

# Network Layer: Logical Addressing

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## **BCSC 0008: Computer Networks**

**Objective:** *The objective is to understand fundamental underlying principles of computer networking, details and functionality of layered network architecture.*

**Credits: 03**

**Semester - IV**

**L-T-P-J: 3-1-0-0**

<b>Module No.</b>	<b>Content</b>	<b>Teaching Hours</b>
I	<b>Introduction Concepts:</b> Goals and Applications of Networks, Network structure and architecture, The OSI reference model, services, Network Topology Design, Physical Layer Transmission Media, Line coding scheme, switching methods (circuit switching, Packet switching), TDM. <b>Medium Access sub layer:</b> Medium Access sub layer - Channel Allocations, LAN protocols - ALOHA protocols, CSMA, CSMA/CD, Overview of IEEE standards. <b>Data Link Layer:</b> Error detection and correction, Flow control (sliding window protocol)	20
II	<b>Network Layer:</b> Network Layer –IP addressing, subnet, CIDR, VLSM, Internetworking, Address mapping, routing. Connecting devices. <b>Transport Layer:</b> Transport Layer - Design issues, connection management, Flow control, TCP window management, congestion control-slow start algorithm. <b>Application Layer:</b> Data compression, Data Encryption, File Transfer, DNS, HTTP, SMTP, TELNET <b>Introduction to IPv6, transition from IPv4 to IPv6.</b>	20

### **Text Books:**

- Forouzan B. A. , "Data Communication and Networking", 4th Edition, McGrawHill,2004.

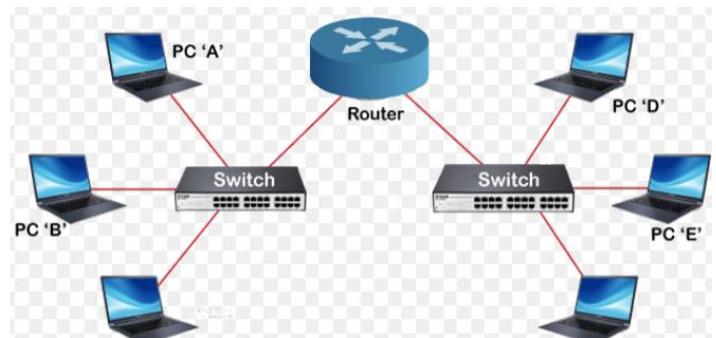
### **References:**

- Kurose, J.F. and Ross K.W., "Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach Featuring the Internet", 3rd Edition, Addison-Wesley,2005.
- A.S. Tanenbaum, "Computer Networks", 2nd Edition, Prentice Hall India,2006.

## ROUTER:

A router is a networking device **that forwards data packets between computer networks**. Routers perform the traffic directing functions between networks and on the global Internet.

A network switch **connects devices in a network to each other, enabling them to talk by exchanging data packets**.



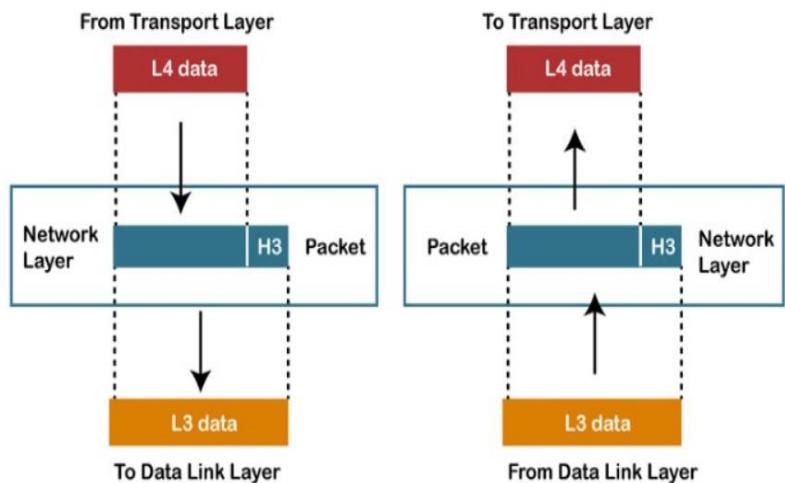
A switch connects multiple devices to create a network, a router connects multiple switches, and their respective networks, to form an even larger network.

<b>Router</b>	<b>Switch</b>
The main objective of router is to connect various networks simultaneously.	While the main objective of switch is to connect various devices simultaneously.
It works in <u>network layer</u> .	While it works in <u>data link layer</u> .
Router is used by <u>LAN</u> as well as <u>MAN</u> .	While switch is used by only LAN.
Through the router, data is sent in the form of packets.	While through switch data is sent in the form of frame.
There is less collision taking place in the router.	While there is no collision taking place in full duplex switch.
<u>Router</u> is a relatively much more expensive device than switch.	Switch is an expensive device than <u>hub</u> . but cheaper than router.
maximum speed for wireless is 1-10 Mbps and maximum speed for wired connections is 100 Mbps.	Maximum speed is 10Mbps to 100Mbps.

# NETWORK LAYER

In the seven-layer OSI model of computer networking, the network layer is layer 3. The network layer is responsible for packet forwarding including routing through intermediate routers.

- ✓ Network layer is responsible for source to destination delivery of the packets.
- ✓ The network layer must know the topology of the subnet and choose appropriate paths through it.
- ✓ When source and destination are in *different networks*, the network layer (IP) must deal with these differences.



## Functions Performed by the Network Layer

The network layer performs several functions to facilitate data transmission in a network. Some of the functions performed are as follows:

**Routing:** It is the process to determine the most effective route for data transmission in the network. When a data packet arrives at the router's input link, it determines the ideal route for data transmission in the network. It determines the path that will be used to transfer the packet further in the network.

**Logical Addressing:** There are two types of addressing performed in the network: logical addressing and physical addressing.

The data link layer performs the physical addressing, while the network layer does the logical addressing in the OSI model.

Logical addressing is also used to distinguish between the source and destination system. The network layer adds a header to the packet, which includes the logical addresses of both the sender and the receiver.

**Internetworking:** This is the most important function performed by the network layer of the OSI model. It establishes the logical connection between nodes in the same or different networks.

**Fragmentation:** It is the conversion of data packets into the smallest individual data units capable of being transmitted in the network.

## Network Layer Services:

- 1. Guaranteed delivery:** This layer offers a service that ensures the packet arrives at its destination.
- 2. Guaranteed delivery with bounded delay:** This service assures that the packet will arrive within the given host-to-host delay bound.
- 3. In-Order packets:** This service assures that packets reach their destination in the order they were delivered.
- 4. Security services:** These are provided at the network layer through the use of a session key between the source and destination hosts. The payloads of datagrams transmitted to the destination host are encrypted by the network layer of the source host. The payload would subsequently be decrypted by the network layer at the target host.

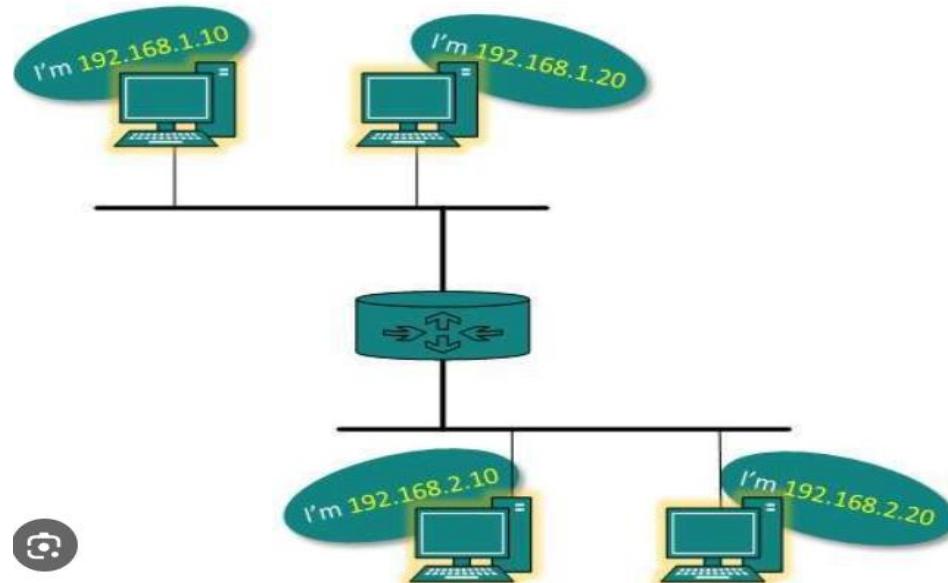
# Logical Addressing

Logical address also referred to as **IP (Internet Protocol) address** is an **universal addressing system**. It is used in the Network layer. This address facilitates universal communication that are not dependent on the underlying physical networks.

**There are two types of IP addresses: IPv4 and IPv6.**

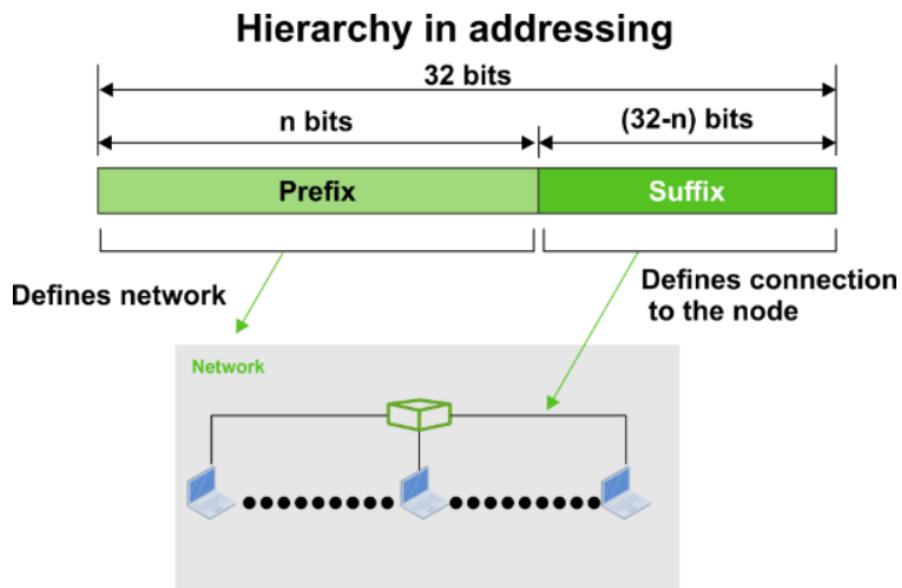
What is logical addressing in network?

An IP address is also known as a logical address and it can change over time as well as from one network to another. The Internet Service Provider will be in charge of assigning it. When a device connects to a different network, it receives a different IP address as a result of a change in Internet Service Provider.



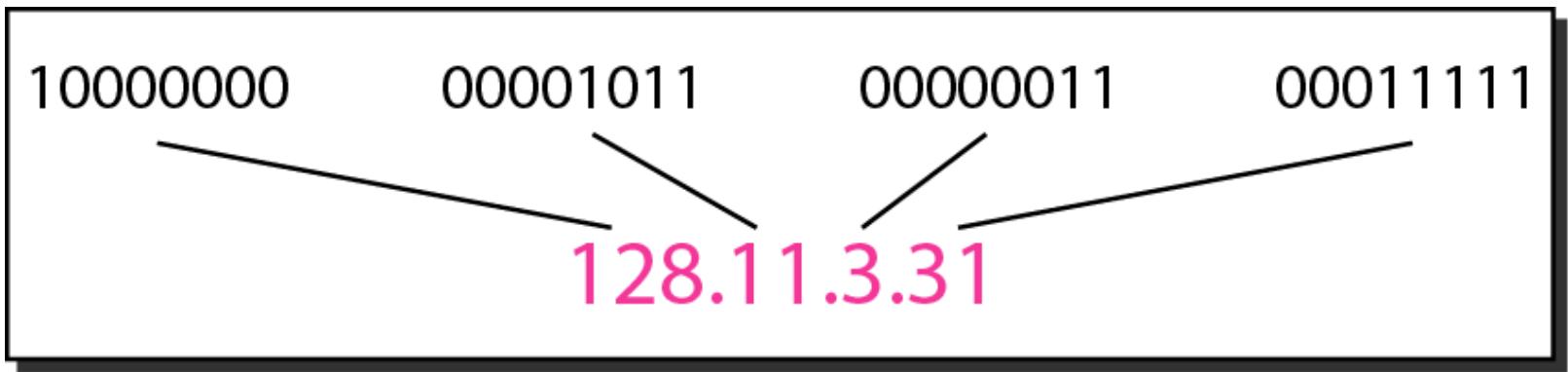
# IPv4 ADDRESSES

An **IPv4 address** is a **32-bit** address that uniquely and universally defines the connection of a device (for example, a computer or a router) to the Internet.



**The IPv4 addresses are unique and universal.**

**The address space of IPv4 is  $2^{32}$  or 4,294,967,296** (Four billion, two hundred ninety-four million, nine hundred sixty-seven thousand, two hundred ninety-six)



**Figure 1** *Dotted-decimal notation and binary notation for an IPv4 address*

## **Example 1**

*Change the following IPv4 addresses from binary notation to dotted-decimal notation.*

- a. 10000001 00001011 00001011 11101111
- b. 11000001 10000011 00011011 11111111

## **Solution**

*We replace each group of 8 bits with its equivalent decimal number (see Appendix B) and add dots for separation.*

- a. 129.11.11.239
- b. 193.131.27.255

## **Example 2**

*Change the following IPv4 addresses from dotted-decimal notation to binary notation.*

- a. 111.56.45.78
- b. 221.34.7.82

## **Solution**

*We replace each decimal number with its binary equivalent (see Appendix B).*

- a. 01101111 00111000 00101101 01001110
- b. 11011101 00100010 00000111 01010010

## **Example 3**

*Find the error, if any, in the following IPv4 addresses.*

- a. 111.56.045.78
- b. 221.34.7.8.20
- c. 75.45.301.14
- d. 11100010.23.14.67

## **Solution**

- a. There must be no leading zero (045).*
- b. There can be no more than four numbers.*
- c. Each number needs to be less than or equal to 255.*
- d. A mixture of binary notation and dotted-decimal notation is not allowed.*

## IP address classes

Based on the following rules, IP addresses are categorized into five classes; A, B, C, D, and E.

- In class **A**, the first bit of the first byte always remains **OFF** (0).
- In class **B**, the first bit of the first byte always remains **ON** and the second bit of the first byte always remains **OFF**.
- In class **C**, the first two bits of the first byte always remain **ON** and the third bit of the first byte always remains **OFF**.
- In class **D**, the first three bits of the first byte always remain **ON** and the fourth bit of the first byte always remains **OFF**.
- In class **E**, the first four bits of the first byte always remain **ON**.

## Network and host addressing

In the second level of the hierarchical addressing scheme, each address is further divided into two addresses: the **network address** and **host address**.

**Network addresses are used to combine multiple IP addresses in a group** while host addresses are used to provide a unique identity to each IP address in the group. A network address is the group address. All group members use the same network address. A host address is a unique address in the group.

**In classful addressing, the address space is divided into five classes: A, B, C, D, and E.**

### Class A

### Class B

128. 0. 0. 0 = 10000000.0000000.0000000.0000000  
191.255.255.255 = 10111111.11111111.11111111.11111111  
                      10000000.0000000.11111111.11111111

### class C

192. 0. 0. 0 = 11000000.0000000.0000000.0000000  
223.255.255.255 = 11011111.11111111.11111111.11111111  
                      110ooooooooooooooo, oooooooooooooooo, oooooooooooooooo, HHHHHHHHH

### Class D

class F

240. 0. 0. 0 = 11110000.00000000.00000000.00000000  
255.255.255.255 = 11111111.11111111.11111111.11111111  
                      1111XXXX.XXXXXXXXXX.XXXXXXXXXX.XXXXXXXXXX

- $n$  indicates a bit used for the network ID.
  - $H$  indicates a bit used for the host ID.
  - $X$  indicates a bit without a specified purpose.

	First byte	Second byte	Third byte	Fourth byte
Class A	0			
Class B	10			
Class C	110			
Class D	1110			
Class E	1111			

a. Binary notation

	First byte	Second byte	Third byte	Fourth byte
Class A	0–127			
Class B	128–191			
Class C	192–223			
Class D	224–239			
Class E	240–255			

b. Dotted-decimal notation

***Finding the classes in binary and dotted-decimal notation***

## 1. Class A:

An IP address is allocated to networks with a high number of hosts in Class A. The network ID has an 8-bit length. The host ID has a length of 24 bits. The first bit in the higher order bits of the first octet is always set to 0 in Class A, while the following 7 bits define the network ID.



