



I'm not robot



**Continue**

## Why is my zebra printer blinking red

A wireless local area network (WLAN) is a computer network that uses radio waves to connect devices. The image shows a laptop connected to a wireless network. The laptop screen displays a list of available wireless networks, including the one named "WLAN". The laptop is connected to the "WLAN" network, and the network icon in the system tray shows a signal strength indicator. The image also shows a wireless router and a wireless access point, which are used to create a wireless network. The router is connected to the internet and provides access to the internet for all devices connected to the network. The access point is used to provide wireless access to the network for devices that are not connected to the router.

Wireless local area network Wi-Fiintroduced21September1997; 24 years ago (1997-09-21)Compatible hardwarePersonal computers, gaming consoles, Smart devices, televisions, printers, smartphones, security cameras Part of a series onAntennas Common types Dipole Fractal Loop Monopole Satellite dish Wireless Whip Components Balun Block up-converter Coaxial cable Counterpoise (ground system) Feed /Feed line Low-noise block down-converter Passive radiator Receiver /Rotor Sub Transmitter/Tuner T-win-feed Systems Antenna farm Amateur radio Cellular network Hotspot Municipal wireless network Radio masts and towers Wi-Fi Wireless Safety and regulation Wireless device radiation and health Wireless electronic devices and health International Telecommunication Union(Radio Regulations) World Radiocommunication Conference Radiation sources /regions Boreisight Flood cloud Ground plane Main lobe Near and far field Side lobe Vertical plane Characteristics Array gain Directivity Efficiency Electrical length Equivalent radius Factor Friis transmission equation Gain Height Radiation pattern Radiation resistance Radio propagation Radio spectrum Signal-to-noise ratio Spurious emission Techniques Beam steering Beam tilt Beamforming Small cell Bell Laboratories LayeredSpace-Time (BLAST) Massive Multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) Reconfiguration Spread spectrum Wideband Space DivisionMultiple Access (WSDMA) Wi-Fi (w/afaafu/11)a is a family of wireless network protocols, based on the IEEE 802.11 family of standards, which are commonly used for local area networking of devices and Internet access, allowing nearby digital devices to exchange data by radio waves. These are the most widely used computer networks in the world, used globally in home and small office networks to link desktop and laptop computers, tablet computers, smartphones, smart TVs, printers, and smart speakers together and to a wireless router to connect them to the Internet, and in wireless access points in public places like coffee shops, hotels, libraries and airports to provide the public Internet access for mobile devices. Wi-Fi is a trademark of the non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance, which restricts the use of the term Wi-Fi Certified to products that successfully complete interoperability certification testing.[3][4][5] As of 2017, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance consisted of more than 800 companies from around the world.[6] As of 2019, [update] over 3.05 billion Wi-Fi devices shipped globally each year.[7] Wi-Fi is a wireless technology based on the IEEE 802.11 and 802.15 standards with its wireless sibling, Ethernet. Compatible devices can connect to wireless access points to each other as well as to wired devices and the Internet. The different versions of Wi-Fi are specified by various IEEE 802.11 protocol standards, with the different radio technologies determining radio bands, and the maximum ranges, and the maximum ranges, and speeds that may be achieved. Wi-Fi most commonly uses the 2.4 gigahertz (120 mm) UHF and 5 gigahertz (60 mm) SHF radio bands; these bands are subdivided into multiple channels. Channels can be shared between networks but only one transmitter can locally transmit on a channel at any moment in time. Wi-Fi's wavebands have relatively high absorption and work best for line-of-sight use. Many common obstructions such as walls, pillars, home appliances, etc. may greatly reduce range, but this also helps minimize interference between different networks in crowded environments. An access point (or hotspot) often has a range of about 20 metres (66 feet) indoors while some modern access points claim up to a 150-metre (490-foot) range outdoors. Hotspot coverage can be as small as a single room with walls that block radio waves, or as large as many square kilometres (miles) using many overlapping access points with roaming permitted between them. Over time the speed and spectral efficiency of Wi-Fi have increased. As of 2019, [update] some versions of Wi-Fi, running on suitable hardware at close range, can achieve speeds of 9.6 Gbit/s (gigabit per second). History Main article: IEEE 802.11s History A 1985 ruling by the U.S. Federal Communications Commission released parts of the ISM bands for unlicensed use for communications.[8] These frequency bands include the same 2.4 GHz bands used by equipment such as microwave ovens and are thus subject to interference. A prototype Test Bed for a wireless local area network was developed in 1982 by researchers from the Radiophysics Division of CSIRO in Australia.[9] About the same time in The Netherlands in 1991, [10] the NCR Corporation with AT&T Corporation invented the precursor to 802.11, intended to use in cashier systems, under the name WaveLAN. NCR's Vic Hayes, who held the chair of IEEE 802.11 for 40 years, along with the Network Tech, and others created the standard and were involved in the initial 802.11 and 802.15 standards with its wireless sibling, Ethernet. The standard was subsequently approved by the IEEE in the Wi-Fi NOW Hall of Fame.[12] The first version of the 802.11 protocol was released in 1997, and provided up to 2 Mbit/s link speeds. This was updated in 1999 with 802.11b to permit 11 Mbit/s link speeds, and this proved popular. In 1999, the Wi-Fi Alliance formed as a trade association to hold the Wi-Fi trademark under which most products are sold.[13] The major commercial breakthrough came with Apple Inc. adopting Wi-Fi for their iBook series of laptops in 1999.[10] It was the first mass consumer product to offer Wi-Fi network connectivity, and was then branded by Apple as AirPort. This was in collaboration with the same group that helped create the standard: Vic Hayes, Bruce Tuch, Cees Links, Rick McGinn, and others from Lucent.