

FTP is very robust. In Sec. 2, there was an in-depth discussion on port and sockets: how they are established and used. The FTP protocol actually uses two port assignments (and therefore two connections): 20 and 21. Remember that most connections between two network stations are made via one source port and one destination port. A network station wanting a connection to a remote network station must connect to two ports on the destination station in order for FTP to work.

Port 20 is used for the initial setup of the connection and is used as the control connection. No data passes over this circuit except for control information. Port 21 is used for user data (the file to be transferred) to pass over the connection.

Once the connection is established, the server process awaits a command from the client. To transfer a file from the server to the client, the user would type in: `get <a name of a file>`, which will be transmitted over to the remote network station. With this, a second connection is established between the server and client FTP process. It is known as the *data connection*. Now we have two connections, but only during the file transfer process. Once the file is transferred, the data connection port is closed.

All data connections are made with port number 20. This is the well-known (or static) FTP data port. From a user's standpoint, to establish a connection between itself and a remote station, the command is similar to TELNET; `FTP <domain name or IP address>`. A user could also type in `FTP` and wait for the FTP prompt. At the prompt, the user would use the `open` command to establish the connection. Table 6.11 lists the available commands in FTP.

There are a lot of commands listed but, in reality, only a few are used. They are:

TABLE 6.11 FTP Commands

!	cr	macdef	proxy	send
\$	delete	mdelete	sendport	status
account	debug	mdir	put	struct
append	dir	mget	pwd	sunique
ascii	disconnect	mkdir	quit	tenex
bell	form	mls	quote	trace
binary	get	mode	recv	type
bye	glob	mput	remotehelp	user
case	hash	nmap	rename	verbose
cd	help	ntrans	reset	?
cdup	lcd	open	rmdir	
close	ls	prompt	runique	

<i>open</i>	open a connection to a remote resource
<i>close</i>	close a connection to remote resource
<i>bye</i>	end this FTP session
<i>binary</i>	indicate that the file transfer will be a file of binary type (i.e., executable file, lotus file, etc)
<i>get</i>	get a file from the remote resource; get <filename>; mget <multiple files, wildcards included>
<i>put</i>	put a file to the remote resource; put <filename>; mput <multiple files, wildcards included>
<i>cd</i>	change directory on the remote device; to change the directory on the local end use: lcd
<i>dir</i>	get a directory listing on the remote device; to get a directory listing on the local end use: ldir
<i>hash</i>	Display hash marks on the screen to indicate a file in being transferred

**Data transfer.** Refer to Fig. 6.33. If a user wanted to establish an FTP connection between 148.1.1.2 and an FTP server process on 148.1.1.19, the following sequence of events would take place on a DOS PC (for other operating systems, the prompt would change, but the commands are all the same in every FTP implementation):

```
C> FTP
```

The user would establish the connection via one of three possible ways:

1. FTP (entered with no arguments)  
FTP> OPEN <IP address or domain name>
2. FTP <IP address>
3. FTP <domain name>

The FTP client process would return information to the screen, showing a connection had been made, and then ask for a user name and password. Once the authentication has been approved, the FTP prompt would return. From this, the user would enter one of the listed commands.

Since FTP is about file transfer, we shall get a file:

```
FTP> get <remote_file_name> <local_file_name>
```

This means *get* the file specified (*remote\_file\_name*) and copy it to the local file system under the name of *<local\_file\_name>*. If *<local\_file\_name>* is not specified, the remote file would be copied to the local file system with the same name.



Figure 6.33 FTP process

The FTP process being set up and point, the user could program by typing:

```
FTP> close
FTP> quit
```

```
C:>
```

If multiple files were or MPUT, which stands for the file we wanted to are examples of binary word "binary" at the