There are  $2^7 - 2 = 126$  networks in the Class A network

Total number of Host IDs in Class A =  $2^{24} - 2$  [1, 67, 77, 214]

Total number of connections in Class A =  $2^{31}$  (2, 14, 74, 83, 648)

Organizations needing very large networks, like Indian Railways, employ class A.

An example of a Class A address is 102.168.212.226. Here, “102” helps you identify the network and 168.212.226 identify the host.

## **127.0.0.1 IP Address**

It is a loopback address(localhost address).

This address is used to connect to the same machine or computer the end-user is using.

127.x.y.z also is another address of the computer. **127.0.0.0 is a loopback subnet** and **127.255.255.255 is a broadcast address for the loopback subnet.**

## **0.0.0.0 IP Address**

It is a non-routable address.

It indicates an invalid, unknown, or inapplicable end-user address

0.0.0.0 is not the address of anything.

127.0.0.1 signals the TCP/IP of your computer that it don not want to connect to the Internet. It states **a connection to a server hosted on the same computer**. As such, you'll typically enter it when telling the software to connect to a server via a web browser or a game.

0.0.0.0, on the other hand, is more of a wildcard than a specific location. When you use 0.0.0.0, you tell the software **to allow connections from every local IP address possible** instead of just 127.0.0.1.

## 2. Class B:

An IP address is issued to Class B networks, which range in size from modest to big. The Network ID is made up of 16 bits. The Host ID has a length of 16 bits.



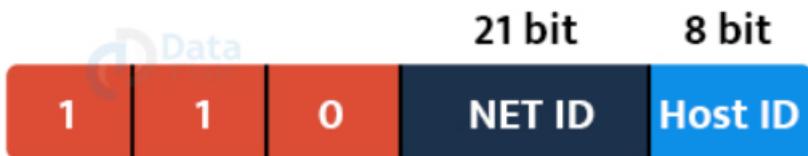
The higher order bits of the first octet are always 10 in Class B, while the remaining 14 bits define the network ID. The last 16 bits define the Host ID.

- Total number of connections in the class B network is  $2^{30} = 1,07,37,41,824$
- Total number of networks available in class B is  $2^{14} = 16,384$
- Total number of hosts that can be configured in Class B =  $2^{16} - 2 = 65,534$
- Organizations needing medium-sized networks typically utilize class B.

An example of Class B IP address is 168.212.226.204, where \*168 212\* identifies the network and \*226.204\* helps you identify the host network.

### 3. Class C:

Only small-sized networks are allocated an IP address in Class C. The Network ID has a length of 24 bits. The host ID has an 8-bit length.



Total number of connections in Class C =  $2^{29}$  = 53, 68, 70, 912.

Total number of networks available in Class C =  $2^{24}$  = 20, 97, 152.

Total number of hosts that can be configured in every network in Class

$$C = 2^8 - 2 = 254.$$

Organizations needing small to medium-sized networks typically choose class C.

## 4. Class D:

An IP address in Class D is designated for multicast addresses. It doesn't have subnetting. The first octet's higher order bits are always 1110, while the remaining bits decide the host ID in any network. Class D addresses are 32-bit network addresses. All the values within the range are used to identify multicast groups uniquely.



Therefore, there is no requirement to extract the host address from the IP address, so Class D does not have any subnet mask.

Example for a Class D IP address: 227.21.6.173

## 5. Class E:

An IP address is utilised in Class E for future usage or for research and development. It doesn't have any subnetting. The first octet's higher order bits are always 1111, while the remaining bits decide the host ID in any network.



However, E class is reserved, and its usage is never defined. Therefore, many network implementations discard these addresses as undefined or illegal.

Example for a Class E IP address:  
243.164.89.28

Class	IP Address Range	Usages
A	1.0.0.0 - 127.255.255.255	Very large organizations
B	128.0.0.0 - 191.255.255.255	Mid size organizations
C	192.0.0.0 - 223.255.255.255	Very small organizations
D	224.0.0.0 - 239.255.255.255	Multi-casting
E	240.0.0.0 - 255.255.255.255	Experimental purposes (Reserved)

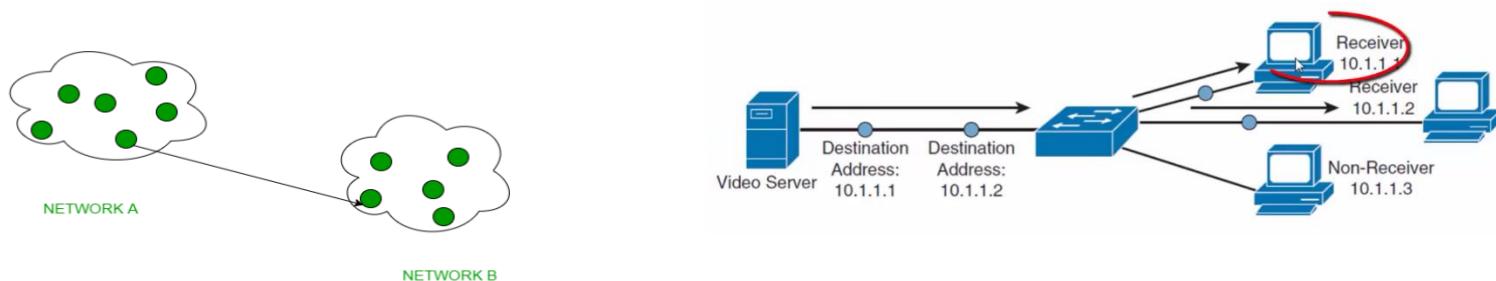
# Summary

- An IP (Internet Protocol) address is a numerical label assigned to the devices connected to a computer network that uses the IP for communication.
- IP Address is divided into two parts: 1) Prefix 2) Suffix
- IP address works in a network like a postal address. For example, a postal address combines two addresses, address, or your area your house address.
- In a class A type of network, the first 8 bits (also called the first octet) identify the network, and the remaining have 24 bits for the host into that network.
- In class B type of network, the first 16 bits (known as two octets) help you identify the network. The other remaining 16 bits indicate the host within the network.
- In class C, three octets are used to identify the network. This IP ranges between 192 to 223.
- Class D addresses are 32-bit network addresses. All the values within the range are used to identify multicast groups uniquely.
- Class E IP address is defined by including the starting four network address bits as 1.
- Important rule for assigning network id is that the network ID cannot start with 127 as this number belongs to class A address and reserved for internal loopback functions.

## Unicast:

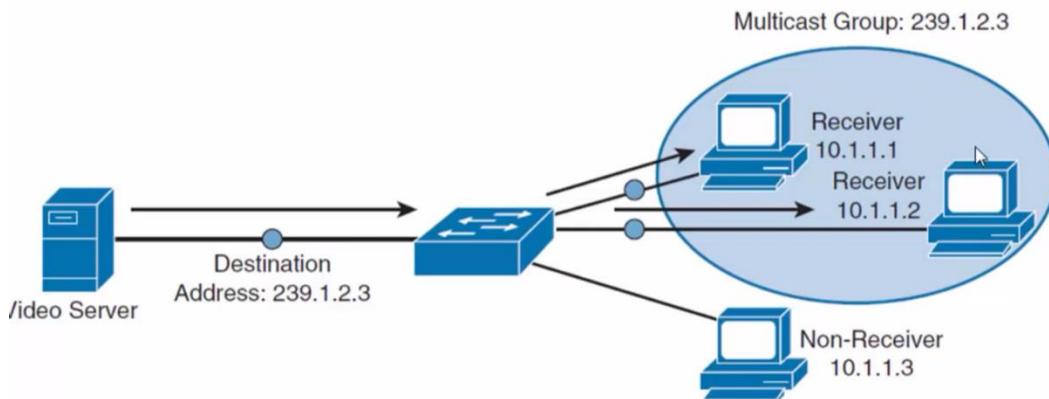
This type of information transfer is useful when there is a participation of a single sender and a single recipient. So, in short, you can term it a one-to-one transmission.

For example, if a device having IP address 10.1.2.0 in a network wants to send the traffic stream(data packets) to the device with IP address 20.12.4.2 in the other network, then unicast comes into the picture. This is the most common form of data transfer over networks.



## Multicast:

In multicasting, one/more senders and one/more recipients participate in data transfer traffic. In this method traffic recline between the boundaries of unicast (one-to-one) and broadcast (one-to-all). Multicast lets servers direct single copies of data streams that are then simulated and routed to hosts that request it. IP multicast requires the support of some other protocols like **IGMP (Internet Group Management Protocol)**, **Multicast routing** for its work. Also in Classful IP addressing **Class D** is reserved for multicast groups.

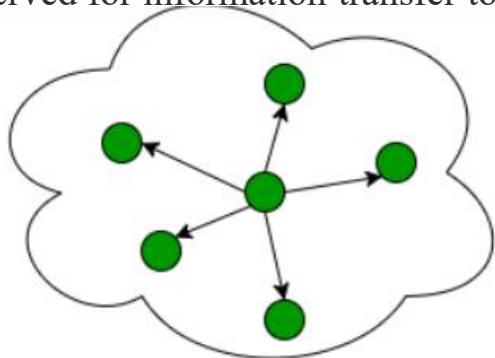


**In IPv6 networks, multicast addresses have a prefix of ff00::/8.**

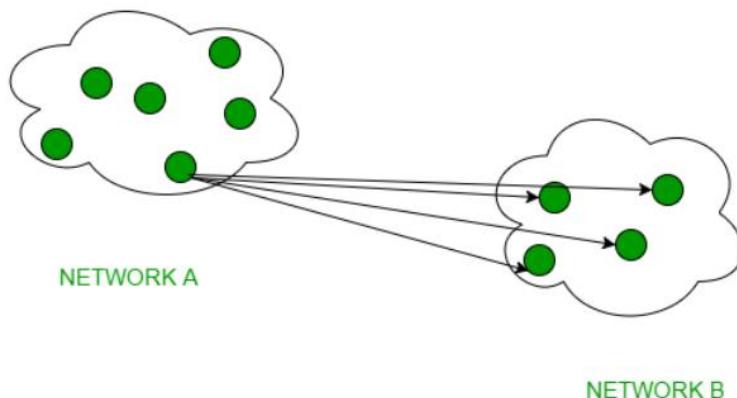
## Broadcast:

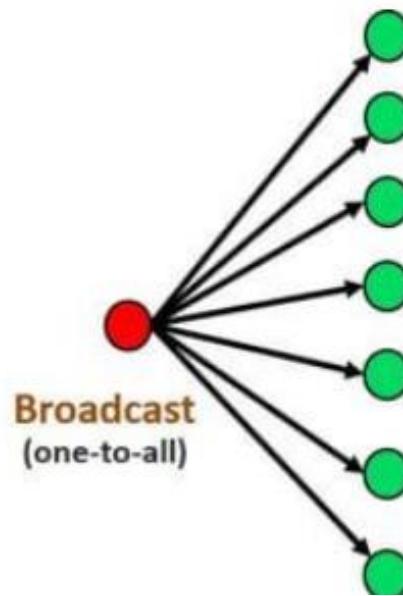
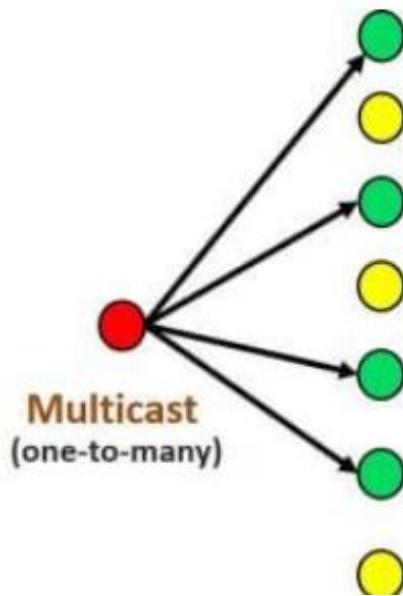
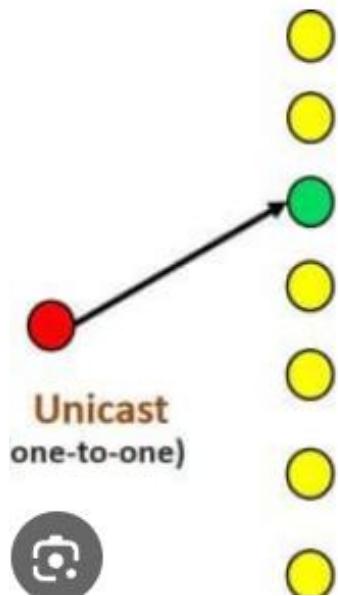
Broadcasting transfer (one-to-all) techniques can be classified into two types:

**Limited Broadcasting:** Suppose you have to send a stream of packets to all the devices over the network that your reside, this broadcasting comes in handy. For this to achieve, it will append 255.255.255.255 (all the 32 bits of IP address set to 1) called **Limited Broadcast Address** in the destination address of the datagram (packet) header which is reserved for information transfer to all the recipients from a single client (sender) over the network.



**Direct Broadcasting:** This is useful when a device in one network wants to transfer packet stream to all the devices over the other network. This is achieved by translating all the Host ID part bits of the destination address to 1, referred to as **Direct Broadcast Address** in the datagram header for information transfer.





# Subnet Mask

A subnet mask is used in a process known as **subnetting**, in which a large network is divided into smaller networks.

A subnet mask is used to determine the network address and host address:

Class	Default Subnet mask
A	255.0.0.0
B	255.255.0.0
C	255.255.255.0

In simple words, the subnet mask tells, how many bits in the IP address are used as the network address and how many bits are left for the host address. IP addresses are always written with the subnet mask.

## Examples of IP addresses

Decimal notation	Binary notation
1.2.3.4 255.0.0.0	00000001.00000010.00000011.00000100 11111111.00000000.00000000.00000000
168.172.1.1 255.255.0.0	10101000.10101100.00000001.00000001 11111111.11111111.00000000.00000000
210.20.30.40 255.255.255.0	11010010.00010100.00011110.00101000 11111111.11111111.11111111.00000000

Examples of class C IP addresses are the following.

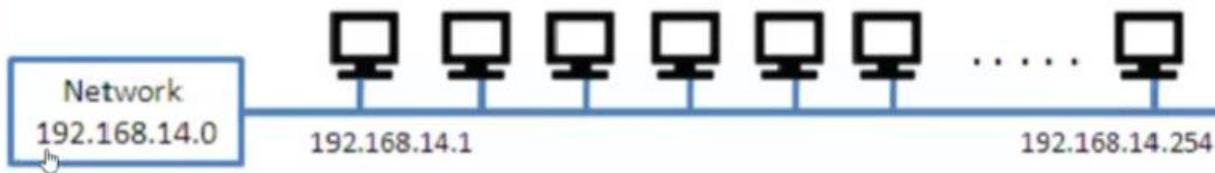
Decimal notation	Binary notation
192.168.1.1 255.255.255.0	11000000.10101000.00000001.00000001 11111111.11111111.11111111.00000000
210.20.30.40 255.255.255.0	11010010.00010100.00011110.00101000 11111111.11111111.11111111.00000000
216.123.145.16 255.255.255.0	11011000.01111011.10010001.00010000 11111111.11111111.11111111.00000000
220.86.76.43 255.255.255.0	11011100.01010110.01001100.00101011 11111111.11111111.11111111.00000000
220.60.80.100 255.255.255.0	11011100.00111100.01010000.01100100 11111111.11111111.11111111.00000000

# SUBNETTING

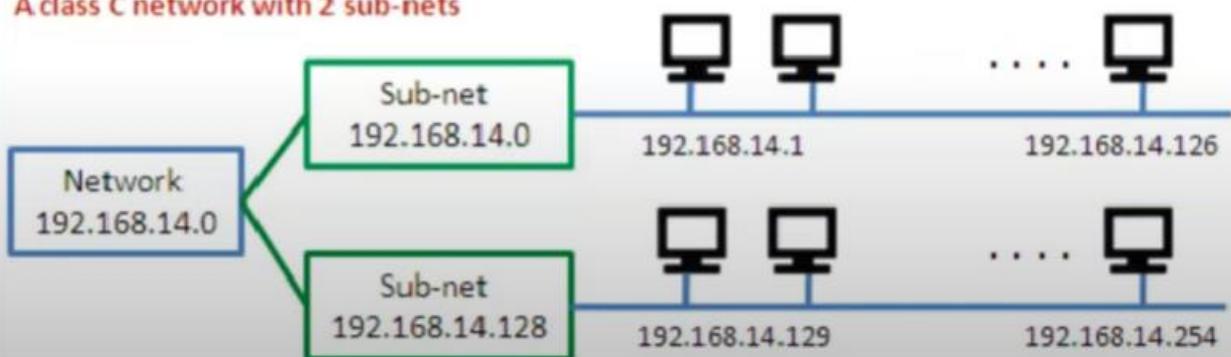
- ★ A subnetwork or subnet is a logical subdivision of an IP network.
- ★ The practice of dividing a network into two or more networks is called subnetting.
- ★ Computers that belong to a subnet are addressed with an identical most-significant bit-group in their IP addresses.