[14][15] Wi-Fi uses a large number of patents held by many different organizations.[16] In April 2009, 14 technology companies agreed to pay Australia's CSIRO \$1 billion for infringements on CSIRO patents.[17] Australia claims Wi-Fi is an Australian invention,[18] at the time the subject of a little controversy.[19][20] CSIRO now a further \$220 million settlement for Wi-Fi patent-infringements in 2012, with global firms in the United States required to pay CSIRO licensing rights estimated at an additional \$1 billion in royalties.[17][21][22] In 2016, the CSIRO wireless local area network (WLAN) Prototype Test Bed was chosen as Australia's contribution to the exhibition A History of the World in 100 Objects held in the National Museum of Australia.[9][19] Etymology and terminology The name Wi-Fi, commercially used at least as early as August 1999,[23] was coined by the brand-consulting firm Interbrand. The Wi-Fi Alliance had hired Interbrand to create a name that was "a little catchier than "IEEE 802.11 Direct Sequence".[24][25] Phil Belanger, a founding member of the Wi-Fi Alliance, has stated that the term Wi-Fi was chosen from a list of ten potential names invented by Interbrand.[12] The Wi-Fi Alliance uses an advertising slogan, "The Standard for Wireless Fidelity" for a short time after the name was created.[24][26][27] and the Wi-Fi Alliance was also called "Wireless Fidelity Alliance Inc." in some publications.[28] The name is often written as WiFi, WiFi, or wifi, but these are not approved by the Wi-Fi Alliance. The IEEE is separate, but related, and their website has titled "WiFi" as a short name for Wireless Fidelity.[29][30] Interbrand also created the Wi-Fi logo. The yin-yang Wi-Fi logo indicates the effectiveness of a protocol for interoperability. Wi-Fi and Wi-Fi technologies intended for fixed points, such as Motorola Canopy, are usually described as fixed wireless. Alternative wireless technologies include mobile phone standards, such as 2G, 3G, 4G, 5G and LTE. To connect to a Wi-Fi LAN, a computer must be equipped with a wireless network interface controller. The combination of a computer and an interface controller is called a station. Stations are identified by one or more MAC addresses. Wi-Fi nodes often operate in infrastructure mode where all communications go through a base station. Ad hoc mode refers to devices talking directly to each other without the need to first talk to an access point. A service set is the set of all the devices associated with a particular Wi-Fi network. Devices in a service set need not be on the same wavebands or channels. A service set can be local, independent, extended, or mesh or a combination. Each service set has an associated identifier, the 32-byte Service Set Identifier (SSID), which identifies the particular network. The SSID is configured within the devices that are considered part of the network. A Basic Service Set (BSS) is a group of stations that all share the same wireless channel, SSID, and other wireless settings that have wirelessly connected (usually to the same access point).[31];3.6 Each BSS is identified by a MAC address which is called the BSSID. Certification See also: Wi-Fi Alliance Wi-Fi certification logo The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards for interoperability and backward compatibility, and to promote wireless local-area-network technology. As of 2019, [update] the Wi-Fi Alliance has over 800 member companies.[6] It has a membership that includes Intel, Dell, Hewlett-Packard, Canon, Microsoft, and Sony. The Wi-Fi Alliance also has a Wireless Display (WiDi),[32][33] the Wi-Fi Alliance enforces the use of the Wi-Fi brand to technology based on the IEEE 802.11 standards from the IEEE. This includes wireless local area network (WLAN) connections, a device-to-device connectivity (such as Wi-Fi Peer-to-Peer) and Wi-Fi Direct). Personal area network (PAN), local area network (LAN), and even some limited range network (WAN) connections. Manufacturers with membership in the Wi-Fi Alliance, whose products pass the certification process, gain the right to mark those products with the Wi-Fi logo. Specifically, the certification process requires conformance to the IEEE 802.11 radio standards, the WPA and WPA2 security standards, and the EAP authentication standard. Certification may optionally include tests of IEEE 802.11 draft standards, interaction with cellular-phone technology in converged devices, and features relating to security set-up, multimedia, and power-saving.[34] Not every Wi-Fi device is submitted for certification. The lack of Wi-Fi certification does not necessarily imply a device is incompatible with other Wi-Fi devices.[35] The Wi-Fi Alliance may or may not sanction derivative terms, such as Super Wi-Fi.[36] coined by the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to describe proposed networking in the UHF TV band in the US.[37] Versions and generations Wi-Fi Generations Generation IEEEStandard MaximumLinkRate(Mbit/s) Adopted RadioFrequency(GHz)[38] 2017 802.11be 40000 2.4/5 6/6 Wi-Fi 6E 802.11ax 6000 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 6 2019 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 5 802.11ac 433 to 6933 2.4/5 Wi-Fi 4 802.11n 72 to 600 2008 2.4/5 (Wi-Fi 3\*) 802.11g 6 to 54 2003 2.4 (Wi-Fi 2\*) 802.11a 6 to 54 1999 2.4 (Wi-Fi 1\*) 802.11b 2 to 1997 2.4 \* (Wi-Fi 0), 1, 2, 3, are unbranded common usage.[39][40] Equipment frequently supports multiple versions of Wi-Fi. To communicate, devices must use a common Wi-Fi version. The versions differ between the radio wavebands they operate on, the radio bandwidth they occupy, the maximum data rates they can support, and the security methods available. The IEEE does not test equipment for compliance with their standards. The non-profit Wi-Fi Alliance was formed in 1999 to fill this void—to establish and enforce standards

Retrieved 20 November 2017.
^ "3.1.1 Packet format" (PDF). IEEE Standard for Ethernet, 802.3-2012 – section one, 28 December 2012. p. 53. Archived from the original on 21 October 2014. Retrieved 6 July 2014.
^ Stobing, Chris (17 November 2015). "What Does WiFi Stand For and How Does WiFi Work?". GadgetReview. Archived from the original on 1 December 2015. Retrieved 18 November 2015.
^ Geier, Jim (6 December 2001). Overview of the IEEE 802.11 Standard. InformIT. Archived from the original on 20 April 2016. Retrieved 8 April 2016.
^ US 5987011. Toh, Chai Keong, "Routing Method for Ad-Hoc Mobile Networks", published 16 November 1999
^ "Mobile Computing Magazines and Print Publications", www.mobileinfo.com. Archived from the original on 26 April 2016. Retrieved 19 December 2017.
