



Internal Assessment Test - II

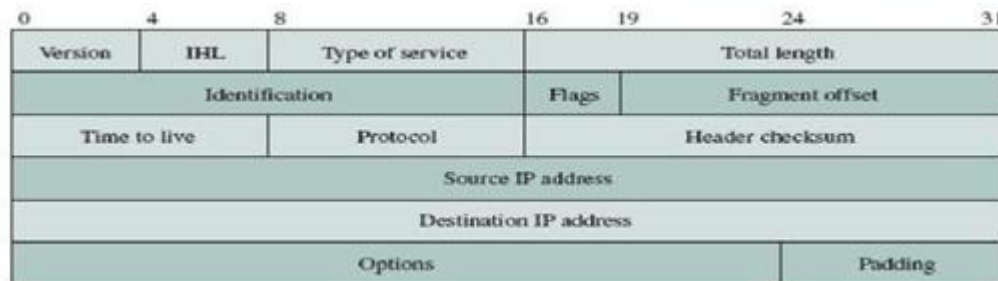
Sub:	<b>Computer Networks - 2</b>						Code:	<b>10CS64</b>	
Date:	09/ 05 / 2017	Duration:	90 mins	Max Marks:	50	Sem:	<b>VI A &amp; B</b>	Branch:	<b>ISE</b>

1. a) Explain the format of IPv4 basic header format.

[6] CO3 L2

**Internet Protocol**

- It provides best effort, connectionless packet delivery, packets may be lost, out of order, or even duplicated, so it is the responsibility of higher layer protocols to deal with these, if necessary.
- The header is of fixed-length component of 20 bytes plus variable-length consisting of options that can be up to 40 bytes.



**Version:** This field identifies the current IP version and it is 4.

**Internet header length (IHL):** It specifies the length of the header in 32-bit words. If no options are used, IHL will have value of 5.

**Type of service (TOS):** This field specifies the priority of packet based on delay, throughput, reliability and cost. Three bits are used to assign priority levels and four bits are used for specific requirement (i.e. delay, throughput, reliability and cost).

**Total length:** The total length specifies the number of bytes of the IP packet including header and data, maximum length is 65535 bytes.

**Identification, Flags, and Fragment Offset:** These fields are used for fragmentation and reassembly.

**Time to live (TTL):** It specifies the number of hops; the packet is allowed to traverse in the network. Each router along the path to the destination decrements this value by one. If the value reaches zero before the packet reaches the destination, the router discards the packet and sends an error message back to the source.

**Protocol:** specifies upper-layer protocol that is to receive IP data at the destination.

Examples include TCP (protocol = 6), UDP (protocol = 17), and ICMP (protocol = 1).

**Header checksum:** verifies the integrity of the IP header of the IP packet.

- IP header uses check bits to detect errors in the **header**
- A checksum is calculated for header contents
- Checksum recalculated at every router, so algorithm selected for ease of implementation in software
- **Source IP address** and **destination IP address:** contain the addresses of the source and destination hosts.
- **Options:** Variable length field allows packet to request special features such as security level, route to be taken by the packet, and timestamp at each router. Detailed descriptions of these options can be found in [RFC 791].
- **Padding:** This field is used to make the header a multiple of 32-bit words.

**b) With a neat diagram explain UDP datagram.**

**[4] CO3 L2**

UDP is a transport protocol

- UDP provides communication between processes
- UDP uses IP to deliver datagrams to the right host
- Connectionless
- No session is established.