## IP Sub-netting Example

A class C network without sub-netting



A class C network with 2 sub-nets



## Uses of Subnetting

1. Subnetting helps in **organizing the network in an efficient way** which helps in expanding the technology for large firms and companies.
2. Subnetting is used for specific staffing structures **to reduce traffic and maintain order and efficiency.**
3. Subnetting divides domains of the broadcast so that traffic is routed efficiently, which helps in improving network performance.
4. Subnetting is used in increasing **network security.**

The reasons to use subnetting are:

- Conservation of IP addresses
- Reduced network traffic
- Simplified troubleshooting

## How Does Subnetting Work?

The working of subnets starts in such a way that firstly it divides the subnets into smaller subnets. For communicating between subnets, routers are used. Each subnet allows its linked devices to communicate with each other. Subnetting for a network should be done in such a way that it does not affect the network bits.

Subnet	1	2	4	8	16	32	64	128	256
Host	256	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1

## SUBNETTING – 5 STEPS

1. Identify the class of the IP address and note the Default Subnet Mask.
2. Convert the Default Subnet Mask into Binary.
3. Note the number of hosts required per subnet and find the Subnet Generator (SG) and octet position.  
→
4. Generate the new subnet mask.
5. Use the SG and generate the network ranges (subnets) in the appropriate octet position.

$192.168.50.0 /24$  = 1 network of 256 hosts (minus the network and the broadcast

or

$/25$  (255.255.255.128) = 2 subnets of 128 hosts (minus 2)

or

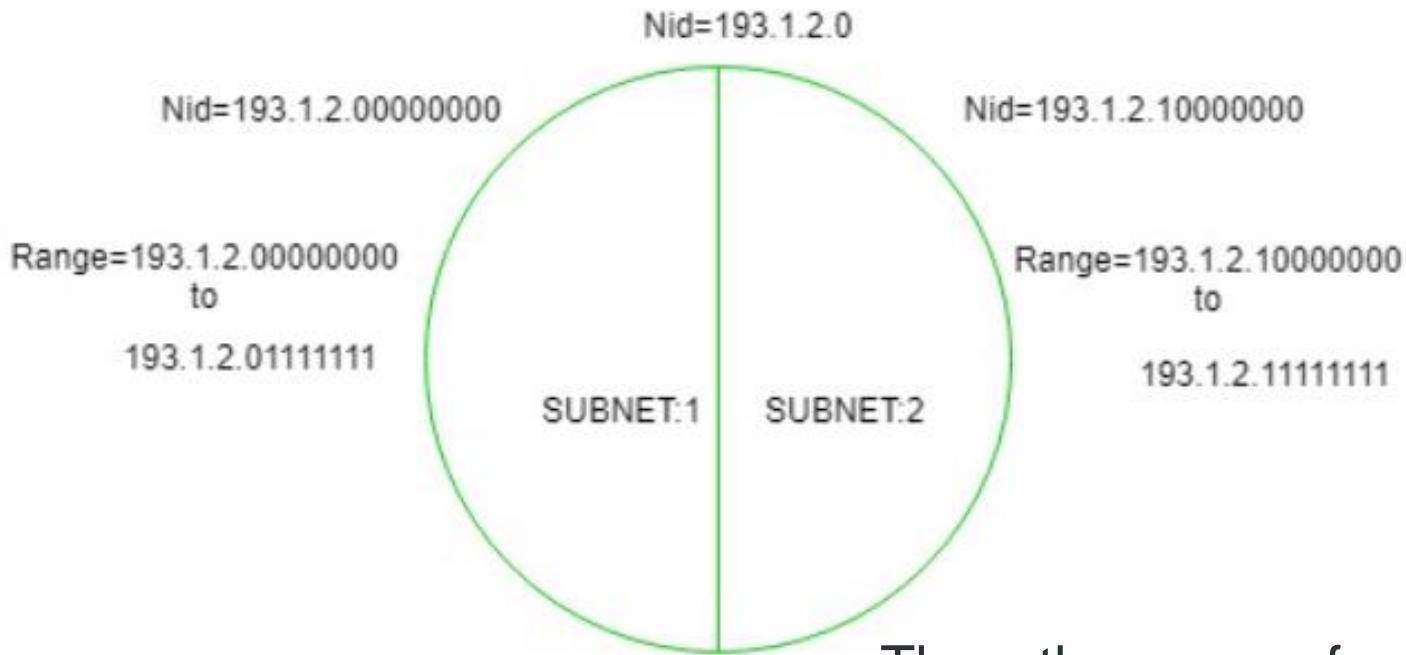
$/26$  (255.255.255.192) = 4 subnets of 64 hosts (minus 2)

or

$/27$  (255.255.255.224) = 8 subnets of 32 hosts (minus 2)

or

$/28$  (255.255.255.240) = 16 subnets of 16 hosts (minus 2)



Thus, the range of subnet 1  
is: **193.1.2.0 to 193.1.2.127**

Subnet id of Subnet-1 is : 193.1.2.0

The direct Broadcast id of Subnet-1 is: 193.1.2.127

The total number of hosts possible is: 126 (Out of 128,

2 id's are used for Subnet id & Direct Broadcast id)

The subnet mask of Subnet- 1 is: 255.255.255.128

Thus, the range of subnet-2  
is: **193.1.2.128 to 193.1.2.255**

Subnet id of Subnet-2 is : 193.1.2.128

The direct Broadcast id of Subnet-2 is: 193.1.2.255

The total number of hosts possible is: 126 (Out of 128,

2 id's are used for Subnet id & Direct Broadcast id)

The subnet mask of Subnet- 2 is: 255.255.255.128

The best way to find out the subnet mask of a subnet is to set the fixed bit of host-id to 1 and the rest to 0.

## QUESTION

Subnet the IP address 216.21.5.0 into 30 hosts in each subnet.

## SOLUTION

1. Class C – Default Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.0

2. 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 . 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 . 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 . 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

3. No. of hosts/subnet: 30 (11110) – 5 bits      SG: 32      Octet Position: 4

1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 . 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 . 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 . 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0

4. New subnet mask: 255.255.255.224 or /27

5. Network Ranges (Subnets)

216.21.5.0 – 216.21.5.31

216.21.5.32 – 216.21.5.63

216.21.5.64 – 216.21.5.95

216.21.5.96 – 216.21.5.127

216.21.5.128 – 216.21.5.159

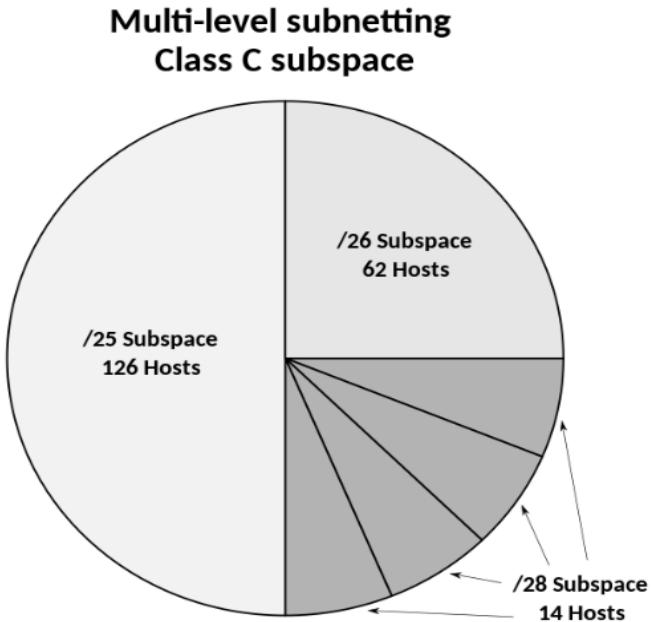
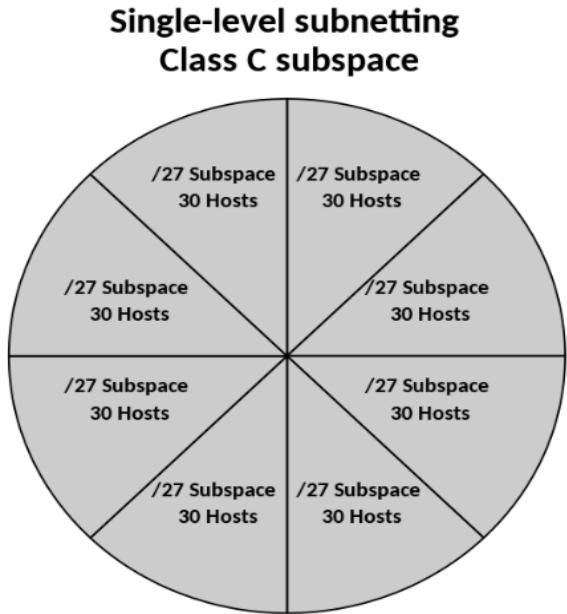
and so on... 

# FLSM vs VLSM:

FLSM stands for Full Length Subnet Mask. **It means all the subnets are of the same size.** In FLSM, the subnet mask remains the same for all the subnets.

**FLSM creates subnets of the same size and an equal number of host identifiers**

VLSM stands for Variable Length Subnet Mask. **It means the size of the subnet varies according to the needs.** In VLSM, the subnet mask is different normally but it can be same for any two or more subnets depending upon the situation.



FLSM:

Q. Suppose you are network administrator with provided network 172.16.0.0/24. You need to manage the entire n/w by dividing into subnetworks so that each of the Development, Sales, Reception, HR and Production. How would you do so?

**VLSM: Example.** An administrator has 192.168.1.0/24 network. The administrator has four different departments with different number of hosts. Sales department has 100 computers, Purchase department has 50 computers, Accounts has 25 computers and Management has 5 computers; the subnets are of fixed size. Calculate the network id, subnet mask, No. of usable host, host range, broadcast address.

Solution:

1. Allocate the highest range of IPs to the highest requirement, so let's assign 192.168.1.0 /25 (255.255.255.128) to the Sales department. This IP subnet with Network number 192.168.1.0 has 126 valid Host IP addresses which satisfy the requirement of the Sales department. The subnet mask used for this subnet has 10000000 as the last octet.
2. Allocate the next highest range, so let's assign 192.168.1.128 /26 (255.255.255.192) to the Purchase department. This IP subnet with Network number 192.168.1.128 has 62 valid Host IP Addresses which can be easily assigned to all the PCs of the Purchase department. The subnet mask used has 11000000 in the last octet.

3. Allocate the next highest range, i.e. Accounts. The requirement of 25 IPs can be fulfilled with 192.168.1.192 /27 (255.255.255.224) IP subnet, which contains 30 valid host IPs. The network number of Accounts department will be 192.168.1.192. The last octet of subnet mask is 11100000.

4. Allocate the next highest range to Management. The Management department contains only 5 computers. The subnet 192.168.1.224 /29 with the Mask 255.255.255.248 has exactly 6 valid host IP addresses. So, this can be assigned to Management. The last octet of the subnet mask will contain 11111000.

## **VLSM subnetting:**

The given network address is: 192.168.1.0/24

Given requirement in descending order is:

Sales 100

Purchase 50

Accounts 25

Management 5

The complete range of the address in the above provided network is:

192.168.1.0 to 192.168.1.255

Divide the given network consisting 256 hosts into 2 networks with 128 hosts each:

192.168.1.0-192.168.1.127 (192.168.1.0/25)

192.168.1.128-192.168.1.255 (192.168.1.128/25)

The largest network requirement is of 100 hosts for Sales department. For this, we need to assign subnetwork with 128 hosts.

Let us assign the first divided subnetwork 192.168.1.0/25 to Sales Department.

We now have remaining subnetwork 192.168.1.128/25.

Dividing this subnetwork, two subnetworks with 64 hosts each are formed.

192.168.1.128 to 192.168.1.191 (192.168.1.128/26)

192.168.1.192 to 192.168.1.255 (192.168.1.192/26)

Our second network requirement is of 50 hosts for Purchase department. We need to assign subnetwork consisting of 64 hosts.

Assigning 192.168.1.128/26 to Purchase department.

The remaining subnetwork available is **192.168.1.192/26**.

Dividing this subnetwork, two subnetworks with 32 hosts each are formed.

192.168.1.192 to 192.168.1.223 (192.168.1.192/27)

192.168.1.224 to 192.168.1.255 (192.168.1.224/27)

The third largest requirement is of 25 hosts for Account department.

Assigning 192.168.1.192/27 to Account Department.

Remaining subnetwork is 192.168.1.224/27

Dividing this subnetwork, two subnetworks with 16 hosts each are formed.

192.168.1.224 to 192.168.1.239 (192.168.1.224/28)

192.168.1.240 to 192.168.1.255 (192.168.1.240/28)

Our fourth network requirement is of 5 hosts for Management department. We need to assign subnetwork consisting of 8 hosts, which is sufficient.

So, again dividing the subnetwork 192.168.1.240/28, two subnetworks with 8 hosts each are formed.

192.168.1.240 to 192.168.1.247 (192.168.1.240/29)

192.168.1.248 to 192.168.1.255 (192.168.1.248/29)

Our fourth network requirement is of 5 hosts for Management department. We need to assign subnetwork consisting of 8 hosts.

Summarizing the subnetting results,

Network Name	Network ID	Subnet mask	No. of usable hosts	Usable Host ID Range	Broadcast address
Sales	192.168.1.0	/25	126	192.168.1.1 to 192.168.1.126	192.168.1.127
Purchase	192.168.1.128	/26	62	192.168.129 to 192.168.1.190	192.168.1.191
Account	192.168.1.192	/27	30	192.168.1.193 to 192.168.1.222	192.168.1.223
Management	192.168.1.240	/29	6	192.168.1.241 to 192.168.1.246	192.168.1.247
Unused	192.168.1.224/28 (192.168.1.224 to 192.168.1.239)				
Unused	192.168.1.247/29 (192.168.1.247 to 192.168.1.255)				

**Q. If you are assigned an IP address 92.16.1.0/24 and plans to deploy CIDR. Here are some requirements which you have to fulfill for Subnet A= 120 hosts, Subnet B=60 hosts, Subnet C=30 hosts, Subnet D= 10 hosts, Subnet E= 5. You are also required to calculate subnet mask, range, netid, broadcast id for each subnet.**

Network Name	Network ID	Subnet mask	No. of usable hosts	Usable Host ID Range	Broadcast address
Subnet A	92.16.1.0	/25	126	92.16.1.1 to 92.16.1.126	92.16.1.127
Subnet B	92.16.1.128	/26	62	92.16.129 to 92.16.1.190	92.16.1.191
Subnet C	92.16.1.192	/27	30	92.16.1.193 to 92.16.1.222	92.16.1.223
Subnet D	92.16.1.224	/28	14	92.16.1.225 to 92.16.1.238	92.16.1.239
Subnet E	92.16.1.240	/29	6	92.16.1.241 to 92.16.1.246	92.16.1.247
Unused	92.16.1.248/29 (92.16.1.248 to 92.16.1.255)				

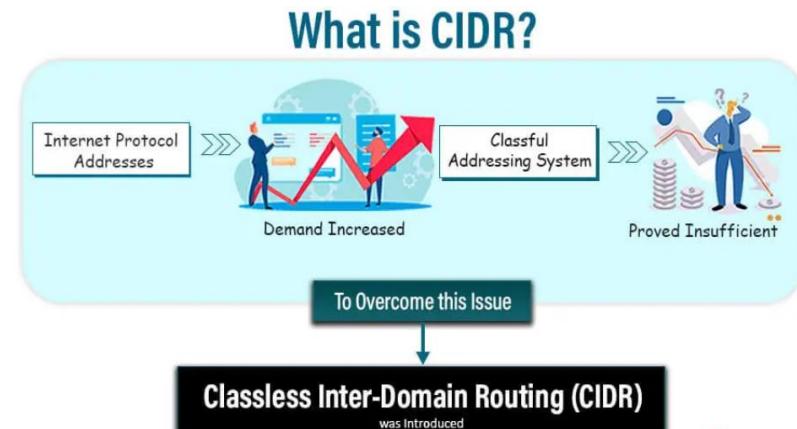
## Classless Inter-Domain Routing (CIDR):

Classless Inter-Domain Routing (CIDR) is an IP address allocation method that improves data routing efficiency on the internet. Every machine, server, and end-user device that connects to the internet has a unique number, called an IP address, associated with it.