^ Toh, C.-K.; Delwar, M.; Allen, D. (7 August 2002). "Evaluating the Communication Performance of an Ad Hoc Mobile Network". IEEE Transactions on Wireless Communications. 1 (3): 402–414. doi:10.1109/TWC.2002.800539.
^ Toh, C.-K.; Chen, Richard; Delwar, Minar; Allen, Donald (2001). "Experimenting with an Ad Hoc Wireless Network on Campus: Insights & Experiences". ACM SIGMETRICS Performance Evaluation Review. 28 (3): 21–29. doi:10.1145/377616.377622.
^ Subash (21 January 2011). "Wireless Home Networking with Virtual WiFi Hotspot". Techsansar. Archived from the original on 30 August 2011. Retrieved 14 October 2011.
^ Cox, John (14 October 2009). "Wi-Fi Direct allows device-to-device links". Network World. Archived from the original on 23 October 2009.
^ "Wi-Fi gets personal: Groundbreaking Wi-Fi Direct launches today". Wi-Fi Alliance. 25 October 2010. Archived from the original on 26 June 2015. Retrieved 25 June 2015.
^ "What is Wi-Fi Certified TDLSP?". Wi-Fi Alliance. Archived from the original on 8 November 2014.
^ Edney 2004, p. 8. sfn error: no target: CITEREFEdney2004 (help)
^ Mohsin Beg (3 December 2021). "Fix WiFi Connected But No Internet Access On Windows 11/10/8/7". newszcuty.com. Retrieved 25 June 2020.
^ Tjensvold, Jan Magne (18 September 2007). "Comparison of the IEEE 802.11, 802.15.1, 802.15.4, and 802.15.6 wireless standards" (PDF). Archived (PDF) from the original on 20 July 2013. Retrieved 26 April 2013. section 1.2 (scope)
^ "Somebody explain dBι - Wireless Networking - DSLReports Forums". DSL Reports. Archived from the original on 9 August 2014.
^ "802.11n Delivers Better Range". Wi-Fi Planet. 31 May 2007. Archived from the original on 8 November 2015.
^ Gold, Jon (29 June 2016). "802.11ac Wi-Fi head driving strong WLAN equipment sales". Network World. Archived from the original on 27 August 2017. Retrieved 19 May 2017.
^ "WiFi Mapping Software-Footprint". Alyrica Networks. Archived from the original on 2 May 2009. Retrieved 27 April 2008.
^ Kanellos, Michael (18 June 2007). "Ermanno Pietrossemoli has set a new record for the longest communication Wi-Fi link". Archived from the original on 21 March 2008. Retrieved 10 March 2008.
^ Toulouse, Al (2 June 2006). "Wireless technology is irreplaceable for providing access in remote and sparsely populated regions". Association for Progressive Communications. Archived from the original on 2 February 2009. Retrieved 10 March 2008.
^ Pietrossemoli, Ermanno (18 May 2007). "Long Distance WiFi Trial" (PDF). Archived (PDF) from the original on 5 March 2016. Retrieved 10 March 2008.
^ Chakraborty, Sandip; Nandi, Sukumar; Chattopadhyay, Subhrendu (22 September 2015). "Alleviating Hidden and Exposed Nodes in High-Throughput Wireless Mesh Networks". IEEE Transactions on Wireless Communications. 15 (2): 928–937. doi:10.1109/TWC.2015.2480398.
^ Villegas, Eduard Garcia; Lopez-Aguilera, Elena; Vidal, Rafael; Paradelis, Josep (2007). "Effect of Adjacent-Channel Interference in IEEE 802.11 WLANs". doi:10.1109/CROWNCOM.2007.4549783. {{cite journal}}: Cite journal requires |journal= (help)
^ den Hartog, F., Raschella, A., Bouhafs, F., Kempker, P., Boltjes, B., & Seyedehrahimi, M. (2017, November). A Pathway to solving the Wi-Fi Tragedy of the Commons in apartment blocks. In 2017 27th International Telecommunication Networks and Applications Conference (ITNAC) (pp. 1–6). IEEE.
^ Caravan, Delia (12 September 2014). "6 Easy Steps To Protect Your Baby Monitor From Hackers". Baby Monitor Reviews HQ. Archived from the original on 18 October 2014. Retrieved 12 September 2014.
^ Wilson, Tracy V. (17 April 2006). "How Municipal WiFi Works". HowStuffWorks. Archived from the original on 23 February 2008. Retrieved 12 March 2008.
^ Brown, Bob (10 March 2016). "Wi-Fi hotspot blocking persists despite FCC crackdown". Network World. Archived from the original on 27 February 2019.
^ Towards Energy-Awareness in Managing Wireless LAN Applications. IEEE/IFIP Network Operations and Management Symposium. IEEE/IFIP NOMS. 2012. Retrieved 11 August 2014.
^ "Application Level Energy and Performance Measurements in a Wireless LAN". The 2011 IEEE/ACM International Conference on Green Computing and Communications. Retrieved 11 August 2014.
^ Veन्द्रick, Harry J. M. (2017). Nanometer CMOS ICs: From Basics to ASICs. Springer. p. 243. ISBN 9783319475974.
^ "Free WiFi Analyzer-Best Channel Analyzer Apps For Wireless Networks". The Digital Worm. 9 June 2017. Archived from the original on 8 August 2017.
^ "Apple.com Airport Utility Product Page". Apple, Inc. Archived from the original on 8 June 2011. Retrieved 14 June 2011.
^ "GainSpan low-power, embedded Wi-Fi". www.gainspan.com. Archived from the original on 30 June 2010. Retrieved 17 June 2017.
^ "Quatech Rolls Out Airborne Embedded 802.11 Radio for M2M Market". Archived from the original on 28 April 2008. Retrieved 29 April 2008.
^ "CIE article on embedded Wi-Fi for M2M applications". Archived from the original on 18 April 2015. Retrieved 28 November 2014.
^ "WiFi Connectivity Explained | MAC Installations & Consulting". Retrieved 9 February 2020.
^ Jensen, Joe (26 October 2007). "802.11 X Wireless Network in a Business Environment - Pros and Cons". Networkbits. Archived from the original on 5 March 2008. Retrieved 8 April 2008.