Does not provide guaranteed delivery

- No sequence numbers
- No acknowledgements
- No flow control
- No error control
- Reliability is the responsibility of the application. Uses Port numbers as endpoints to communicate

**a) Explain IP address classification & Subnet addressing**

**[6] CO4 L2**

Each host on Internet has unique 32 bit IP address

Each address has two parts: netid and hostid

netid unique & administered by

American Registry for Internet Numbers (ARIN)

Reseaux IP Europeens (RIPE)

Asia Pacific Network Information Centre (APNIC)

Facilitates routing

A separate address is required for each physical connection of a host to a network; “multi-homed” hosts

Dotted-Decimal Notation:

int1.int2.int3.int4 where intj = integer value of jth octet

IP address of 10000000 10000111 01000100 00000101

is 128.135.68.5 in dotted-decimal notation

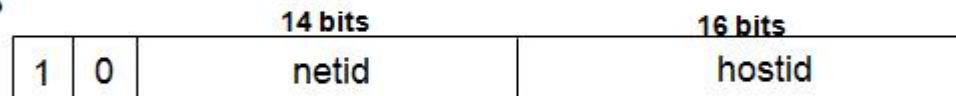
# Classful Addresses

## Class A



- 126 networks with up to 16 million hosts 1.0.0.0 to  
127.255.255.255

## Class B



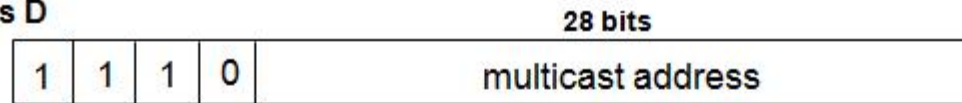
- 16,382 networks with up to 64,000 hosts 128.0.0.0 to  
191.255.255.255

## Class C



- 2 million networks with up to 254 hosts 192.0.0.0 to  
223.255.255.255

## Class D



224.0.0.0 to  
239.255.255.255

- Up to 250 million multicast groups at the same time
- Permanent group addresses
  - All systems in LAN; All routers in LAN;
  - All OSPF routers on LAN; All designated OSPF routers on a LAN, etc.
- Temporary groups addresses created as needed
- Special multicast routers

### Subnetting:

- Subnet addressing introduces another hierarchical level
- Transparent to remote networks
- Simplifies management of multiplicity of LANs
- Masking used to find subnet number



- Organization has Class B address (16 host ID bits) with network ID: 150.100.0.0
- Create subnets with up to 100 hosts each
  - 7 bits sufficient for each subnet
  - $16-7=9$  bits for subnet ID
- Apply subnet mask to IP addresses to find corresponding subnet
  - Example: Find subnet for 150.100.12.176
  - IP add = 10010110 01100100 00001100 10110000
  - Mask = 11111111 11111111 11111111 10000000
  - AND = 10010110 01100100 00001100 10000000
  - Subnet = 150.100.12.128

Subnet address used by routers within organization

**b) A host in an organization has an IP address 150.32.64.34 and subnet mask 255.255.240.0. What is the address of the subnet? What is the range of IP address that a host can have on this subnet.**

**[4] CO4 L3**

A host in an organization has an IP address 150.32.64.34 and a subnet mask 255.255.240.0. What is the address of this subnet? What is the range of IP address that a host can have in this subnet?

Soln.

IP Address : 150.32.64.34

↓

10010110 00100000 01000000 00100010

Subnet Mask : 255.255.240.0

↓

11111111 11111111 11110000 00000000

To find subnet: Do **AND** operation for IP Address & subnet mask.

So, 10010110 00100000 01000000 00100010

11111111 11111111 11110000 00000000

-----  
10010110 00100000 01000000 00000000

∴ Range of IP address starts from,

→ From: 10010110 00100000 01000000 00000001

To : 10010110 00100000 01001111 11111110

**3. What are the elements of network security? Explain the threats to network security. [10] CO5 L2**

**ThreatstoNetworkSecurity**

Internet infrastructure attacks are broadly classified into four categories, as follows:

- DNS hacking attacks
- Routing table poisoning attacks
- Packet mistreatment attacks
- Denial of service attacks

Among these threats, the first three attacks are related to network infrastructure; denial-of-service attacks are related to end systems.

**DNS Hacking Attacks**

In the normal mode of operation, hosts send UDP queries to the DNS server.

DNS servers reply with a proper answer, or direct the queries to smarter servers.