It is an IP address assigning method that improves the efficiency of address distribution. It is also known as supernetting that replaces the older system based on classes A, B, and C networks.

By using a single CIDR IP address many unique IP addresses can be designated. CIDR IP address is the same as the normal IP address except that it ends with a slash followed by a number.

**172.200.0.0/16** It is called IP network prefix.



Supernetting is the process of aggregating routes to multiple smaller networks.

Supernetting is a technique for combining multiple smaller network addresses into a single larger network address. Doing it allows more efficient routing and reduces the size of the routing table.

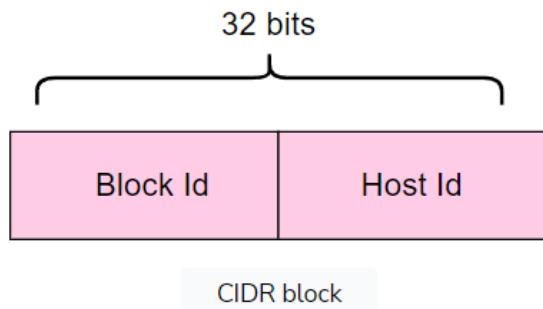
# Classless Addressing in IP Addressing

Classless addressing, also called **Classless Inter-Domain Routing (CIDR)**, is an improved IP addressing system. It increases the effectiveness of IP address allocation **because of the absence of class distribution**.

## Structure

The CIDR block comprises two parts. These are as follows:

- Block id is used for the network identification, but the number of bits is not pre-defined as it is in the classful IP addressing scheme.
- Host id is used to identify the host part of the network.



## Notation

CIDR IP addresses as follows:

$w.x.y.z/n$

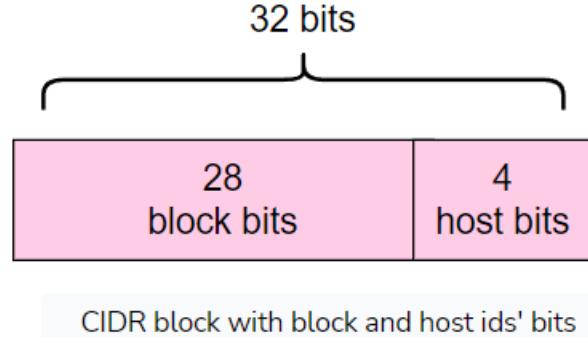
In the example above,  $w,x,y,z$  each defines an 8-bit binary number, while  $n$  tells us about the number of bits used to identify the network and is called an **IP network prefix or mask**.

## Block information

Given the following IP address, let's find the network and host bits.

200.56.23.41/28

The following illustration gives a clear understanding of the aforementioned IP address scheme:



To find the network and host bits, we will use the stated formula, where  $b$  represents the number of hosts in the network.

$$n_h = 2^{32-n}$$

This particular case, in which  $n$  equals 28, represents the block id bits, so subtracting it with 32 leaves us with the total number of hosts expected in the network.

$$n_h = 2^{32-28}$$

$$n_h = 2^4$$

# Benefits

Following are the benefits of classless IP addressing:

- Efficient IP address allocations.
- More balanced use of IP address ranges.
- More efficient routing.

## Characteristics of CIDR

It dynamically allocates the IP addresses by using CIDR blocks on the requirement of the user based on certain rules.

The assignment of the CIDR block is handled by the **Internet Assigned Number Authority (IANA)**.

CIDR block consists of IP addresses and it consists of some rules:

1. All IP addresses which are allocated to host must be continuous.
2. The block size must be of power 2 and equal to the total number of IP addresses.
3. The size of the block must be divisible by the first IP address of the block.

Example: If the Block size is  $2^5$  then, Host Id will contain 5 bits and Network will contain  $32 - 5 = 27$  bits. First IP address of the Block must be evenly divisible by the size of the block. in simple words, the least significant part should always start with zeroes in Host Id.

The Internet Assigned Numbers Authority (IANA) is a standards organization that oversees global IP address allocation, autonomous system number allocation, root zone management in the Domain Name System (DNS), media types, and other Internet Protocol-related symbols and Internet numbers.

**Example: The IP address range is from 21.19.35.64 and 21.19.35.127.  
Find the CIDR block?**

The IP address ranges are from 21.19.35.64 and 21.19.35.127.

Before proceeding further, the CIDR block rules mentioned above should be checked if they are satisfied; then, it is a CIDR block.

So the size of the block is  $2^6$ . (i.e.,  $127 - 64 + 1 = 64$ )

Number of bits =  $32 - 6 = 26$ .

CIDR block is 21.19.35.64/26.

**Example: The representation is 255.255.255.255/31. Find the IP addresses of the CIDR block?**

31 represents the number of bits used for the identification of the network.

The 1-bit is used for the identification of hosts.

The CIDR address is 255.255.255.255/31.

The first IP address is 255.255.255.254.

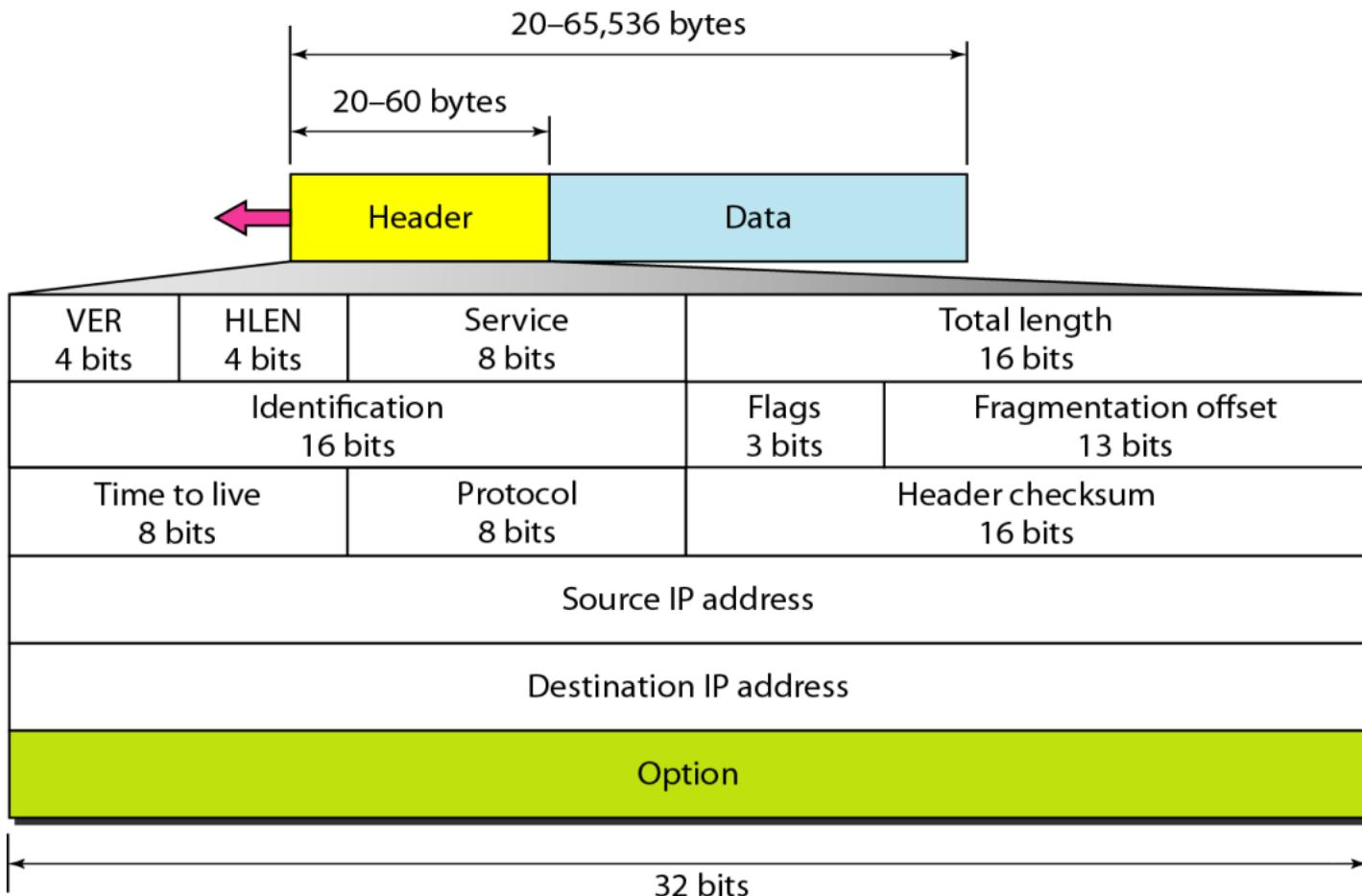
The last IP address is 255.255.255.255.

The total cost is 2.

Netmask is 255.255.255.254.

## IPv4 Header Format:

An IP header is header information at the beginning of an Internet Protocol packet. An IP packet is the smallest message entity exchanged via the Internet Protocol across an IP network. IP packets consist of a header for addressing and routing, and a payload for user data.



1. Version: This 4-bit field defines the version of the IP protocol. Currently the version is 4.
2. Header Length: This 4-bit field defines the total length of the datagram header in 4-byte words. This field is needed because the length of the header is variable (between 20 and 60 bytes).
3. Service Type: In the original design of IP header, this field was referred to as type of service (TOS) , which defined how the datagram should be handled.
4. Total Length (16 bits): Total length of the datagram, measured in octets, including header and data.
5. Identification (16 bits): A value assigned to aid in assembly of fragments.
6. Flags (3 bits): Various Control Flags.
  7. Bit 0: Reserved. Must be 0.
  8. Bit 1: (DF) 0 = May Fragment, 1 = Don't Fragment
  9. Bit 2: (MF) 0 = Last Fragment, 1 = More Fragments
10. Time to Live (8 bits): Maximum time the datagram is allowed to exist in the system. Each router that handles the datagram decrements the TTL by 1.
11. Protocol: This 8-bit field defines the higher-level protocol that uses the services of the IP layer. An IP datagram can encapsulate data from several higher level protocols such as TCP, UDP, ICMP, and IGMP.
12. Checksum: It is used to detect error in the delivery of packet.
13. Source address: This 32-bit field defines the IP address of the source.
14. Destination address: This 32-bit field defines the IP address of the destination.

**15. IP Option:** this field is not used often, is optional and has a variable length based on the options that were used. When you use this field, the value in the header length field will increase.

EXAMPLE:

*An IPv4 packet has arrived with the first 8 bits as shown:*

*01000010*

*The receiver discards the packet. Why?*

## Solution

There is an error in this packet. The 4 leftmost bits (0100) show the version, which is correct. The next 4 bits (0010) show an invalid header length ( $2 \times 4 = 8$ ). The minimum number of bytes in the header must be *20*. The packet has been corrupted in transmission.

# Why there is need of IPv6(IPng)

- Limitation in IPv4 addresses

$$2^{32} = 4,294,967,296$$

$$2^{128} = 340,282,366,920,938,463,463,374,607,431,768,211,456$$

- Realtime data transmission
- Authentication
- Encryption enabled
- Fast Processing at routers

# Internet Protocol version 6 (IPv6)

IPv6 is a 128-bits address having an address space of  $2^{128}$ , which is way bigger than IPv4. IPv6 use Hexa-Decimal format separated by colon (:). Notably, IPv6 has drastically increased address space compared to IPv4.

## Format of an IPv6 address

An IPv6 address is 128 bits long and is arranged in eight groups, each of which is 16 bits. Each group is expressed as four hexadecimal digits and the groups are separated by colons.

## Representation of IPV6

- **Hexadecimal Representation**
  - 1002:0AB0:0000:0000:1A2C:0232:6225
  
- **Compressed Representation**
  - 1002:AB0::1A2C:232:6225

An example of a full IPv6 address could be:

**FE80:CD00:0000:0CDE:1257:0000:211E:729C**

An IPv6 address is split into two parts: a network and a node component. The network component is the first 64 bits of the address and is used for routing. The node component is the later 64 bits and is used to identify the address of the interface.

# IPv6 address

2001:DB8:1234:0:A1EA:A004:4001:53C8

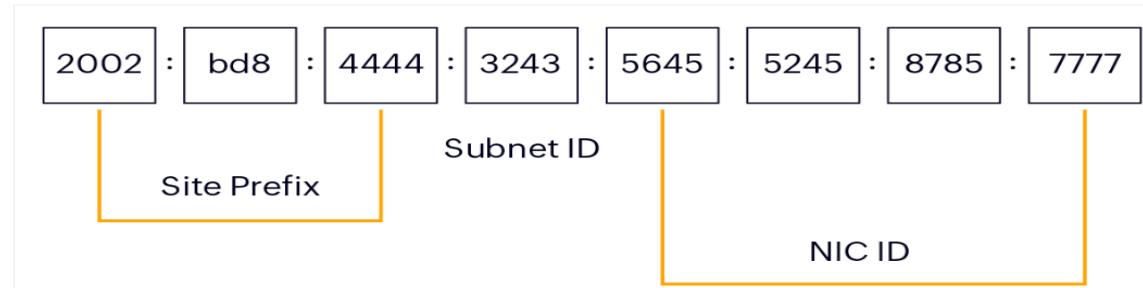
ROUTING  
PREFIX

SUBNET  
ID

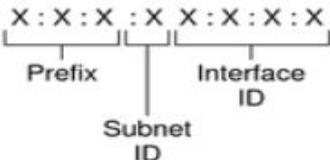
INTERFACE ID

Three basic parts that make up the address are the routing prefix, the subnet ID and the interface ID.

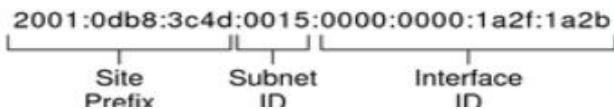
Example of an IPv6 address:



Both the routing prefix and the subnet ID represent two main levels in which the address is constructed -- either global or site-specific. The routing prefix is the number of bits that can be subdivided -- typically, decided by **Internet Registries and Internet Service Providers (ISPs)**. In IPv6 address, the leftmost set of numbers -- the first 48 bits -- is called the site prefix. The subnet ID is the next 16 bits. The subnet ID lays out site topology. The last 64-bits are called the interface ID, which can be automatically or manually configured.



Example:



An IPv6 address

(in hexadecimal)

**2001:0DB8:AC10:FE01:0000:0000:0000:0000**

↓      ↓      ↓      ↓      [ ]

**2001:0DB8:AC10:FE01::**      Zeroes can be omitted

0010000000000001:000011011011000:101011000010000:111111000000000:  
0000000000000000:0000000000000000:0000000000000000:0000000000000000

The leftmost three fields (48 bits) contain the **site prefix**. The prefix describes the **public topology** that is usually allocated to your site by an ISP or Regional Internet Registry (RIR).

The next field is the 16-bit **subnet ID**, which you (or another administrator) allocate for your site. The subnet ID describes the **private topology**, also known as the **site topology**, because it is internal to your site.

The rightmost four fields (64 bits) contain the **interface ID**, also referred to as a **token**. The interface ID is either automatically configured from the interface's MAC address or manually configured in EUI-64 format.

Rule 1: Omit Leading 0s

2041:0000:000F:0000:0000:0000:004B:131B

Leading zeros can be removed.

2041:0000:F:0000:0000:0000:4B:131B

Rule 2: Omit All-0s Hextets

An entire string of continuous zeros can be removed

2041:0000:F::4B:131B

Rule 3: Four zeros can be replaced by a single zero.