^ Higgs, Larry (1 July 2013). "Free Wi-Fi? User beware: Open connections to Internet are full of security dangers, hackers, ID thieves". Asbury Park Press. Archived from the original on 2 July 2013.
^ Gittleson, Kim (28 March 2014). "Data-stealing Snoopy drone unveiled at Black Hat". BBC News. Archived from the original on 30 March 2014. Retrieved 29 March 2014.
^ Bernstein, Daniel J. (2002). "DNS forgery". Archived from the original on 27 July 2009. An attacker with access to your network can easily force responses to your computer's DNS requests.
^ Mateti, Prabhakar (2005). "Hacking Techniques in Wireless Networks". Dayton, Ohio: Wright State University Department of Computer Science and Engineering. Archived from the original on 5 March 2010. Retrieved 28 February 2010.
^ Hegerle, Blake; snax; Bruestle, Jeremy (17 August 2001). "Wireless Vulnerabilities & Exploits". wirelessv.org. Archived from the original on 19 September 2006. Retrieved 15 April 2008.
^ "WPA2 Security Now Mandatory for Wi-Fi CERTIFIED Products". Wi-Fi Alliance. 13 March 2006. Archived from the original on 25 August 2011.
^ Vanhoef, Mathy (2017). "Key Reinstallation Attacks: Breaking WPA2 by forcing nonce reuse". Archived from the original on 22 October 2017. Retrieved 21 October 2017.
^ "Serious flaw in WPA2 protocol lets attackers intercept passwords and much more". Ars Technica. Archived from the original on 21 October 2017. Retrieved 21 October 2017.
^ "Archived copy". Archived from the original on 3 January 2012. Retrieved 1 January 2012. {{cite web}}: CS1 maint: archived copy as title (link)
US CERT Vulnerability Note VU#723755
^ Federal Trade Commission (March 2014). "Tips for Using Public Wi-Fi Networks". Federal Trade Commission - Consumer Information. Retrieved 8 August 2019.
^ "Share your Wi-Fi SSID & Password using a QR Code". 19 July 2015.
^ "zxing documentation: barcode contents". GitHub. xzing.
^ Thubron, Rob (9 January 2018). "WPA3 protocol will make public Wi-Fi hotspots a lot more secure". Techspot. Archived from the original on 16 November 2018.
^ Kastrenakes, Jacob (26 June 2018). "Wi-Fi security is starting to get its biggest upgrade in over a decade". The Verge. Archived from the original on 20 February 2019. Retrieved 26 June 2018.
^ "NoCat's goal is to bring you Infinite Bandwidth Everywhere for Free". NoCat.net. Nocat.net. Archived from the original on 22 October 2011. Retrieved 14 October 2011.
^ Jones, Matt (24 June 2002). "Let's Warchalk" (PDF). Archived from the original (PDF) on 5 July 2008. Retrieved 9 October 2008.
^ a b c Decker, Kris De (6 June 2017). "Comment bâtir un internet low tech". Techniques & Culture. revue semestrielle d'anthropologie des techniques (in French) (67): 216–235. doi:10.4000/tc.8489. ISSN 0248-6016.
^ a b c Forlano, Laura (8 October 2009). "WiFi Geographies: When Code Meets Place". The Information Society. 25 (5): 344–352. doi:10.1080/01972240903213076. ISSN 0197-2243.
^ "Digest of Education Statistics, 2017". nces.ed.gov. Retrieved 8 May 2020.
^ "Wi-Fi: How Broadband Households Experience the Internet | NCTA — The Internet & Television Association". www.ncta.com. Retrieved 8 May 2020.
^ "Electromagnetic fields and public health - Base stations and wireless technologies". World Health Organization. 2006. Archived from the original on 22 May 2016. Retrieved 28 May 2016.
^ "IARC Classifies Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Fields as Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans" (PDF). International Agency for Research on Cancer. 31 May 2011. Archived (PDF) from the original on 4 April 2012. Retrieved 28 May 2016.
^ "Electromagnetic Fields and Public Health: Mobile Phones". World Health Organization. October 2014. Archived from the original on 25 May 2016. Retrieved 29 May 2016.
^ "Q&A: Wi-fi health concerns". BBC News. 21 May 2007. Archived from the original on 21 April 2016. Retrieved 29 May 2016.
^ Rubin, G.; Das Munshi, Jayati; Wessely, Simon (1 March 2005). "Electromagnetic Hypersensitivity: A Systematic Review of Provocation Studies". Psychosomatic Medicine. 67 (2): 224–32. CiteSeerX 10.1.1.543.1328. doi:10.1097/01.psy.0000155664.13300.64. PMID 15784787. Further reading The WNDW Authors (1 March 2013). Butler, Jane (ed.). Wireless Networking in the Developing World (Third ed.). ISBN 978-1-4840-3935-9. Retrieved from "2First widely used digital cellular network For other uses, see 2G (disambiguation). Part of a series on theMobile phone generations Mobile telecommunications Analog 0G 1G Digital 2G 2.5G 2.75G 3G 3.5G 3.75G 3.9G/3.95G 4G 4G+/4.5G 4.5G/4.9G 5G 6G vte 2G is short for second-generation cellular network. 2G cellular networks were commercially launched on the GSM standard in Finland by Radiolinja (now part of Elisa Oyj) in 1991.[1] Three primary benefits of 2G networks over their predecessors were: Digitally encrypted phone conversations, at least between the mobile phone and the cellular base station but not necessarily in the rest of the network. Significantly more efficient use of the radio frequency spectrum enabling more users per frequency band. Data services for mobile, starting with SMS text messages. 2G technologies enabled the various networks to provide services such as text messages, picture messages, and MMS (multimedia messages). After 2G was launched, the previous mobile wireless network systems were retroactively dubbed 1G. While radio signals on 1G networks are analog, radio signals on 2G networks are digital. Both systems use digital signaling to connect the radio towers (which listen to the devices) to the rest of the mobile system. With General Packet Radio Service (GPRS), 2G offers a theoretical maximum transfer speed of 40 kbit/s (5 kb/s).[2] With EDGE (Enhanced Data Rates for GSM Evolution), there is a theoretical maximum transfer speed of 384 kbit/s (48 kb/s).[2] The most common 2G technology was the time-division multiple access (TDMA)-based GSM, originally from Europe but used in most of the world outside Japan and North America. In North America, Digital AMPS ICs: Frod Basics to ASICs. Springer. p. 243. ISBN 9783319475974.