**A DNS hacking attack may result in the lack of data authenticity and integrity and can appear in any of the following forms:**

An information-level attack forces a server to respond with something other than the correct answer. With cache poisoning, a hacker tricks a remote name server into caching the answer for a third-party domain by providing malicious information for the domain's authorized servers. Hackers can then redirect traffic to a preselected site.

**DNS Hacking Attacks**

In a masquerading attack, the adversary poses as a trusted entity to obtain secret information. In this guise, the attacker can stop any message from being transmitted further or can change the content or redirect the packet to bogus servers. This action is also known as a man-in-the-middle attack.



The attacker normally sends queries to each host and receives in reply the DNS host name. In an information leakage attack, the attacker sends queries to all hosts and identifies which IP addresses are not used. Later on, the intruder can use those IP addresses to make other types of attacks.

### **DNS Hacking Attacks**

Once a domain name is selected, it has to be registered. Various tools are available to register domain names over the Internet.

If the tools are not smart enough, an invader might obtain secure information and use it to hijack the domain later. In the domain hijacking attack, whenever a user enters a domain address, he or she is forced to enter the attacker's Web site. This can be very irritating and can cause a great loss of Internet usage ability.

### **Routing Table Poisoning Attacks**

A routing table poisoning attack is the undesired modification of routing tables. An attacker can do this by maliciously modifying the routing information update packets sent by routers.

This is a challenging and important problem, as a routing table is the basis of routing in the Internet.

Any false entry in a routing table could lead to significant consequences, such as congestion, an overwhelmed host, looping, illegal access to data, and network partition.

Two types of routing table poisoning attacks are:

1. link attack
2. router attack.

### **Routing Table Poisoning Attacks**

#### **Link Attack**

A link attack occurs when a hacker gets access to a link and thereby intercepts, interrupts, or modifies routing messages on packets.

Link attacks act similarly on both the link-state and the distance-vector protocols. If an attacker succeeds in placing an attack in a link-state routing protocol, a router may send incorrect updates about its neighbors or remain silent even if the link state of its neighbor has changed.

The attack through a link can be so severe that the attacker can program a router to either drop packets from a victim or readdress packets to a victim, resulting in a lower throughput of the network.

Sometimes, a router can stop an intended packet from being forwarded further. However, since more than one path to any destination exists, the packet ultimately reaches its destination.

## **Routing Table Poisoning Attacks**

### **Router Attacks**

Router attacks may affect the link-state protocol or even the distance-vector protocol.

If link-state protocol routers are attacked, they become malicious. They may add a non-existing link to a routing table, delete an existing link, or even change the cost of a link.

This attack may cause a router to simply ignore the updates sent by its neighbors, leading to a serious impact on the operability of the network traffic flow.

In the distance-vector protocol, an attacker may cause routers to send wrong updates about any node in the network, thereby misleading a router and resulting in network problems.

## **Routing Table Poisoning Attacks**

Most unprotected routers have no way to validate updates. Therefore, both link-state and distance-vector router attacks are very effective.

In the distance-vector protocol, for example, a malicious router can send wrong information in the form of a distance vector to all its neighbors.

A neighbor may not be able to detect this kind of attack and thus proceeds to update its routing table, based on wrong distance vectors.

The error can in turn be propagated to a great portion of the network before being detected.

## **Packet-Mistreatment Attacks**

A packet-mistreatment attack can occur during any data transmission. A hacker may capture certain data packets and mistreat them. This type of attack is very difficult to detect.

The attack may result in congestion, lower throughput, and denial-of-service attacks.

Similar to routing table poisoning attacks, packet-mistreatment attacks can also be sub-classified into link attacks and router attacks.

The link attack causes interruption, modification, or replication of data packets.

A router attack can misroute all packets, which may result in congestion or denial of service.

## **Packet-Mistreatment Attacks**

### **Some examples of a packet-mistreatment attack:**

**Interruption.** If an attacker intercepts packets, they may not be allowed to be propagated to their destinations, resulting in a lower throughput of the network. This kind of attack cannot be detected easily, as even in normal operations, routers can drop some packets for various reasons.

**Modification.** Attackers may succeed in accessing the content of a packet while in transit and change its content. They can then change the address of the packet or even change its data.