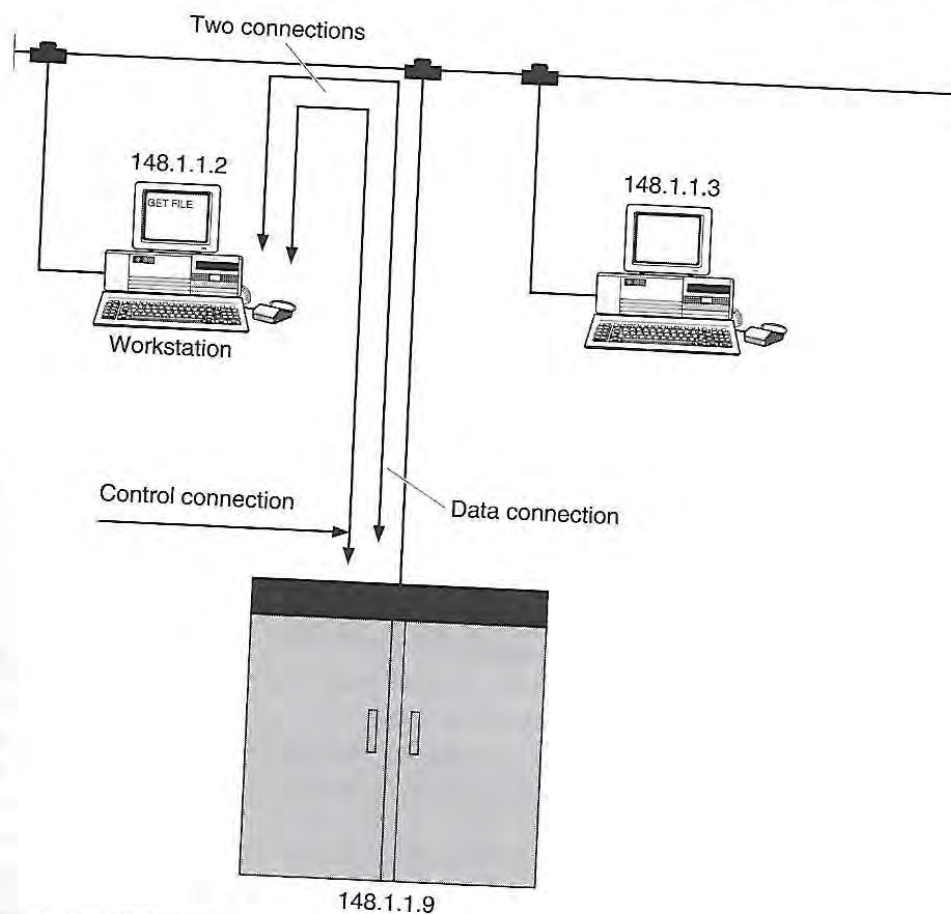


Figure 6.33 FTP process.

The FTP process would then determine that a data connection was being set up and whether or not the transfer was complete. At this point, the user could get more files or put more files, and just quit the program by typing:

```
FTP> close
FTP> quit
```

```
C:>
```

If multiple files were needed, the user could use the command MGET or MPUT, which stands for multiple GET and multiple PUT.

Table 6.11 listed the available commands under the FTP prompt. If the file we wanted was a binary file (a spreadsheet and an application are examples of binary files), the user would have to type in the keyword "binary" at the FTP prompt. This would indicate to the FTP pro-

gram that file to be transferred is a binary file. Any of the commands may be entered at the FTP prompt.

The user could also enter “disconnect,” which would disconnect the current connection but leave the FTP program open so that the user could enter another connection.

### Trivial file transfer program (TFTP)

An alternative to the FTP program is the TFTP program. This is a simplex file transfer program and is primarily used to bootstrap diskless network workstations (the program is small enough to fit in a ROM chip on the diskless workstation to initiate a boot across the network) or even network components (network bridges and routers). The FTP program is an extremely robust and complex program, and situations exist that require file transfer capabilities without complexity. Hence, FTP is also a larger file. TFTP is a small file and provides a more restrictive file transfer (for example, no user authentication); it is also a smaller executable software program.

There are differences between FTP and TFTP. TFTP does not provide a reliable service; therefore, it uses the transport services of UDP instead of TCP. It also restricts its datagram size to 512 bytes, and every datagram must be acknowledged (no multiple packet windowing). There are no windows for packets to be acknowledged. It could be said that it has a window of 1.