^ "Free WiFi Analyzer-Best Channel Analyzer Apps For Wireless Networks". The Digital Worm. 9 June 2017. Archived from the original on 8 August 2017.
^ "Apple.com Airport Utility Product Page". Apple, Inc. Archived from the original on 8 June 2011. Retrieved 14 June 2011.
^ "GainSpan low-power, embedded Wi-Fi". www.gainspan.com. Archived from the original on 30 June 2010. Retrieved 17 June 2017.
^ "Quatech Rolls Out Airborne Embedded 802.11 Radio for M2M Market". Archived from the original on 28 April 2008. Retrieved 29 April 2008.
^ "CIE article on embedded Wi-Fi for M2M applications". Archived from the original on 18 April 2015. Retrieved 28 November 2014.
^ "WiFi Connectivity Explained | MAC Installations & Consulting". Retrieved 9 February 2020.
^ Jensen, Joe (26 October 2007). "802.11 X Wireless Network in a Business Environment - Pros and Cons". Networkbits. Archived from the original on 5 March 2008. Retrieved 8 April 2008.
^ Higgs, Larry (1 July 2013). "Free Wi-Fi? User beware: Open connections to Internet are full of security dangers, hackers, ID thieves". Asbury Park Press. Archived from the original on 2 July 2013.
^ Gittleson, Kim (28 March 2014). "Data-stealing Snoopy drone unveiled at Black Hat". BBC News. Archived from the original on 30 March 2014. Retrieved 29 March 2014.
^ Bernstein, Daniel J. (2002). "DNS forgery". Archived from the original on 27 July 2009. An attacker with access to your network can easily force responses to your computer's DNS requests.
^ Mateti, Prabhakar (2005). "Hacking Techniques in Wireless Networks". Dayton, Ohio: Wright State University Department of Computer Science and Engineering. Archived from the original on 5 March 2010. Retrieved 28 February 2010.
^ Hegerle, Blake; snax; Bruestle, Jeremy (17 August 2001). "Wireless Vulnerabilities & Exploits". wirelessv.org. Archived from the original on 19 September 2006. Retrieved 15 April 2008.
^ "WPA2 Security Now Mandatory for Wi-Fi CERTIFIED Products". Wi-Fi Alliance. 13 March 2006. Archived from the original on 25 August 2011.
^ Vanhoef, Mathy (2017). "Key Reinstallation Attacks: Breaking WPA2 by forcing nonce reuse". Archived from the original on 22 October 2017. Retrieved 21 October 2017.
^ "Serious flaw in WPA2 protocol lets attackers intercept passwords and much more". Ars Technica. Archived from the original on 21 October 2017. Retrieved 21 October 2017.
^ "Archived copy". Archived from the original on 3 January 2012. Retrieved 1 January 2012. {{cite web}}: CS1 maint: archived copy as title (link)
US CERT Vulnerability Note VU#723755
^ Federal Trade Commission (March 2014). "Tips for Using Public Wi-Fi Networks". Federal Trade Commission - Consumer Information. Retrieved 8 August 2019.
^ "Share your Wi-Fi SSID & Password using a QR Code". 19 July 2015.
^ "zxing documentation: barcode contents". GitHub. xzing.
^ Thubron, Rob (9 January 2018). "WPA3 protocol will make public Wi-Fi hotspots a lot more secure". Techspot. Archived from the original on 16 November 2018.
^ Kastrenakes, Jacob (26 June 2018). "Wi-Fi security is starting to get its biggest upgrade in over a decade". The Verge. Archived from the original on 20 February 2019. Retrieved 26 June 2018.
^ "NoCat's goal is to bring you Infinite Bandwidth Everywhere for Free". NoCat.net. Nocat.net. Archived from the original on 22 October 2011. Retrieved 14 October 2011.
^ Jones, Matt (24 June 2002). "Let's Warchalk" (PDF). Archived from the original (PDF) on 5 July 2008. Retrieved 9 October 2008.
^ a b c Decker, Kris De (6 June 2017). "Comment bâtir un internet low tech". Techniques & Culture. revue semestrielle d'anthropologie des techniques (in French) (67): 216–235. doi:10.4000/tc.8489. ISSN 0248-6016.
^ a b c Forlano, Laura (8 October 2009). "WiFi Geographies: When Code Meets Place". The Information Society. 25 (5): 344–352. doi:10.1080/01972240903213076. ISSN 0197-2243.
^ "Digest of Education Statistics, 2017". nces.ed.gov. Retrieved 8 May 2020.
^ "Wi-Fi: How Broadband Households Experience the Internet | NCTA — The Internet & Television Association". www.ncta.com. Retrieved 8 May 2020.
^ "Electromagnetic fields and public health - Base stations and wireless technologies". World Health Organization. 2006. Archived from the original on 22 May 2016. Retrieved 28 May 2016.
^ "IARC Classifies Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Fields as Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans" (PDF). International Agency for Research on Cancer. 31 May 2011. Archived (PDF) from the original on 4 April 2012. Retrieved 28 May 2016.
^ "Electromagnetic Fields and Public Health: Mobile Phones". World Health Organization. October 2014. Archived from the original on 25 May 2016. Retrieved 29 May 2016.
^ "Q&A: Wi-fi health concerns". BBC News. 21 May 2007. Archived from the original on 21 April 2016. Retrieved 29 May 2016.