## **Packet-Mistreatment Attacks**

**Replication.** An attacker might trap a packet and replay it. This kind of attack can be detected by using the sequence number for each packet.

**Ping of death.** An attacker may send a ping message, which is large and therefore must be fragmented for transport. The receiver then starts to reassemble the fragments as the ping fragments arrive. The total packet length becomes too large and might cause a system crash.

**Malicious misrouting of packets.** A hacker may attack a router and change its routing table, resulting in misrouting of data packets, causing a denial of service.

## **Denial-of-Service Attacks**

A denial-of-service attack is a type of security breach that prohibits a user from accessing normally provided services:

The denial of service does not result in information theft or any kind of information loss but can nonetheless be very dangerous, as it can cost the target person a large amount of time and money. Denial-of-service attacks affect the destination rather than a data packet or router.

A denial-of-service attack affects a specific network service, such as e-mail or DNS. For example, such an attack may overwhelm the DNS server in various ways and make it inoperable.

## **Denial-of-Service Attacks**

One way of initiating a denial-of-service attack is by causing a buffer overflow. Inserting an executable code inside memory can potentially cause a buffer overflow.

Denial-of-service attacks are easy to generate but may be difficult to detect. They take important servers out of action for a few hours, thereby denying service to all users.

Several other situations can also cause this kind of attack, such as UDP flood, TCP flood, and ICMP flood. In all these attacks, the hacker's main aim is to overwhelm victims and disrupt services provided to them.

## **Denial-of-Service Attacks**

### **Denial-of-service attacks are of two types:**

1. Single-source. An attacker sends a large number of packets to a target system to overwhelm and disable it. These packets are designed such that their real sources cannot be identified.
2. Distributed. In this type of attack, a large number of hosts are used to flood unwanted traffic to a single target. The target cannot then be accessible to other users in the network, as it is processing the flood of traffic.

**4.Explain the following:**  
**a) DNS message format with a neat diagram**

[10] CO5 L2

DNS has two types of messages: query and response. Both types have the same format. The query message consists of a header and the question records; the response message consists of a header, question records, answer records, authoritative records, and additional records.

**Header**

Both query and response messages have the same header format with some fields set to zero for the query messages. the header is 12 byte and its format is as follows:

**Identification**

Number of question records

Number of authoritative records(All os in query message)

**flags**

Number of answer records(All os in query message)

Number of additional records(All os in query message)

**The header fields are as follows:**

- **Identification.** 16 bit field used by the client to match the response with the query. The client uses identification number each time it sends a query. the server duplicates this number in response.
- **Flags.** 16 bit field consisting of other subfields as shown below.
  1. QR (query/response). If set (1) means message is a response , if 0 it means message type is query.
  2. OpCode. 4-bit defines type of query or response (0-standard, 1-inverse, 2-server status required).
  3. AA (authoritative answer). (1-bit and used inly in response message. Set (1)-means Authoritative server).
  4. TC (truncated) . if set means value of 1, means messgae was more than 512 bytes and is truncated.
  5. RD (recursion desired). A 1-bit field, when set means client desires reursive answer. It is repeated in both request and response.
  6. RA (recursion available). 1-bit, and it is set only in response message to indiacate that recursion is available.
  7. Reserved. A 3-bit subfield set to 000.

8. rCode. A 4-bit field which shows the status of error in the response. Of course, only an authoritative server can make such judgement.

Values of rCode:

1. 0 - No error
  2. 1 - Format error.
  3. 2 - Problem at name server.
  4. 3 - Domain reference problem.
  5. 4 - Query type not supported.
  6. 5 - Administratively prohibited.
  7. 6-15 - Reserved
- Number of Question Records. This is a 16-bit field consisting of number of queries in question section of message.
  - Number of Answer Records. This is a 16-bit field containing the number of answer records in the answer section of response message. Its value is 0 in the query message.
  - Number of authoritative records. A sixteen bit field which tells the number of authoritative records in the authoritative section of the response message. Its value is zero in the query message.
  - Number of additional records. This is a 16 bit field containing the number of additional records in the additional section of the response message.