2041:0F::4B:131B

## Examples:-

2340:0000:0010:0100:1000:ABCD:0101:1010

2340:0:10:100:1000:ABCD:101:1010

2222:3333:4444:5555:0000:0000:6060:0707

2222:3333:4444:5555:6060:707

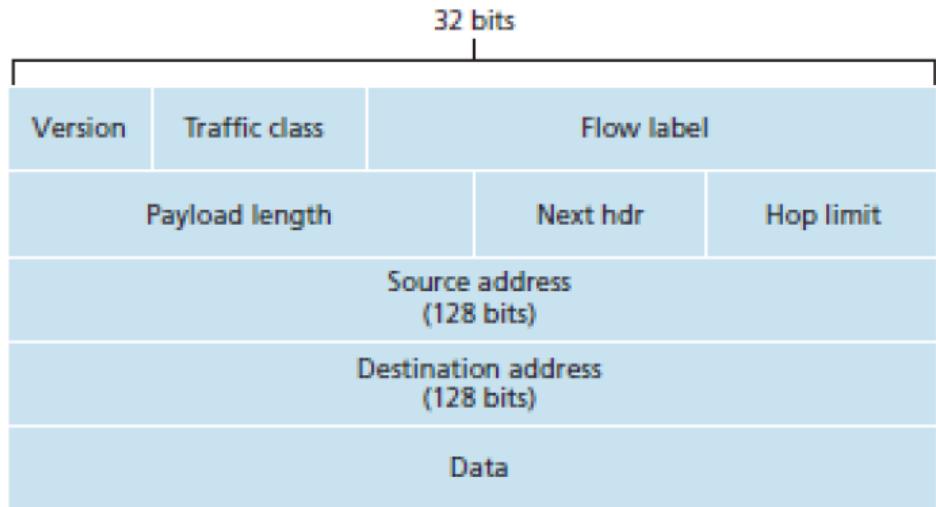
210F:0000:0000:0000:CCCC:0000:0000:000D

FE80:0000:0000:0000:DEAD:BEFF:FEEF:CAFE

Allocation	Prefix (binary)	Fraction of Address Space
Reserved	0000 0000	1/256
Unassigned	0000 0001	1/256
Reserved for NSAP Allocation	0000 001	1/128
Reserved for IPX Allocation	0000 010	1/128
Unassigned	0000 011	1/128
Unassigned	0000 1	1/32
Unassigned	0001	1/16
Aggregate Global Unicast Address	001	1/8
Unassigned	010	1/8
Unassigned	011	1/8
Reserved for Neutral-Interconnect-Based Unicast Addresses	100	1/8
Unassigned	101	1/8
Unassigned	110	1/8
Unassigned	1110	1/16
Unassigned	1111 0	1/32
Unassigned	1111 10	1/64
Unassigned	1111 110	1/128
Unassigned	1111 1110 0	1/512
Link Local Use Addresses	1111 1110 10	1/1024
Site Local Use Addresses	1111 1110 11	1/1024
Multicast Addresses	1111 1111	1/256

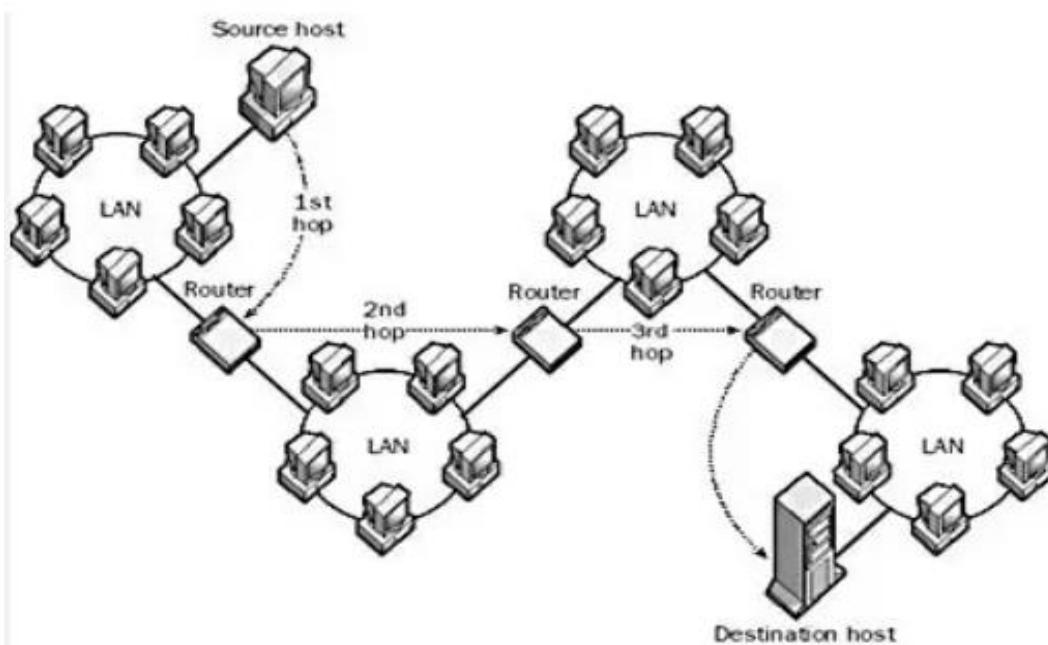
<b>IPv4</b>	<b>IPv6</b>
IPv4 has a 32-bit address length	IPv6 has a 128-bit address length
It can generate $4.29 \times 10^9$ address space	The address space of IPv6 is quite large it can produce $3.4 \times 10^{38}$ address space
The Security feature is dependent on the application	IPSEC is an inbuilt security feature in the IPv6 protocol
Address representation of IPv4 is in decimal	Address Representation of IPv6 is in hexadecimal
Fragmentation performed by Sender and forwarding routers	In IPv6 fragmentation is performed only by the sender
In IPv4 Packet flow identification is not available	In IPv6 packet flow identification are Available and uses the flow label field in the header
In IPv4 checksum field is available	In IPv6 checksum field is not available
It has a broadcast Message Transmission Scheme	In IPv6 multicast and anycast message transmission scheme is available
In IPv4 Encryption and Authentication facility not provided	In IPv6 Encryption and Authentication are provided
IPv4 has a header of 20-60 bytes.	IPv6 has a header of 40 bytes fixed
IPv4 can be converted to IPv6	Not all IPv6 can be converted to IPv4
IPv4 consists of 4 fields which are separated by addresses dot (.)	IPv6 consists of 8 fields, which are separated by a colon (:
IPv4's IP addresses are divided into five different classes. Class A , Class B, Class C, Class D , Class E.	IPv6 does not have any classes of the IP address.

# Internet Protocol version 6 (IPv6) Header



Extension Headers:

- 1) Routing Header (43)
- 2) Hop by Hop option (0)
- 3) Fragment Header (44)
- 4) Authentication Header (51)
- 5) Destination Options (60)
- 6) Encapsulating Security Payload (58)



A hop is counted when a packet passes through other hardware on a network, like switches, access points, and repeaters. This isn't always the case, and it depends on what role those devices are playing on the network and how they're configured.

S.N.	Field & Description
1	Version (4-bits): It represents the version of Internet Protocol, i.e. 0110
2	Traffic Class (8-bits): These 8 bits are divided into two parts. The most significant 6 bits are used for Type of Service to let the Router know what services should be provided to this packet. The least significant 2 bits are used for Explicit Congestion Notification (ECN).
3	Flow Label (20-bits): This label is used to maintain the sequential flow of the packets belonging to a communication. The source labels the sequence to help the router identify that a particular packet belongs to a specific flow of information.
4	Payload Length (16-bits): This field is used to tell the routers how much information a particular packet contains in its payload. Payload is composed of Extension Headers and Upper Layer data.

5	Next Header (8-bits): This field is used to indicate either the type of Extension Header, or if the Extension Header is not present, then it indicates the Upper Layer PDU.
---	---

6	Hop Limit (8-bits): This field is used to stop packet to loop in the network infinitely. This is same as TTL in IPv4. The value of Hop Limit field is decremented by 1 as it passes a link (router/hop). When the field reaches 0, the packet is discarded.
7	Source Address (128-bits): This field indicates the address of originator of the packet.
8	Destination Address (128-bits): This field provides the address of intended recipient of the packet.

## Types of IPv6 addresses

There are different types and formats of IPv6 addresses, of which, it's notable to mention that there are no broadcast addresses in IPv6. Some examples of IPv6 formats include:

- **Global unicast.** These addresses are routable on the internet and start with "2001:" as the prefix group. Global unicast addresses are the equivalent of IPv4 public addresses.
- **Unicast address.** Used to identify the interface of an individual node.
- **Anycast address.** Used to identify a group of interfaces on different nodes.
- **Multicast address.** An address used to define Multicast Multicasts are used to send a single packet to multiple destinations at one time.
- **Link local addresses.** One of the two internal address types that are not routed on the internet. Link local addresses are used inside an internal network, are self-assigned and start with "fe80:" as the prefix group.

## **Advantages of IPv6 :**

**1. Realtime Data Transmission :** Realtime data transmission refers to the process of transmitting data in a very fast manner or **immediately**. Example : Live streaming services such as cricket matches, or other tournaments that are streamed on web exactly as soon as it happens with a maximum delay of 5-6 seconds.

**2. IPv6 supports authentication:** Verifying that the data received by the receiver from the sender is exactly what the sender sent and came through the sender only not from any third party. Example : Matching the hash value of both the messages for verification is also done by IPv6.

**3. IPv6 performs Encryption:** Ipv6 can encrypt the message at network layer even if the protocols of application layer at user level didn't encrypt the message which is a major advantage as it takes care of encryption.

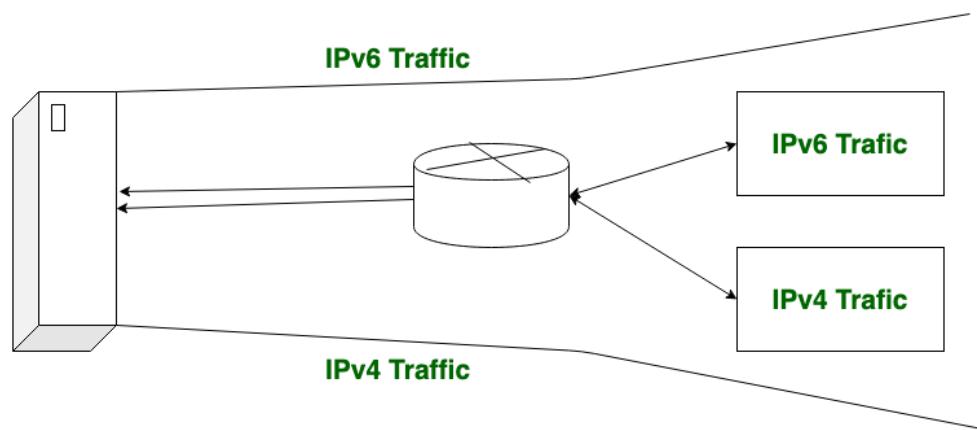
**4. Faster processing at Router:** Routers are able to process data packets of Ipv6 much faster due to smaller **Base header** of fixed size – 40 bytes which helps in decreasing processing time resulting in more efficient packet transmission. Whereas in Ipv4, we have to calculate the length of header which lies between 20-60 bytes.

# Transition from IPv4 to IPv6 address

When we want to send a request from an IPv4 address to an IPv6 address, but it isn't possible because IPv4 and IPv6 transition is not compatible. For a solution to this problem, we use some technologies. These technologies are *Dual Stack Routers*, *Tunneling*, and *NAT Protocol Translation*.

## 1. Dual-Stack Routers:

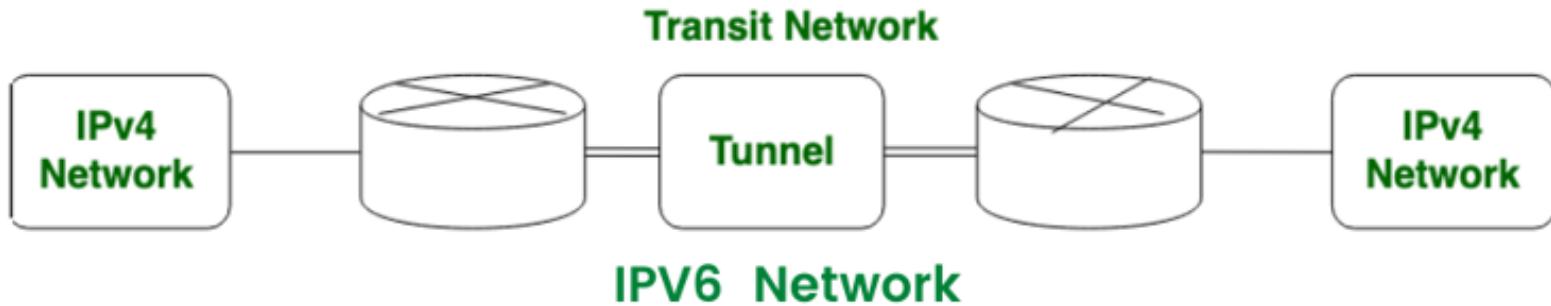
In dual-stack router, A router's interface is attached with IPv4 and IPv6 addresses configured are used in order to transition from IPv4 to IPv6.



A server having IPv4 as well as IPv6 address configured for it can now speak with all the hosts on both the IPv4 as well as the IPv6 networks with the help of a Dual Stack Router. The Dual Stack Router, can communicate with both the networks. It provides a medium for the hosts to access a server without changing their respective IP versions.

## 2. Tunneling:

Tunneling is used as a medium to communicate the transit network with the different IP versions.

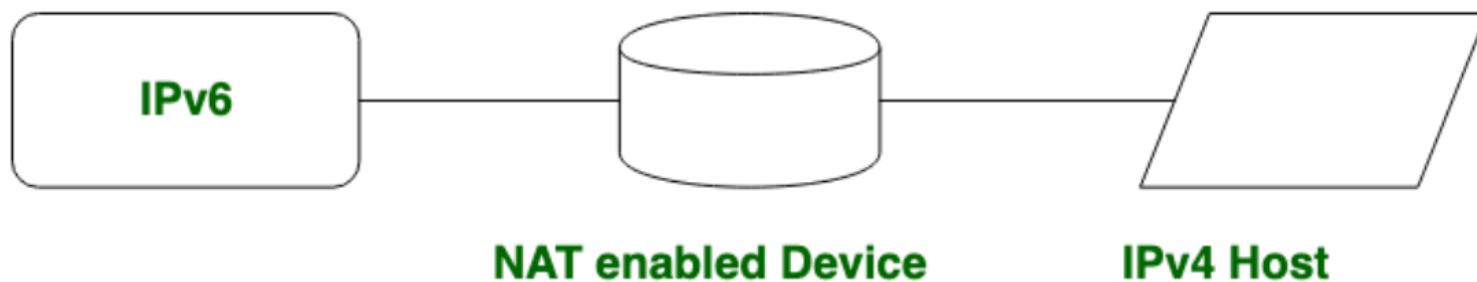


the different IP versions such as IPv4 and IPv6 are present. The IPv4 networks can communicate with the transit or intermediate network on IPv6 with the help of the Tunnel. It's also possible that the IPv6 network can also communicate with IPv4 networks with the help of a Tunnel.

### **3. NAT (Network Address Translation) Protocol Translation:**

With the help of the NAT Protocol Translation technique, the IPv4 and IPv6 networks can also communicate with each other which do not understand the address of different IP version.

Generally, an IP version doesn't understand the address of different IP version, for the solution of this problem we use NAT-PT device which removes the header of first (sender) IP version address and add the second (receiver) IP version address so that the Receiver IP version address understand that the request is sent by the same IP version, and its vice-versa is also possible.