^ Rubin, G.; Das Munshi, Jayati; Wessely, Simon (1 March 2005). "Electromagnetic Hypersensitivity: A Systematic Review of Provocation Studies". Psychosomatic Medicine. 67 (2): 224–32. CiteSeerX 10.1.1.543.1328. doi:10.1097/01.psy.0000155664.13300.64. PMID 15784787. Further reading The WNDW Authors (1 March 2013). Butler, Jane (ed.). Wireless Networking in the Developing World (Third ed.). ISBN 978-1-4840-3935-9. Retrieved from "2First widely used digital cellular network For other uses, see 2G (disambiguation). Part of a series on theMobile phone generations Mobile telecommunications Analog 0G 1G Digital 2G 2.5G 2.75G 3G 3.5G 3.75G 3.9G/3.95G 4G 4G+/4.5G 4.5G/4.9G 5G 6G vte 2G is short for second-generation cellular network. 2G cellular networks were commercially launched on the GSM standard in Finland by Radiolinja (now part of Elisa Oyj) in 1991.[1] Three primary benefits of 2G networks over their predecessors were: Digitally encrypted phone conversations, at least between the mobile phone and the cellular base station but not necessarily in the rest of the network. Significantly more efficient use of the radio frequency spectrum enabling more users per frequency band. Data services for mobile, starting with SMS text messages. 2G technologies enabled the various networks to provide services such as text messages, picture messages, and MMS (multimedia messages). After 2G was launched, the previous mobile wireless network systems were retroactively dubbed 1G. While radio signals on 1G networks are analog, radio signals on 2G networks are digital. Both systems use digital signaling to connect the radio towers (which listen to the devices) to the rest of the mobile system. With General Packet Radio Service (GPRS), 2G offers a theoretical maximum transfer speed of 40 kbit/s (5 kb/s).[2] With EDGE (Enhanced Data Rates for GSM Evolution), there is a theoretical maximum transfer speed of 384 kbit/s (48 kb/s).[2] The most common 2G technology was the time-division multiple access (TDMA)-based GSM, originally from Europe but used in most of the world outside Japan and North America. In North America, Digital AMPS ICs: Frod Basics to ASICs. Springer. p. 243. ISBN 9783319475974.
^ "Free WiFi Analyzer-Best Channel Analyzer Apps For Wireless Networks". The Digital Worm. 9 June 2017. Archived from the original on 8 August 2017.
^ "Apple.com Airport Utility Product Page". Apple, Inc. Archived from the original on 8 June 2011. Retrieved 14 June 2011.
^ "GainSpan low-power, embedded Wi-Fi". www.gainspan.com. Archived from the original on 30 June 2010. Retrieved 17 June 2017.
^ "Quatech Rolls Out Airborne Embedded 802.11 Radio for M2M Market". Archived from the original on 28 April 2008. Retrieved 29 April 2008.
^ "CIE article on embedded Wi-Fi for M2M applications". Archived from the original on 18 April 2015. Retrieved 28 November 2014.
^ "WiFi Connectivity Explained | MAC Installations & Consulting". Retrieved 9 February 2020.
^ Jensen, Joe (26 October 2007). "802.11 X Wireless Network in a Business Environment - Pros and Cons". Networkbits. Archived from the original on 5 March 2008. Retrieved 8 April 2008.
^ Higgs, Larry (1 July 2013). "Free Wi-Fi? User beware: Open connections to Internet are full of security dangers, hackers, ID thieves". Asbury Park Press. Archived from the original on 2 July 2013.
^ Gittleson, Kim (28 March 2014). "Data-stealing Snoopy drone unveiled at Black Hat". BBC News. Archived from the original on 30 March 2014. Retrieved 29 March 2014.
^ Bernstein, Daniel J. (2002). "DNS forgery". Archived from the original on 27 July 2009. An attacker with access to your network can easily force responses to your computer's DNS requests.
^ Mateti, Prabhakar (2005). "Hacking Techniques in Wireless Networks". Dayton, Ohio: Wright State University Department of Computer Science and Engineering. Archived from the original on 5 March 2010. Retrieved 28 February 2010.
^ Hegerle, Blake; snax; Bruestle, Jeremy (17 August 2001). "Wireless Vulnerabilities & Exploits". wirelessv.org. Archived from the original on 19 September 2006. Retrieved 15 April 2008.
^ "WPA2 Security Now Mandatory for Wi-Fi CERTIFIED Products". Wi-Fi Alliance. 13 March 2006. Archived from the original on 25 August 2011.
^ Vanhoef, Mathy (2017). "Key Reinstallation Attacks: Breaking WPA2 by forcing nonce reuse". Archived from the original on 22 October 2017. Retrieved 21 October 2017.
^ "Serious flaw in WPA2 protocol lets attackers intercept passwords and much more". Ars Technica. Archived from the original on 21 October 2017. Retrieved 21 October 2017.
^ "Archived copy". Archived from the original on 3 January 2012. Retrieved 1 January 2012. {{cite web}}: CS1 maint: archived copy as title (link)
US CERT Vulnerability Note VU#723755
^ Federal Trade Commission (March 2014). "Tips for Using Public Wi-Fi Networks". Federal Trade Commission - Consumer Information. Retrieved 8 August 2019.
^ "Share your Wi-Fi SSID & Password using a QR Code". 19 July 2015.
^ "zxing documentation: barcode contents". GitHub. xzing.
^ Thubron, Rob (9 January 2018). "WPA3 protocol will make public Wi-Fi hotspots a lot more secure". Techspot. Archived from the original on 16 November 2018.
^ Kastrenakes, Jacob (26 June 2018). "Wi-Fi security is starting to get its biggest upgrade in over a decade". The Verge. Archived from the original on 20 February 2019. Retrieved 26 June 2018.
^ "NoCat's goal is to bring you Infinite Bandwidth Everywhere for Free". NoCat.net. Nocat.net. Archived from the original on 22 October 2011. Retrieved 14 October 2011.
^ Jones, Matt (24 June 2002). "Let's Warchalk" (PDF). Archived from the original (PDF) on 5 July 2008. Retrieved 9 October 2008.
^ a b c Decker, Kris De (6 June 2017). "Comment bâtir un internet low tech". Techniques & Culture. revue semestrielle d'anthropologie des techniques (in French) (67): 216–235. doi:10.4000/tc.8489. ISSN 0248-6016.
^ a b c Forlano, Laura (8 October 2009). "WiFi Geographies: When Code Meets Place". The Information Society. 25 (5): 344–352. doi:10.1080/01972240903213076. ISSN 0197-2243.