### **Question Section**

This is a section consisting of one or more question records. It is present on both query and response messages

### **Answer Section**

This is section consisting of one or more resource records. It is present only in response messages. This section includes answer from the server to the client (resolver).

### **Authoritative Section**

This section is also contained only in response messages of DNS, and gives information about domain names regarding authoritative servers for the query.

### **Additional Information Section**

This section provides additional information to help the resolver and present only in response part of DNS message format.

This was discussion about the format of DNS message. We discussed about various sections of Domain Name System message format like header, question section, answer

section, authoritative section, and Additional information section of Domain Name System (DNS) messages.

## **b) Remote login protocols**

- **TELNET Protocol** TELNET (terminal network) is a TCP/IP standard for establishing a connection to a remote system. TELNET allows a user to log in to a remote machine across the Internet by first making a TCP connection and then pass the detail of the application from the user to the remote machine..
- **Logging to Remote Servers With TELNET**, an application program on the user's machine becomes the client. The user's keyboard and its monitor also attach directly to the remote server. The remotelogging operation is based on timesharing, whereby an authorized user has a login name and a password. TELNET has the following properties. •
- Client programs are built to use the standard client/server interfaces without knowing the details of server programs.
- A client and a server can negotiate data format options. • Once a connection is established through TELNET, both ends of the connection are treated symmetrically. When a user logs in to a remote server, the client's terminal driver accepts the keystrokes and interprets them as characters by its operating system. Characters are typically transformed to a universal character set called network virtual terminal (NVT), which uses 7-bit USASCII representation for data. The client then establishes a TCP connection to the server.
- Texts in the NVT format are transmitted using a TCP session and are delivered to the operating system of the remote server. The server converts the characters back from NVT to the local client machine's format. **Secure Shell (SSH) Protocol** Secure Shell (SSH), another remote login protocol, is based on UNIX programs. SSH uses TCP for communications but is more powerful and flexible than TELNET and allows the user to more easily execute a single command on a remote client.
- SSH has the following advantages over TELNET. • SSH provides a secure communication by encrypting and authenticating messages. SSH provides several additional data transfers over the same connection by multiplexing multiple channels that are used for remote login.
- SSH security is implemented by using public-key encryption between the client and remote servers. When a user establishes a connection to a remote server, the data being transmitted remains confidential even if an intruder obtains a copy of the packets sent over an SSH connection.

- SSH also implements an authentication process on messages so that a server can find out and verify the host attempting to form a connection. Normally, SSH requires users to enter a private password. The advantage of port forwarding is that application data can be passed between two sites the client and the second server without requiring a second client and server the first server as a client and the second server.

**5a) Define the network management. Explain the SNMP with SNMP messages.** [5]  
CO5 L2

### SNMP Message Types

There are five types of messages exchanged in SNMP. They are referred to by Protocol Data Unit (PDU) type.

PDU Type	Name	Description
0	get-request	Get one or more variables .(manager to element)
1	get-next-request	Get next variable after one or more specified variables. (manager to element)
2	set-request	Set one or more variables. (manager to element)
3	get-response	Return value of one or More variables. (element to manager)
4	trap	Notify manager of an event. (element to manager)

**b) Explain the Diffie-Hillman exchange for key generation.** [5]  
CO5 L2

### Diffie-HellmanKey-ExchangeProtocol

In theDiffie-Hellmankey-exchangeprotocol, two end users can agree ona shared secretcodewithoutany information shared in advance.Thus, intruders wouldnot beable to access the transmittedcommunication between the two users or discoverthe shared secretcode.

This protocolis normally used for virtualprivate networks (VPNs)

The essenceof this protocol fortwo users,1 and 2,is as follows. Suppose thatuser 1 selectsa primea, a random integer numberx1, and a generatorgand createsy1 {1,2,...,a-1}such that,



In practice, the two end users agree on a and  $g$  ahead of time. User 2 performs the same function and creates  $y_2$ :  
User 1 then sends  $y_1$  to user 2. Now, user 1 forms its key,  $k_1$ , using the information its partner sent as  
User 2 forms its key,  $k_2$ , using the information its partner sent as  
It can easily be proved that the two keys  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are equal. Therefore, the two users can now encrypt their messages, each using its own key created by the other one's information.