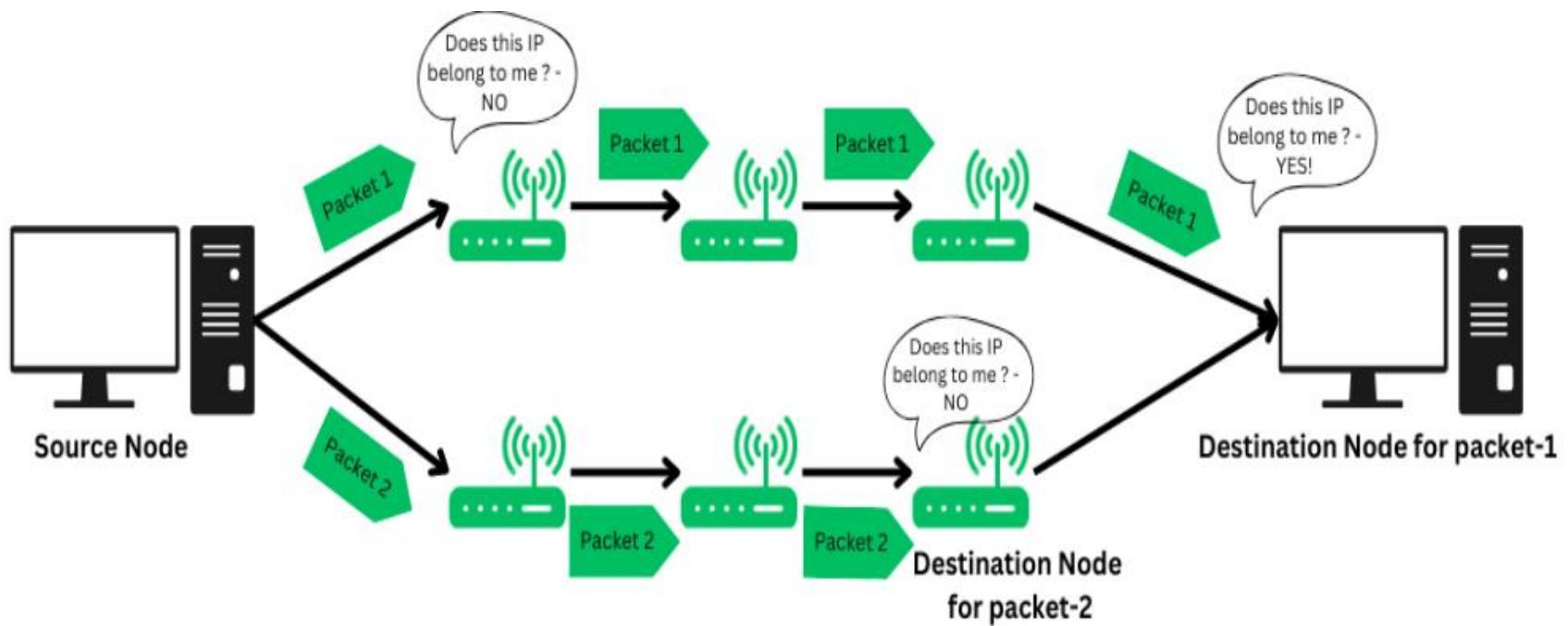


an IPv4 address communicates with the IPv6 address via a NAT-PT device to communicate easily. In this situation, the IPv6 address understands that the request is sent by the same IP version (IPv6) and it responds.

# what is routing in computer network

“Routing is the process of path selection in any network. A computer network is made of many machines, called nodes, and paths or links that connect those nodes. Communication between two nodes in an interconnected network can take place through many different paths.”

Routing refers to the process of directing a data packet from one node to another. It is an autonomous process handled by the network devices to direct a data packet to its intended destination.

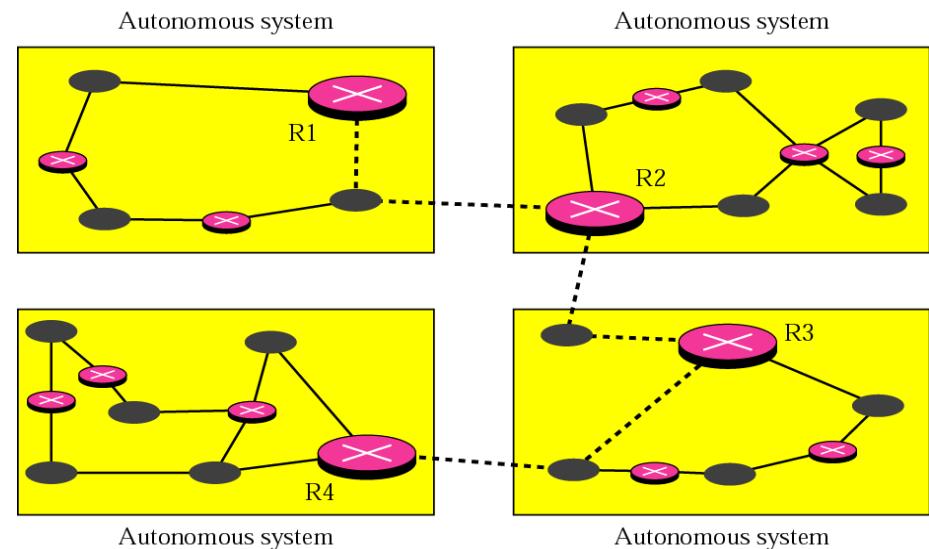


- A Router is a process of selecting path along which the data can be transferred from source to the destination. Routing is performed by a special device known as a router.
- A Router works at the network layer in the OSI model and internet layer in TCP/IP model
- A router is a networking device that forwards the packet based on the information available in the packet header and forwarding table.
- The routing algorithms are used for routing the packets. The routing algorithm is nothing but a software responsible for deciding the optimal path through which packet can be transmitted.
- The routing protocols use the metric to determine the best path for the packet delivery. The metric is the standard of measurement such as hop count, bandwidth, delay, current load on the path, etc. used by the routing algorithm to determine the optimal path to the destination.
- The routing algorithm initializes and maintains the routing table for the process of path determination.

- Source Node (Sender) sends the data packet on the network, embedding the IP in the header of data packet.
- The nearest router receives the data packet, and based on some metrics, further routes the data packet to other routers.
- Step-2 occurs recursively till the data packet reaches its intended destination.

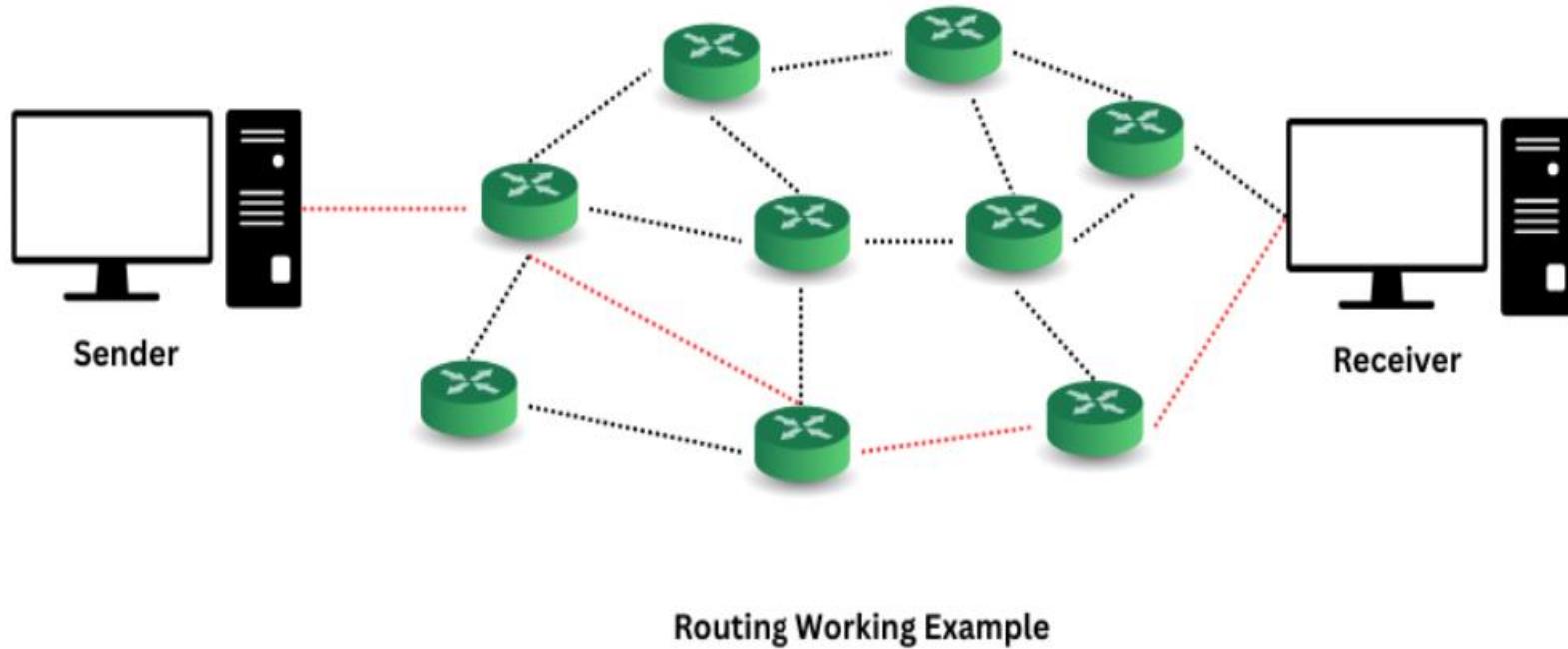
## Autonomous systems

- An autonomous system is a set of networks and routers under the control of a single administrative authority
- Routing within an autonomous system is intra-domain routing
- Routing between autonomous systems is inter-domain routing



# Working Principle of Routing

Routing works by finding a shortest path from the source node to the destination node across a network. Here's step-by-step working of routing:

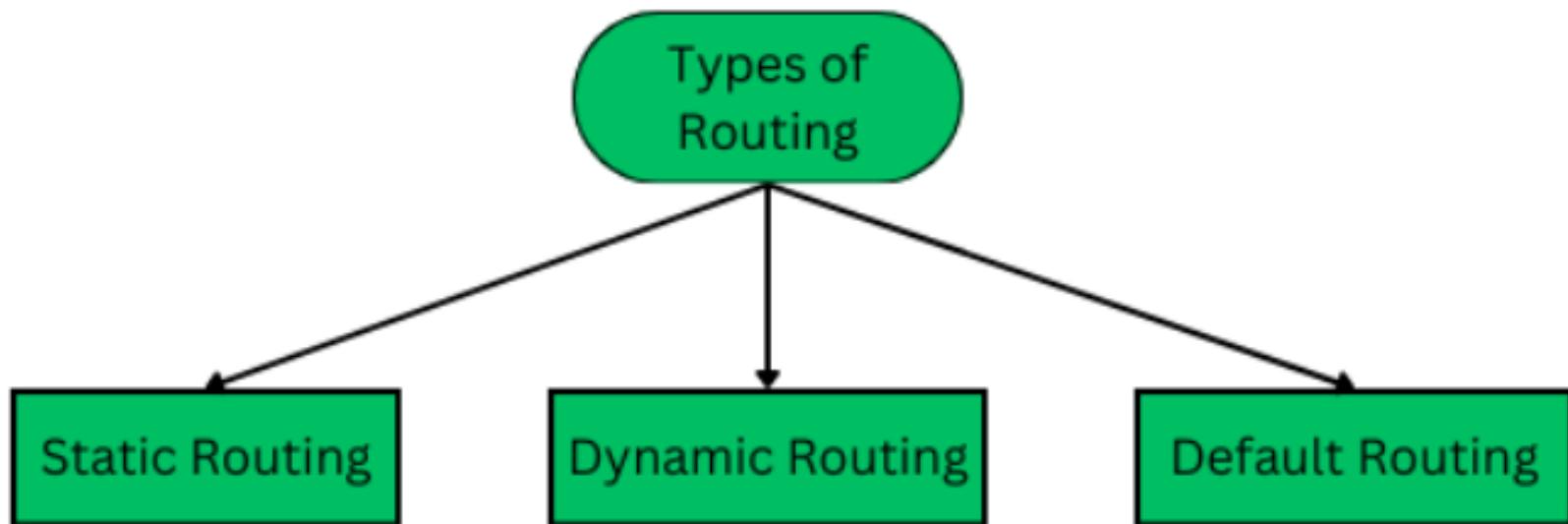


In the above image, we have 3 major components:

- Sender
- Receiver
- Routers

# Types of Routing

Routing is typically of 3 types, each serving their own purpose and offering different functionalities.



## 1. Static Routing

- Static Routing is also known as **Non-adaptive Routing**.
- It is a technique in **which the administrator manually adds the routes in a routing table**.
- A Router can send the packets for the destination along the **route defined by the administrator**.
- In this technique, routing decisions are not made based on the condition or topology of the networks

### Advantages Of Static Routing

Following are the advantages of Static Routing:

**No Overhead:** It has no overhead on the CPU usage of the router. Therefore, the cheaper router can be used to obtain static routing.

**Bandwidth:** It has no bandwidth usage between the routers.

**Security:** It provides security as the system administrator is allowed only to have control over the routing to a particular network.

### Disadvantages of Static Routing:

Following are the disadvantages of Static Routing: For a large network, it becomes a very difficult task to add each route manually to the routing table.

The system administrator should have a good knowledge of a topology as he has to add each route manually.

## 2. Dynamic Routing

It is a technique in which **a router adds a new route in the routing table for each packet in response to the changes in the condition or topology of the network**.

Dynamic protocols are used to discover the new routes to reach the destination.

In Dynamic Routing, RIP and OSPF are the protocols used to discover the new routes.

If any route goes down, then the automatic adjustment will be made to reach the destination.

## **The Dynamic protocol should have the following features:**

- All the routers must have the same dynamic routing protocol in order to exchange the routes.
- If the router discovers any change in the condition or topology, then router broadcast this information to all other routers.

## **Advantages of Dynamic Routing:**

- It is easier to configure.
- It is more effective in selecting the best route in response to the changes in the condition or topology.

## **Disadvantages of Dynamic Routing:**

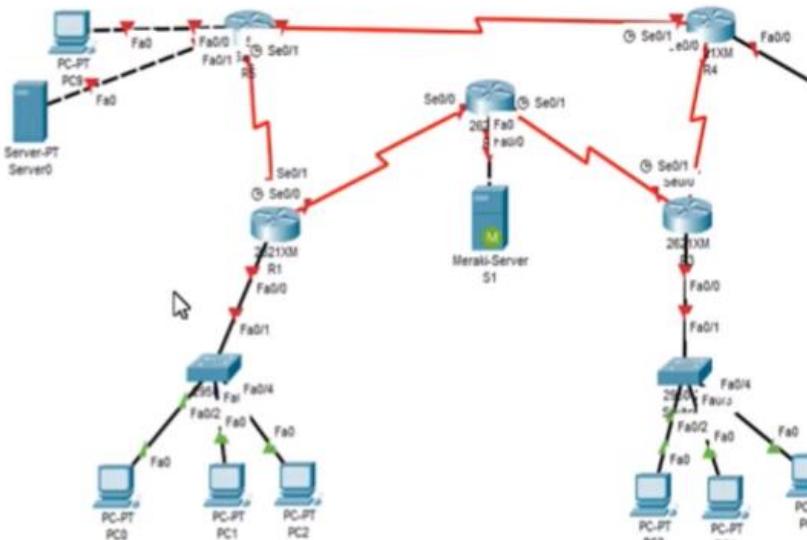
- It is more expensive in terms of CPU and bandwidth usage.
- It is less secure as compared to default and static routing.

### 3. Default Routing

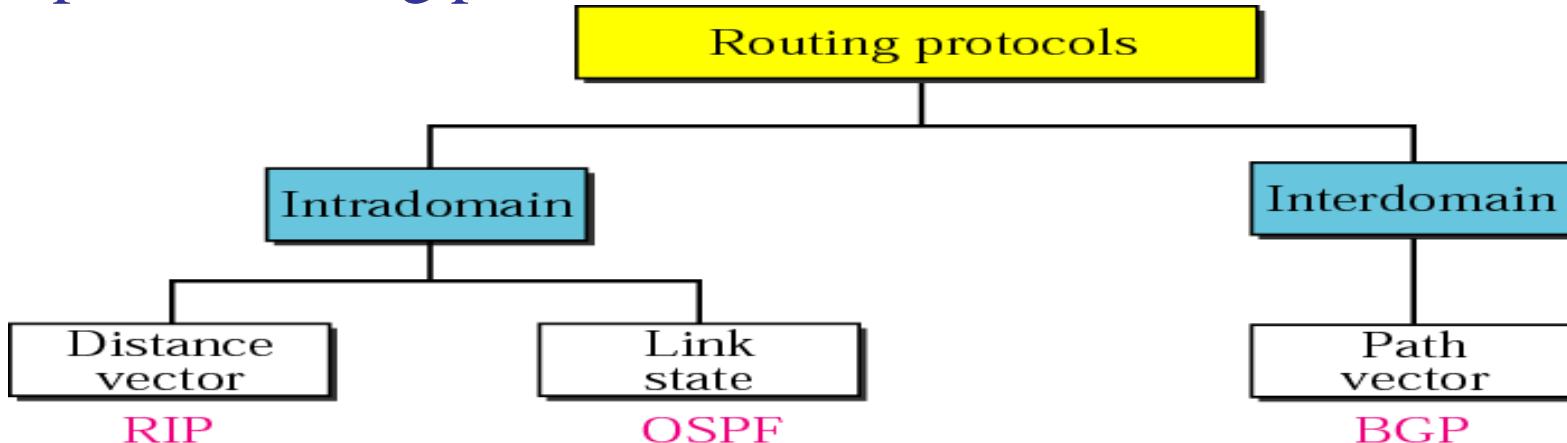
Default Routing is a routing technique in which a router is configured to transmit packets to a default route that is, a gateway or next hop device if no specific path is defined or found. It is commonly used when the network has single exit point. The IP Router has the following address as the default route : 0.0.0.0/0.