^ "Digest of Education Statistics, 2017". nces.ed.gov. Retrieved 8 May 2020.
^ "Wi-Fi: How Broadband Households Experience the Internet | NCTA — The Internet & Television Association". www.ncta.com. Retrieved 8 May 2020.
^ "Electromagnetic fields and public health - Base stations and wireless technologies". World Health Organization. 2006. Archived from the original on 22 May 2016. Retrieved 28 May 2016.
^ "IARC Classifies Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Fields as Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans" (PDF). International Agency for Research on Cancer. 31 May 2011. Archived (PDF) from the original on 4 April 2012. Retrieved 28 May 2016.
^ "Electromagnetic Fields and Public Health: Mobile Phones". World Health Organization. October 2014. Archived from the original on 25 May 2016. Retrieved 29 May 2016.
^ "Q&A: Wi-fi health concerns". BBC News. 21 May 2007. Archived from the original on 21 April 2016. Retrieved 29 May 2016.
^ Rubin, G.; Das Munshi, Jayati; Wessely, Simon (1 March 2005). "Electromagnetic Hypersensitivity: A Systematic Review of Provocation Studies". Psychosomatic Medicine. 67 (2): 224–32. CiteSeerX 10.1.1.543.1328. doi:10.1097/01.psy.0000155664.13300.64. PMID 15784787. Further reading The WNDW Authors (1 March 2013). Butler, Jane (ed.). Wireless Networking in the Developing World (Third ed.). ISBN 978-1-4840-3935-9. Retrieved from "2First widely used digital cellular network For other uses, see 2G (disambiguation). Part of a series on theMobile phone generations Mobile telecommunications Analog 0G 1G Digital 2G 2.5G 2.75G 3G 3.5G 3.75G 3.9G/3.95G 4G 4G+/4.5G 4.5G/4.9G 5G 6G vte 2G is short for second-generation cellular network. 2G cellular networks were commercially launched on the GSM standard in Finland by Radiolinja (now part of Elisa Oyj) in 1991.[1] Three primary benefits of 2G networks over their predecessors were: Digitally encrypted phone conversations, at least between the mobile phone and the cellular base station but not necessarily in the rest of the network. Significantly more efficient use of the radio frequency spectrum enabling more users per frequency band. Data services for mobile, starting with SMS text messages. 2G technologies enabled the various networks to provide services such as text messages, picture messages, and MMS (multimedia messages). After 2G was launched, the previous mobile wireless network systems were retroactively dubbed 1G. While radio signals on 1G networks are analog, radio signals on 2G networks are digital. Both systems use digital signaling to connect the radio towers (which listen to the devices) to the rest of the mobile system. With General Packet Radio Service (GPRS), 2G offers a theoretical maximum transfer speed of 40 kbit/s (5 kb/s).[2] With EDGE (Enhanced Data Rates for GSM Evolution), there is a theoretical maximum transfer speed of 384 kbit/s (48 kb/s).[2] The most common 2G technology was the time-division multiple access (TDMA)-based GSM, originally from Europe but used in most of the world outside Japan and North America. In North America, Digital AMPS ICs: Frod Basics to ASICs. Springer. p. 243. ISBN 9783319475974.
^ "Free WiFi Analyzer-Best Channel Analyzer Apps For Wireless Networks". The Digital Worm. 9 June 2017. Archived from the original on 8 August 2017.
^ "Apple.com Airport Utility Product Page". Apple, Inc. Archived from the original on 8 June 2011. Retrieved 14 June 2011.
^ "GainSpan low-power, embedded Wi-Fi". www.gainspan.com. Archived from the original on 30 June 2010. Retrieved 17 June 2017.
^ "Quatech Rolls Out Airborne Embedded 802.11 Radio for M2M Market". Archived from the original on 28 April 2008. Retrieved 29 April 2008.
^ "CIE article on embedded Wi-Fi for M2M applications". Archived from the original on 18 April 2015. Retrieved 28 November 2014.
^ "WiFi Connectivity Explained | MAC Installations & Consulting". Retrieved 9 February 2020.
^ Jensen, Joe (26 October 2007). "802.11 X Wireless Network in a Business Environment - Pros and Cons". Networkbits. Archived from the original on 5 March 2008. Retrieved 8 April 2008.
^ Higgs, Larry (1 July 2013). "Free Wi-Fi? User beware: Open connections to Internet are full of security dangers, hackers, ID thieves". Asbury Park Press. Archived from the original on 2 July 2013.
^ Gittleson, Kim (28 March 2014). "Data-stealing Snoopy drone unveiled at Black Hat". BBC News. Archived from the original on 30 March 2014. Retrieved 29 March 2014.
^ Bernstein, Daniel J. (2002). "DNS forgery". Archived from the original on 27 July 2009. An attacker with access to your network can easily force responses to your computer's DNS requests.
^ Mateti, Prabhakar (2005). "Hacking Techniques in Wireless Networks". Dayton, Ohio: Wright State University Department of Computer Science and Engineering. Archived from the original on 5 March 2010. Retrieved 28 February 2010.
^ Hegerle, Blake; snax; Bruestle, Jeremy (17 August 2001). "Wireless Vulnerabilities & Exploits". wirelessv.org. Archived from the original on 19 September 2006. Retrieved 15 April 2008.
^ "WPA2 Security Now Mandatory for Wi-Fi CERTIFIED Products". Wi-Fi Alliance. 13 March 2006. Archived from the original on 25 August 2011.
^ Vanhoef, Mathy (2017). "Key Reinstallation Attacks: Breaking WPA2 by forcing nonce reuse". Archived from the original on 22 October 2017. Retrieved 21 October 2017.
^ "Serious flaw in WPA2 protocol lets attackers intercept passwords and much more". Ars Technica. Archived from the original on 21 October 2017. Retrieved 21 October 2017.
^ "Archived copy". Archived from the original on 3 January 2012. Retrieved 1 January 2012. {{cite web}}: CS1 maint: archived copy as title (link)
US CERT Vulnerability Note VU#723755
^ Federal Trade Commission (March 2014). "Tips for Using Public Wi-Fi Networks". Federal Trade Commission - Consumer Information. Retrieved 8 August 2019.