**6 Apply RSA and do the following:**

**[10] CO5 L3**

**a) Suppose  $p=5$  and  $q=11$ . Find  $e$  and  $d$ .**

**b) Encrypt the following and to get the cipher texts  $p_1=18$ ,  $p_2=19$  and  $p_3=1$**

**c) Decrypt the cipher texts obtained above**

6. a)  $p=5$  and  $q=11$

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= (p-1)(q-1) \\ &= (5-1)(11-1) \\ &= 4 \times 10 \\ &= 40 \end{aligned}$$

prime factors of 40 =  $10 \times 2 \times 2$

$\lambda =$  relative prime factor

$\lambda = 3$

for  $y$ :

$$1 = x * y \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$$

$$1 = 3 * y \pmod{40}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{y = 27}$$

b)  $p_1 = 18$  ,  $p_2 = 19$  ,  $p_3 = 1$

to encrypt the cipher text, we have

$$C = m^x \pmod{n}$$

where,

$$n = p * q = 5 * 11 = 55$$

for  $p_1 = 18$

$$C_1 = 18^x \pmod{55}$$

$$= 18^3 \pmod{55}$$

$$= 18^3 \% 55$$

$$= 5832 \% 55$$

$$= 2$$

for  $p_2 = 19$

$$C_2 = 19^x \pmod{55}$$

$$= 19^3 \pmod{55}$$

$$= 19^3 \% 55$$

$$= 6859 \% 55$$

$$= 39$$

for  $p_3 = 1$

$$C_3 = 1^3 \pmod{55}$$

$$= 1 \% 55$$

$$= 1$$



c) decrypt of cipher texts can be obtained from

$$m = C^t \pmod{n}$$

→ for  $c_1 = 3$

$$\begin{aligned} m_1 &= 3^{27} \pmod{55} \\ &= 3^{27} \div 55 \\ &= 134217728 \div 55 = \underline{\underline{18}} \end{aligned}$$

→ for  $c_2 = 2$

$$\begin{aligned} m_2 &= 2^{27} \pmod{55} \\ &= 2^{27} \div 55 \\ &= 9.093 \times 10^{42} \div 55 = \underline{\underline{19}} \end{aligned}$$