## Default Routing

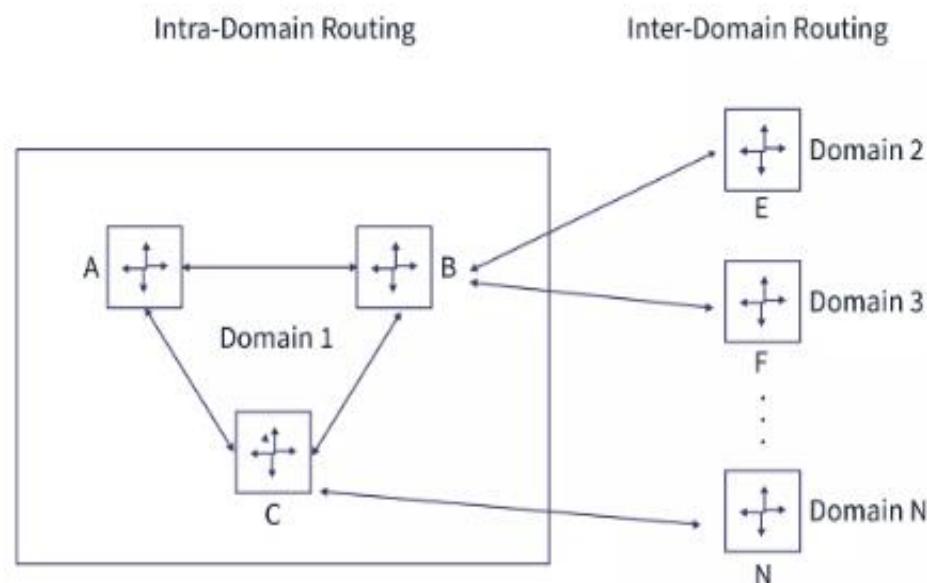
- Default Routing is a technique in which a router is configured to send all the packets to the same hop device, and it doesn't matter whether it belongs to a particular network or not.  
A Packet is transmitted to the device for which it is configured in default routing.
  - Default Routing is used when networks deal with the single exit point.
  - It is also useful when the bulk of transmission networks have to transmit the data to the same **hop** device.
  - When a specific route is mentioned in the routing table, the router will choose the specific route rather than the default route.
  - The default route is chosen only when a specific route is not mentioned in the routing table.



# Popular Routing protocols



Interdomain Routing allows hosts inside one domain to exchange data with hosts in another domain. This is done using Path Vector Routing. Intradomain Routing is the routing that is concerned with data transfer only within a specific domain. This is done using either Distance Vector Routing or Link State Routing.



S.No	Intradomain Routing	Interdomain Routing
1.	Routing algorithm works only within domains.	Routing algorithm works within and between domains.
2.	It need to know only about other routers within their domain.	It need to know only about other routers within and between their domain.
3.	Protocols used in intradomain routing are known as Interior-gateway protocols.	Protocols used in interdomain routing are known as Exterior-gateway protocols.
4.	In this Routing, routing takes place within an autonomous network.	In this Routing, routing takes place between the autonomous networks.
5.	Intradomain routing protocols ignores the internet outside the AS(autonomous system).	Interdomain routing protocol assumes that the internet contains the collection of interconnected AS(autonomous systems).
6.	Some Popular Protocols of this routing are RIP(routing information protocol) and OSPF(open shortest path first).	Popular Protocols of this routing is BGP(Border Gateway Protocol) used to connect two or more AS(autonomous system).

## Distance-vector routing protocol

A distance-vector routing protocol in data networks **determines the best route for data packets based on distance**. Distance-vector routing protocols **measure the distance by the number of routers a packet has to pass**; one router counts as one hop. OR

Distance vector routing algorithm is a type of routing algorithm that is used to determine the best path for data packets to travel through a network.

Distance vector routing algorithm is a type of routing algorithm that is used to determine the best path for data packets to travel through a network.

**This algorithm is also known as Bellman-Ford Algorithm**

### Distance Vector Algorithm –

1. A router transmits its distance vector to each of its neighbors in a routing packet.
2. Each router receives and saves the most recently received distance vector from each of its neighbors.

A router recalculates its distance vector when:

- It receives a distance vector from a neighbor containing different information than before.
- It discovers that a link to a neighbor has gone down.

## **Advantages of Distance Vector Routing Algorithm**

There major advantages to the distance vector routing algorithm are as follows:

- Distance vector routing is a routing protocol that **uses the shortest path to a destination as its primary criterion**. This algorithm is used in local-area networks, metropolitan-area networks, and wide-area networks.
- The main advantage of this algorithm is that **it is easy to implement** and does not require many resources.
- Distance vector routing converges quickly; it means that it can find an optimal route to a destination quickly after a change in network conditions.

## **Disadvantages of Distance Vector Routing Algorithm**

There are a few disadvantages to the distance vector routing algorithm, as detailed below:

- It is not very scalable. This algorithm doesn't work well in large networks
- **this algorithm can suffer from routing loops.** This **occurs when there is a change in the network, and incorrect information is propagated between nodes, causing a loop.**
- **this algorithm can be slow to converge on a new route after a change in the network.**

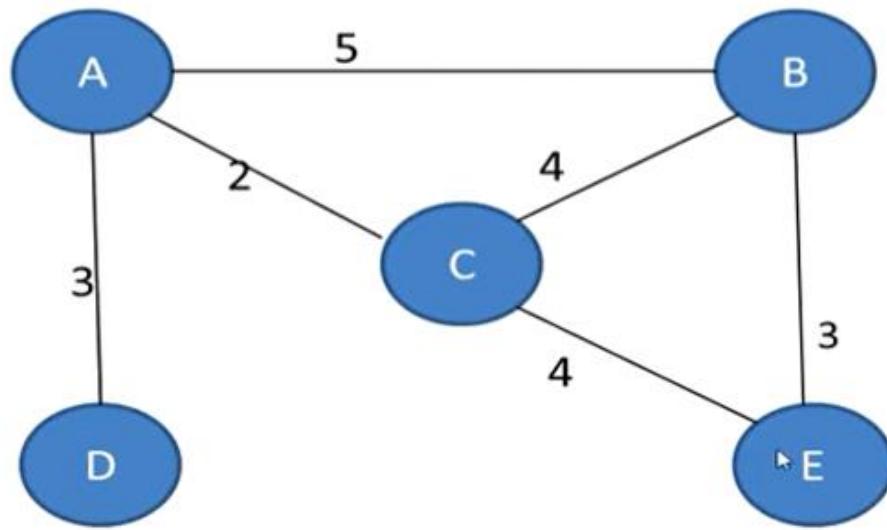
## Applications of Distance Vector Routing Algorithm

There are a number of different applications for the Distance Vector Routing Algorithm. One common application is in **computer networking**, specifically in routing data packets. This algorithm is also used in some types of **telephone switching systems**. Additionally, it has been used in **military applications** to route missiles.

### What is Distance Vector Routing Algorithm?

- To find least-cost route between nodes.
- Each node maintains a vector of minimum distance to every node.
- This table guides the packets to move through the next-hop routing.
- I.e., Sending the packets to the desired node through the least-cost route from the table.
- Three steps in the algorithm:
  1. Initialization
  2. Sharing
  3. Updating

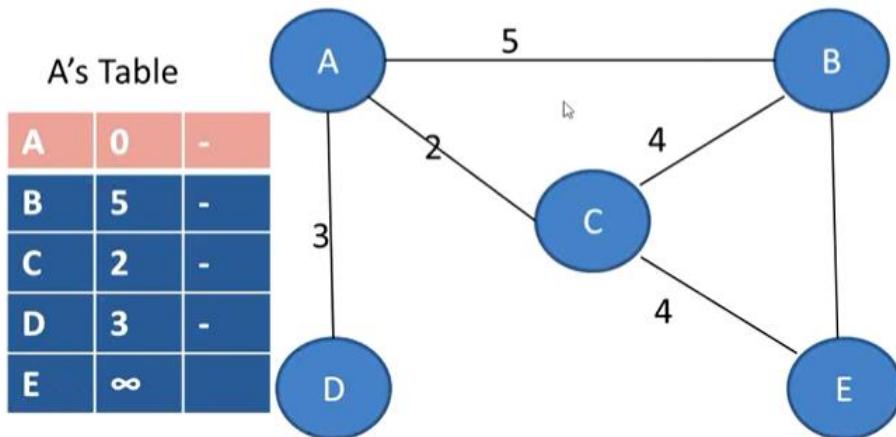
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In the given network which is the least-cost route to send a packet from A to E?

## Step 1: Initialization:

- In beginning, each node knows the between itself and its neighbour that are connected directly.
- Initially, the table will have values for neighbour nodes that are connected directly.
- The nodes that are not connected directly will be marked as “ $\infty$ ”.



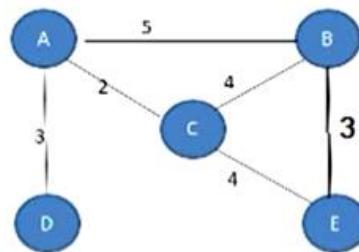
## Step 2: Sharing

- Actual idea of the distance vector algorithm
- Each nodes shares their table with neighboring node
- Share entire node with neighboring nodes
- Receiving node will decide what to use and what to discard from the neighbor table.
- When the neighbor receives a table, the third column (next stop) of that table is replaced by sender's name.
- If any row from sender is taken, the third column of it will be sender.
- Hence each node shares its routing table with its immediate neighbors periodically and also when there is a change.

# Step 3: Updating

When a node receives its neighbor table, it will update its routing table using following steps:

1. The receiver node will add the cost between itself and the sender node to each value in the second column.
2. The receiver node add senders name in the third column at the row which it takes from the sender.



C's Table

A	2	-
B	4	-
C	0	-
D	$\infty$	
E	4	

A's Table

A	0	-
B	5	-
C	2	-
D	3	-
E	$\infty$	



A's Modified Table

A	2	C
B	6	C
C	2	C
D	$\infty$	C
E		

Activate WiFi  
Go to Settings

3. Now compares each row of it's old table and new updated table:

- if the next-node entry is different, chooses the row with smaller cost.
- if the next-node entry is same, chooses the new row.

