated in some other way and then inserted, using a special algorithm, into data that is part of a particular file format such as a JPEG image, audio or video file. The secret message can be embedded into ordinary data files in many different ways. One technique is to hide data in bits that represent the same color pixels repeated in a row in an image file. By applying the encrypted data to this redundant data in some inconspicuous way, the result will be an image file that appears identical to the original image but that has "noise" patterns of regular, unencrypted data.



The practice of adding a watermark -- a trademark or other identifying data hidden in multimedia or other content files -- is one common use of steganography. Watermarking is a technique often used by online publishers to identify the source of media files that have been found being shared without permission.

While there are many different uses of steganography, including embedding sensitive information into file types, one of the most common techniques is to embed a text file into an image file. When this is done, anyone viewing the image file should not be able to see a difference between the original image file and the encrypted file; this is accomplished by storing the message with less significant bites in the data file. This process can be completed manually or with the use of a steganography tool.

Advantages over cryptography

Steganography is distinct from cryptography, but using both together can help improve the security of the protected information and prevent detection of the secret communication. If steganographically-hidden data is also encrypted, the data may still be safe from detection -- though the channel will no longer be safe from detection. There are advantages to using steganography combined with encryption over encryption-only communication.

The primary advantage of using steganography to hide data over encryption is that it helps obscure the fact that there is sensitive data hidden in the file or other content carrying the hidden text. Whereas an encrypted file, message or network packet payload is clearly marked and identifiable as such, using steganographic techniques helps to obscure the presence of the secure channel.

Steganography software



Steganography software is used to perform a variety of functions in order to hide data, including encoding the data in order to prepare it to be hidden inside another file, keeping track of which bits of the cover text file contain hidden data, encrypting the data to be hidden and extracting hidden data by its intended recipient.

There are proprietary as well as open source and other free-to-use programs available for doing steganography. OpenStego is an open source steganography program; other programs can be characterized by the types of data that can be hidden as well as what types of files that data can be hidden inside. Some online steganography software tools include Xiao Steganography, used to hide secret files in BMP images or WAV files; Image Steganography, a Javascript tool that hides images inside other image files; and Crypture, a command line tool that is used to perform steganography.



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