→ for  $c_3 = 1$

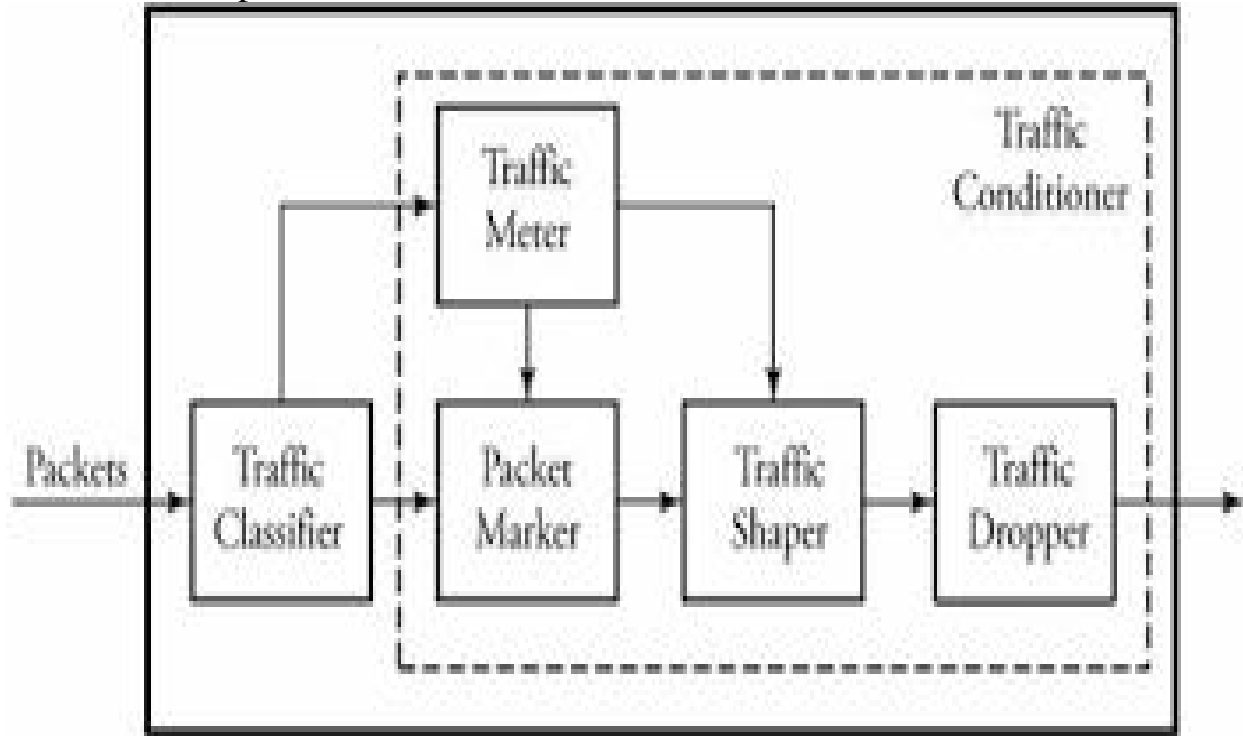
$$\begin{aligned} m_3 &= 1^{27} \div 55 \\ &= 1 \div 55 \\ &= \underline{\underline{1}} \end{aligned}$$

**7. a) Explain the overview of differentiated services operation with a neat diagram.**  
[6] CO5 L2

It provides a simpler and more scalable QoS.

DS minimizes the amount of storage needed in a router by processing traffic flows in an aggregate manner, moving all the complex procedures from the core to the edge of the network.

Traffic Conditioner – protect DiffServ domain



Traffic conditioner includes 4 components :

**Traffic meter** – measures the traffic to make sure that packets do not exceed their traffic profiles.

**Traffic marker** – marks or unmarks packets in order to keep track of their situations in the DS node.

**Traffic shaper** – delays any packet that is not compliant with the traffic profile.

**Traffic dropper** – discards any packet that violates its traffic profile.

**Bandwidth broker** – to manage the traffic - it operates in its own domain and maintains contact with other bandwidth brokers at neighboring domains.

**Service Level Agreement(SLA)** – It includes Traffic conditioning Agreement(TCA). SLA indicates the type of forwarding service and TCA presents all the traffic parameters that a customer receives.

SLA can be static or dynamic.

**Static SLA** – long term agreement

**Dynamic SLA** – uses bandwidth broker that allows users to make changes more frequently.

To establish traffic-policing scheme, a service provider uses,

Traffic classifier – routes packets to specific outputs based on the values found inside multiple fields of a packet header.

Traffic conditioner – detects and responds if any packet has violated any of the rules specified in the TCA.

**DiffServ Field(8 bits)**-to replace the IPv4 TOS field and the IPv6 traffic class field.  
6 bits – used as differentiated services code point (DSCP) to specify its PHB.  
2 bits – unused and ignored by the DS node

**b) Explain VPN and its types based on tunnelling.**

[4]

**CO5 L2**

## **Tunneling**

Tunneling can also be formed at network-and transport-layer protocols, where equal layers are involved, such as IP-in-IP tunnels.

A packet with a link-layer header, network-layer header, and transport-layer header is a result of three packet encapsulation acts in which:

The payload has been encapsulated in the transport-layer “segment.”

The result has been in turn encapsulated in the network-layer “datagram.”

Finally that result has been encapsulated in the link-layer.”

t

Two hosts are connected through the Internet by using a tunnel:

The router adjacent to host 1 prepares packets with IP1 and UDP1 headers (the link-layer header is not shown for simplicity) and payload1.