^ "Share your Wi-Fi SSID & Password using a QR Code". 19 July 2015.
^ "zxing documentation: barcode contents". GitHub. xzing.
^ Thubron, Rob (9 January 2018). "WPA3 protocol will make public Wi-Fi hotspots a lot more secure". Techspot. Archived from the original on 16 November 2018.
^ Kastrenakes, Jacob (26 June 2018). "Wi-Fi security is starting to get its biggest upgrade in over a decade". The Verge. Archived from the original on 20 February 2019. Retrieved 26 June 2018.
^ "NoCat's goal is to bring you Infinite Bandwidth Everywhere for Free". NoCat.net. Nocat.net. Archived from the original on 22 October 2011. Retrieved 14 October 2011.
^ Jones, Matt (24 June 2002). "Let's Warchalk" (PDF). Archived from the original (PDF) on 5 July 2008. Retrieved 9 October 2008.
^ a b c Decker, Kris De (6 June 2017). "Comment bâtir un internet low tech". Techniques & Culture. revue semestrielle d'anthropologie des techniques (in French) (67): 216–235. doi:10.4000/tc.8489. ISSN 0248-6016.
^ a b c Forlano, Laura (8 October 2009). "WiFi Geographies: When Code Meets Place". The Information Society. 25 (5): 344–352. doi:10.1080/01972240903213076. ISSN 0197-2243.
^ "Digest of Education Statistics, 2017". nces.ed.gov. Retrieved 8 May 2020.
^ "Wi-Fi: How Broadband Households Experience the Internet | NCTA — The Internet & Television Association". www.ncta.com. Retrieved 8 May 2020.
^ "Electromagnetic fields and public health - Base stations and wireless technologies". World Health Organization. 2006. Archived from the original on 22 May 2016. Retrieved 28 May 2016.
^ "IARC Classifies Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Fields as Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans" (PDF). International Agency for Research on Cancer. 31 May 2011. Archived (PDF) from the original on 4 April 2012. Retrieved 28 May 2016.
^ "Electromagnetic Fields and Public Health: Mobile Phones". World Health Organization. October 2014. Archived from the original on 25 May 2016. Retrieved 29 May 2016.
^ "Q&A: Wi-fi health concerns". BBC News. 21 May 2007. Archived from the original on 21 April 2016. Retrieved 29 May 2016.
^ Rubin, G.; Das Munshi, Jayati; Wessely, Simon (1 March 2005). "Electromagnetic Hypersensitivity: A Systematic Review of Provocation Studies". Psychosomatic Medicine. 67 (2): 224–32. CiteSeerX 10.1.1.543.1328. doi:10.1097/01.psy.0000155664.13300.64. PMID 15784787. Further reading The WNDW Authors (1 March 2013). Butler, Jane (ed.). Wireless Networking in the Developing World (Third ed.). ISBN 978-1-4840-3935-9. Retrieved from "2First widely used digital cellular network For other uses, see 2G (disambiguation). Part of a series on theMobile phone generations Mobile telecommunications Analog 0G 1G Digital 2G 2.5G 2.75G 3G 3.5G 3.75G 3.9G/3.95G 4G 4G+/4.5G 4.5G/4.9G 5G 6G vte 2G is short for second-generation cellular network. 2G cellular networks were commercially launched on the GSM standard in Finland by Radiolinja (now part of Elisa Oyj) in 1991.[1] Three primary benefits of 2G networks over their predecessors were: Digitally encrypted phone conversations, at least between the mobile phone and the cellular base station but not necessarily in the rest of the network. Significantly more efficient use of the radio frequency spectrum enabling more users per frequency band. Data services for mobile, starting with SMS text messages. 2G technologies enabled the various networks to provide services such as text messages, picture messages, and MMS (multimedia messages). After 2G was launched, the previous mobile wireless network systems were retroactively dubbed 1G. While radio signals on 1G networks are analog, radio signals on 2G networks are digital. Both systems use digital signaling to connect the radio towers (which listen to the devices) to the rest of the mobile system. With General Packet Radio Service (GPRS), 2G offers a theoretical maximum transfer speed of 40 kbit/s (5 kb/s).[2] With EDGE (Enhanced Data Rates for GSM Evolution), there is a theoretical maximum transfer speed of 384 kbit/s (48 kb/s).[2] The most common 2G technology was the time-division multiple access (TDMA)-based GSM, originally from Europe but used in most of the world outside Japan and North America. In North America, Digital AMPS ICs: Frod Basics to ASICs. Springer. p. 243. ISBN 9783319475974.
^ "Free WiFi Analyzer-Best Channel Analyzer Apps For Wireless Networks". The Digital Worm. 9 June 2017. Archived from the original on 8 August 2017.
^ "Apple.com Airport Utility Product Page". Apple, Inc. Archived from the original on 8 June 2011. Retrieved 14 June 2011.
^ "GainSpan low-power, embedded Wi-Fi". www.gainspan.com. Archived from the original on 30 June 2010. Retrieved 17 June 2017.
^ "Quatech Rolls Out Airborne Embedded 802.11 Radio for M2M Market". Archived from the original on 28 April 2008. Retrieved 29 April 2008.
^ "CIE article on embedded Wi-Fi for M2M applications". Archived from the original on 18 April 2015. Retrieved 28 November 2014.
^ "WiFi Connectivity Explained | MAC Installations & Consulting". Retrieved 9 February 2020.
^ Jensen, Joe (26 October 2007). "802.11 X Wireless Network in a Business Environment - Pros and Cons". Networkbits. Archived from the original on 5 March 2008. Retrieved 8 April 2008.
^ Higgs, Larry (1 July 2013). "Free Wi-Fi? User beware: Open connections to Internet are full of security dangers, hackers, ID thieves". Asbury Park Press. Archived from the original on 2 July 2013.
^ Gittleson, Kim (28 March 2014). "Data-stealing Snoopy drone unveiled at Black Hat". BBC News. Archived from the original on 30 March 2014. Retrieved 29 March 2014.
^ Bernstein, Daniel J. (200