The protocol is very simple. The first packet transmitted from the client process to the server process is a control packet, which specifies the file name and whether it is to be read or written (get or put command). Subsequent packets are data packets and file transfer is accomplished with 512 bytes transferred at one time. The initial data packet is specially marked with a number of 1. Each subsequent data is incremented by 1. This is the sequence numbering system for TFTP. The receiving station will acknowledge this packet immediately upon receipt, using this mark number. Any packet of less than 512 bytes in length signifies the end of the transfer. Error messages may be transmitted in place of the data in the data field, but any error message will terminate the transmission. Also notice that only one connection is made to the remote resource. FTP has one for data and one for control information. The commands of get and put are used the same as the FTP program.

The sequencing of the data is accomplished through TFTP, not the transport-layer service of UDP. UDP provides only unreliable, connectionless service. TFTP is keeping track of the sequencing of the blocks of data and the acknowledgments that should be received. For those readers familiar with NetWare, this is the same type of transaction accomplished between the NetWare Control Protocol (NCP) and its underlying delivery system, called IPX. This is fully discussed in Chap. 5.

### Domain name service

The IP protocol makes it difficult to remember this address to connect to a host. It is an impossible task for most people. They are to remember the address, but they also noticed this and

The first entry to the database is known as HOST.TXT. This file is maintained by the Internet Research Institute for Systems and Networks, gateways, and responding addresses.

This type of name resolution is a download (using FTP) of the database like TELNET. It is so with a name instead of a number. The host name in the database is the days of the Internet. It is becoming extremely difficult for administrators to decide

DNS is hierarchical. The structure is exactly like a tree. When you look at the head of the tree, you are looking from this “root.”

The advantage of DNS is that users can assign the domain names when they make a connection.

The domain name system is a local part is usually assigned by the local administrator. For example, when you assign a company a domain

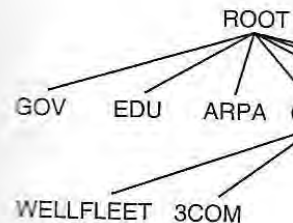


Figure 6.34 The domain hierarchy



### Domain name service (DNS)

The IP protocol mandates the use of IP addresses. Any user may use this address to connect to any service on the network. But for a user to remember the addresses of all the network servers on the network is an impossible task. Users are more likely to remember names than they are to remember numbers. The architects of the TCP/IP protocol also noticed this and started work on the naming service for TCP/IP.

The first entry to an IP naming scheme was a public domain text file known as HOST.TXT. The Network Information Center (NIC) at Stanford Research Institute maintained this file, which listed the names of networks, gateways (routers), and hosts on the Internet and their corresponding addresses.

This type of name service was a simple text file that anyone could download (using FTP) to their hosts. If a user wanted to use an application like TELNET to connect to a remote station, he or she could do so with a name instead of an IP address. The application would look for the host name in the host-text file. This was simple enough for the early days of the Internet. With the expansion of the Internet, this file was becoming extremely hard to maintain. Therefore, in 1983, the Internet administrators decided to create the Domain Name Service (DNS).

DNS is hierarchical in structure, as shown in Fig. 6.34. This type of structure is exactly the same as an organization chart for any company. When you look at this type of chart, you will notice there is one person at the head of the chart with the subordinates branching out from this "root."

The advantage of this structure is that at the bottom of the chart, users can assign their own names. These users will use the upper-level names when they must access nodes outside of their region.

The domain name takes the form of local-part@domain name. The local part is usually a name of a host, a name of a user, etc. It is assigned by the local network administrator and not the NIC. For example, when applying for a network number, the NIC will also assign a company a Domain Name. As shown in Fig. 6.34, the Domain

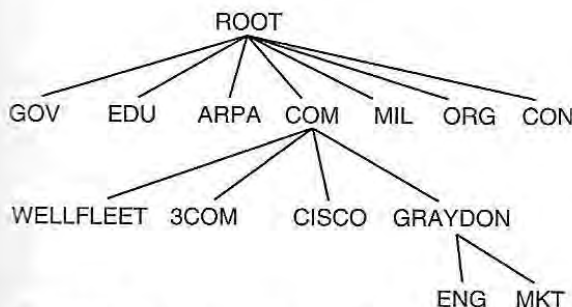


Figure 6.34 The domain hierarchy.



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