IP1 implies the source and destination addresses are host 1 and host 2, respectively

When the packet reaches the beginning of the tunnel, R3 encapsulates the packet into a new packet with IP2 addressing.

IP2 implies the source and destination addresses inside the tunnel are R3 to R6, respectively

IP1, UDP1, and payload1 collectively shown by payload2 are considered as the payload of the new packet.

We assume that there is no change required on the transport-layer header, and thus, UDP1 can also be used for the encapsulating packet.

The transport-layer header could also be encapsulated and thus the newly created packet could use its own transport protocol.

Tunneling protocols, such as the **Point-to-Point Protocol (PPP)** or the **Point-to-**

**Point Tunneling Protocol (PPTP)**, are encapsulating protocols that allow an organization to establish secure connections from one point to another while using public resources.

A PPP connection is a serial connection between a user and an Internet service provider.

8. Explain the following:

a) Address Resolution protocol

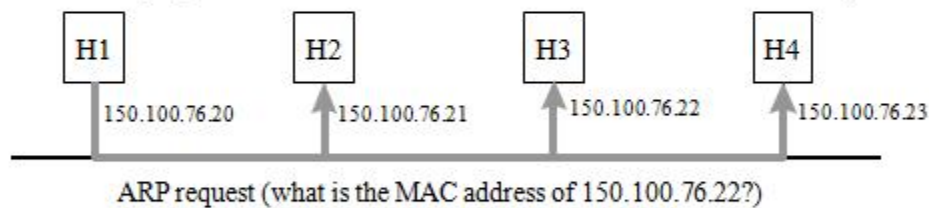
[5] CO4

L2

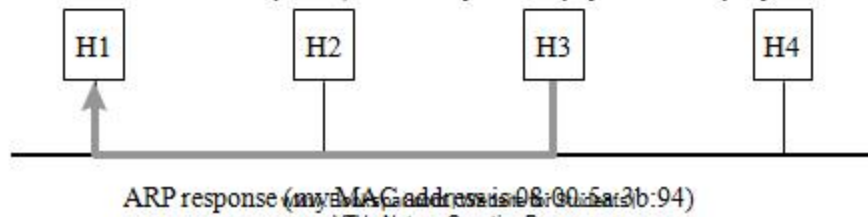
## Address Resolution Protocol

Although IP address identifies a host, the packet is physically delivered by an underlying network (e.g., Ethernet) which uses its own *physical address* (MAC address in Ethernet). How to map an IP address to a physical address?

H1 wants to learn physical address of H3 -> broadcasts an ARP request



Every host receives the request, but only H3 reply with its physical address



b) Write a note on structure of management information.

[5] CO5 L2

The Structure of Management Information (SMI), described in detail in RFC 1155, is a framework that describes the basic types of information that can be manipulated by SNMP. It provides a skeleton that specifies the basic format and hierarchy of management data but does not describe the objects that can be managed. Rather, it describes the building blocks from which managed objects are constructed.

A fundamental concept of SNMP is the notion of *object identifiers*. An object identifier (OID) is a tag that allows a management entity to refer unambiguously to a particular object. Object identifiers are allocated in a tree fashion. The value of the object identifier is a sequence of integers that refer to a particular traversal of the object tree. ["Object identifier hierarchy"](#), shows a portion of the object identifier hierarchy.

The root of the OID tree has no label. Currently, there are three children of the root, ccitt(0), iso(1), and joint-iso-ccitt(2). The ISO node has many children, one of which is org(3), which is allocated

for international organizations. Under org(3) is the U.S. Department of Defense, dod(6), which has the child internet(1).

The name *{ iso org dod internet }* is a symbolic representation for the integer series *1.3.6.1*. Both refer to the object identifier of the Internet subtree. In practice, *1.3.6.1* can simply be referred to as "internet". The terms *{ iso org dod internet }*, *1.3.6.1*, and *internet* are all different ways of identifying the same object. In SNMP PDUs, only the numeric sequences are used.