A's Old Table

A	0	-
B	5	-
C	2	-
D	3	-
E	$\infty$	

A's Modified table

A	2	C
B	6	C
C	2	C
D	$\infty$	C
E	6	C

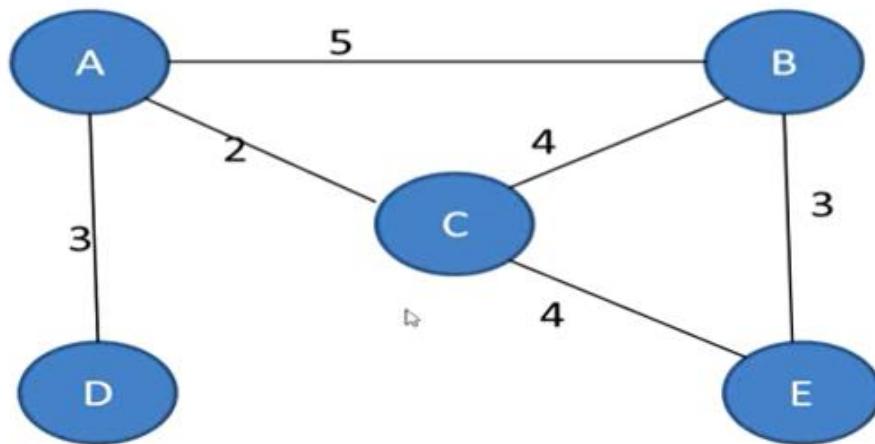
A's new Table

A	0	-
B	5	-
C	2	-
D	3	-
E	6	C

Activate

A's Table

A	0	-
B	5	-
C	2	-
D	3	-
E	6	C



B's Table

A	5	-
B	0	-
C	4	-
D	8	A
E	3	-

C's Table

A	2	-
B	4	-
C	0	-
D	5	A
E	4	-

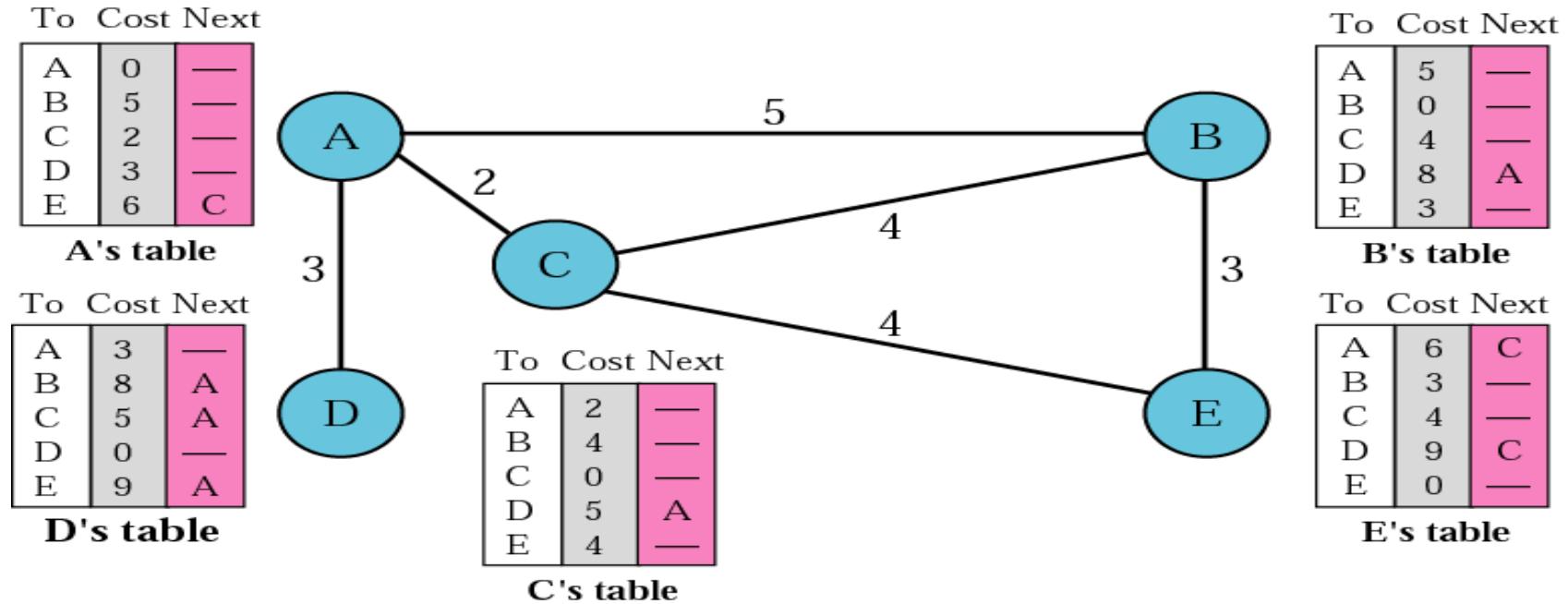
D's Table

A	3	-
B	8	A
C	5	A
D	0	-
E	9	A

E's Table

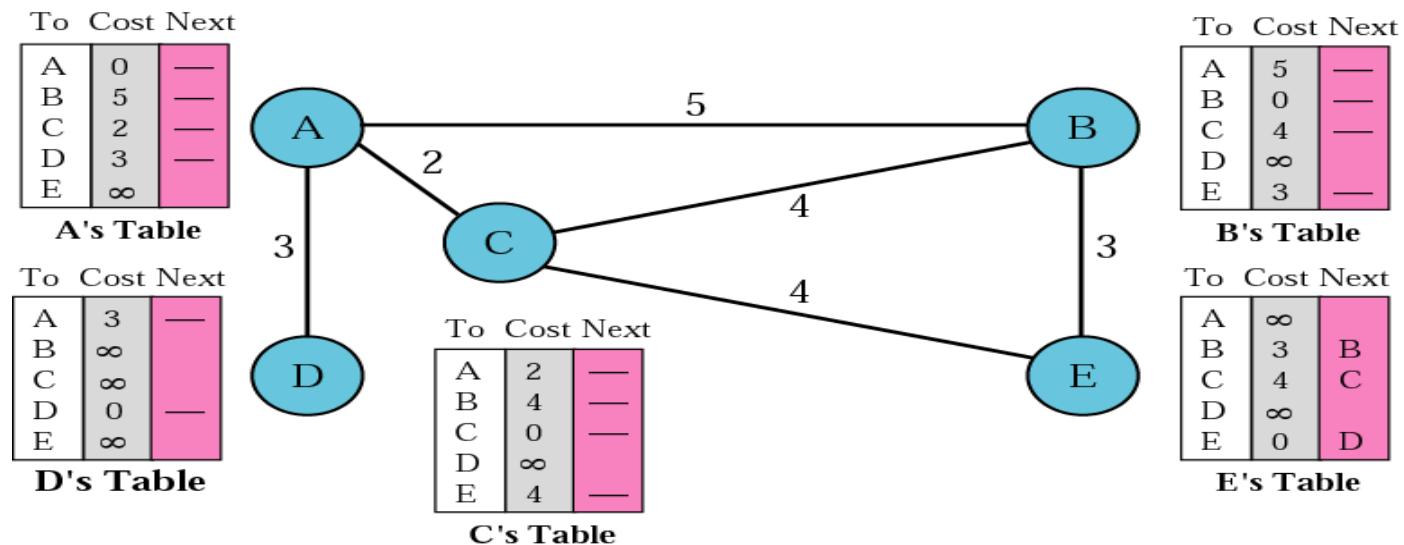
A	6	C
B	3	-
C	4	-
D	9	C
E	0	-

# Distance Vector Routing tables



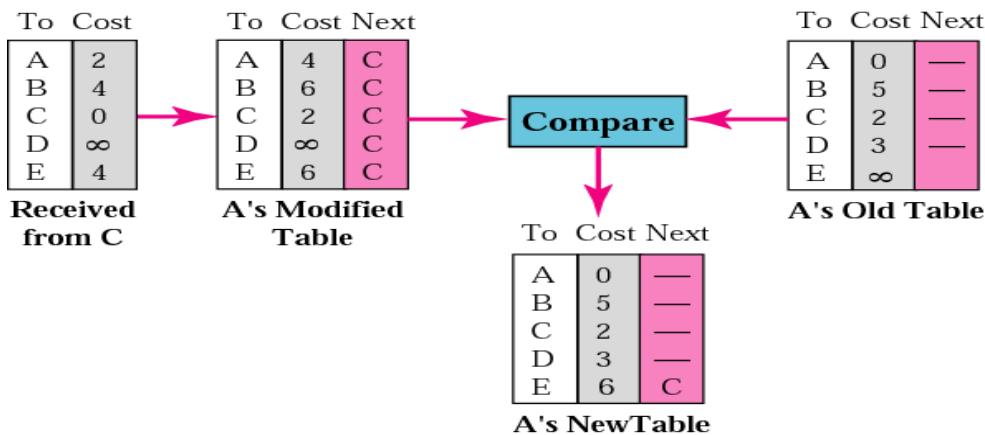
# Initialization of tables in distance vector routing

- In distance vector routing, each node shares its table with its immediate neighbor periodically (eg every 30s) and when there is a change

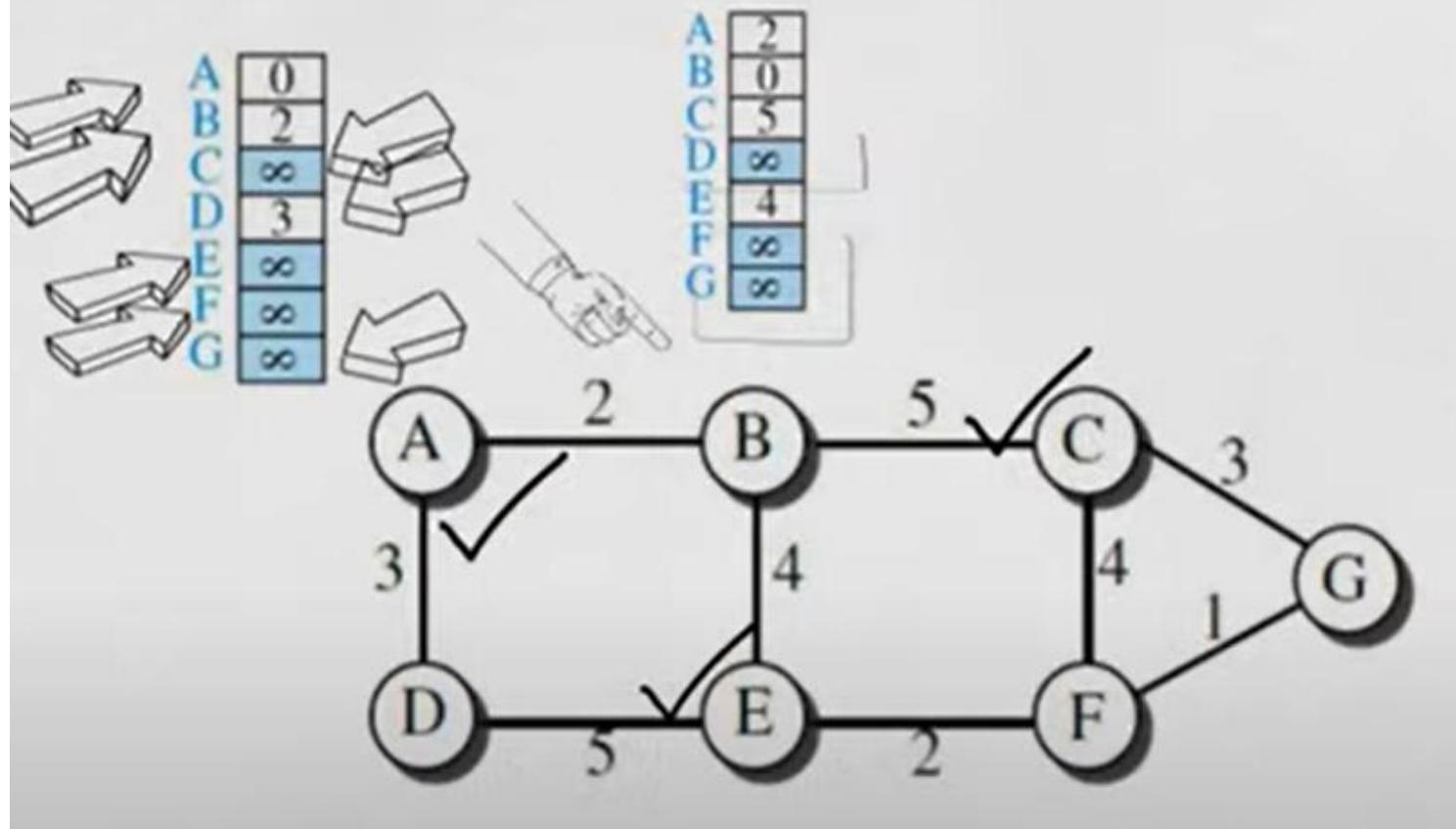


# Updating in distance vector routing

- Step 1: Add cost (2) to table received from neighbor (C)
- Step 2: Compare Modified Table with Old Table (row by row)
- If Next node entry is different, select the row with the smaller cost, if tie, keep the old one
- If next node entry the same, select the new row value



## The first distance vector for an internet



## Updating distance vectors

New B	Old B	A
A 2	A 2	A 0
B 0	B 0	B 2
C 5	C 5	C $\infty$
D 5	D 8	D 3
E 4	E 4	E $\infty$
F 8	F $\infty$	F $\infty$
G 8	G $\infty$	G $\infty$

$$B[i] = \min(B[i], 2 + A[i])$$

- a. First event: B receives a copy of A's vector.

**Note:**

X[ ]: the whole vector

## **Q1: What is the difference between the distance vector algorithm and the link-state algorithm?**

**Answer:** The distance vector algorithm is a decentralized algorithm that exchanges information about the distance between network nodes, while link-state algorithm is a centralized algorithm that exchanges information about the entire network topology.

## **Q2: What is a routing loop?**

**Answer:** Routing loop is a problem that occurs in distance vector routing algorithm when a node receives updates from multiple paths that have the same cost, and as a result, the node sends data in a loop, continuously forwarding it between the same nodes.

## **Q3: What is the counting-to-infinity problem?**

**Answer:** Counting-to-infinity problem is a problem that occurs in the distance vector routing algorithm when a node receives updates about a path that has failed, and continues to use the same path in its routing table, causing the distance to increase infinitely.

#### **Q4: What is the Bellman-Ford algorithm?**

**Answer:** Bellman-Ford algorithm is a distance vector routing algorithm that uses a dynamic programming approach to determine the shortest path to all other nodes in the network.

#### **Q5: How do you prevent routing loops in the distance vector routing algorithm?**

**Answer:** Routing loops can be prevented in distance vector routing algorithm by using techniques such as the split horizon, poison reverse, and hold-down timers.

#### **Q6: How do you prevent a counting-to-infinity problem in a distance vector routing algorithm?**

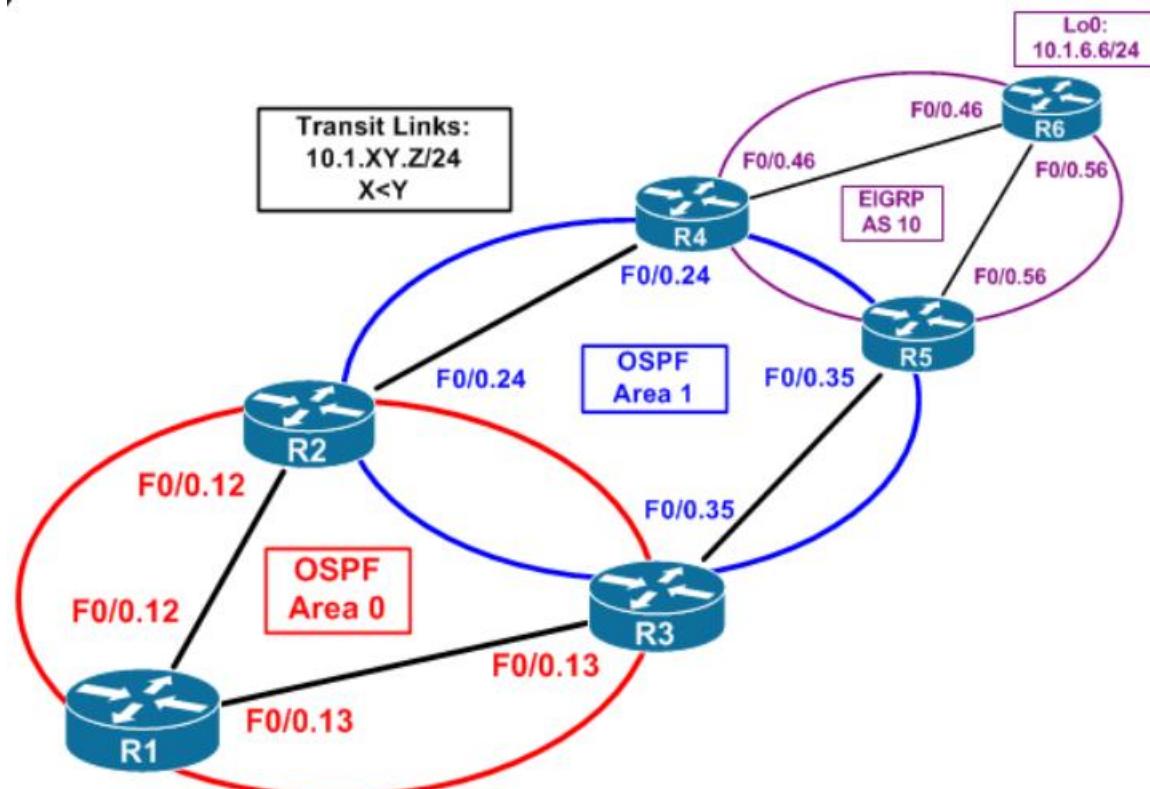
**Answer:** Counting-to-infinity problem can be prevented in the distance vector algorithm by using techniques such as route poisoning and triggered updates.

#### **Q7: What is the difference between the distance vector algorithm and the path-vector algorithm?**

**Answer:** The distance vector algorithm calculates the shortest path based on the cost metric, while the path-vector algorithm calculates the shortest path based on the path vector, which is a sequence of AS numbers.

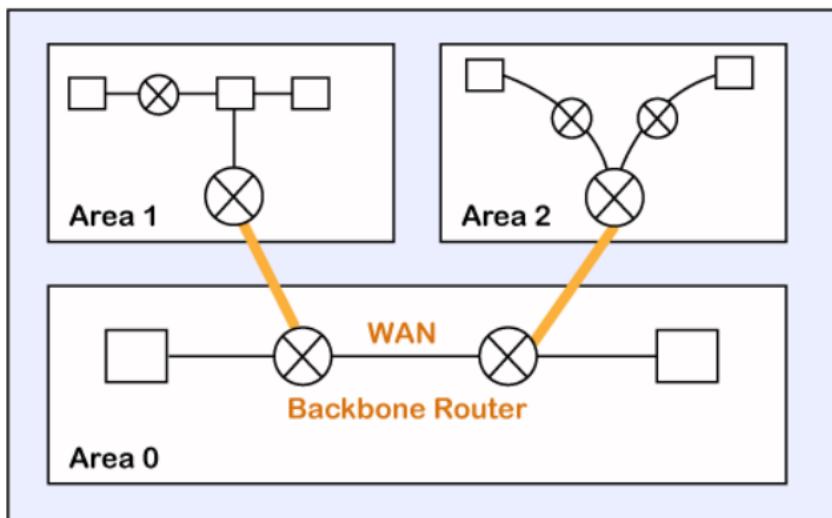
## Open Shortest Path First

Open Shortest Path First (OSPF) is an IP routing protocol that uses a mathematical algorithm to calculate the most efficient path to direct traffic on IP networks.



It is an intradomain protocol, which means that it is used within an area or a network. It is an interior gateway protocol that has been designed within a single autonomous system. It is based on a link-state routing algorithm in which each router contains the information of every domain, and based on this information, it determines the shortest path. The goal of routing is to learn routes. The OSPF achieves by learning about every router and subnet within the entire network. Every router contains the same information about the network. The way the router learns this information by sending LSA (Link State Advertisements). These LSAs contain information about every router, subnet, and other networking information.

#### OSPF Areas



OSPF divides the autonomous systems into areas where the area is a collection of networks, hosts, and routers. Like internet service providers divide the internet into a different autonomous system for easy management and OSPF further divides the autonomous systems into Areas.

How does OSPF work?

**There are three steps that can explain the working of OSPF:**

**Step 1:** The first step is to become OSPF neighbors. The two connecting routers running OSPF on the same link creates a neighbor relationship.

**Step 2:** The second step is to exchange database information. After becoming the neighbors, the two routers exchange the LSDB information with each other.

**Step 3:** The third step is to choose the best route. Once the LSDB information has been exchanged with each other, the router chooses the best route to be added to a routing table based on the calculation of SPF.

## How a router forms a neighbor relationship?

The first thing is happened before the relationship is formed is that each router chooses the router ID.

**Router ID (RID):** The router ID is a number that uniquely identifies each router on a network. The router ID is in the format of the IPv4 address. There are few ways to set the router ID, the first way is to set the router ID manually and the other way is to let the router decides itself.

### Types of links in OSPF

A link is basically a connection, so the connection between two routers is known as a link.

**There are four types of links in OSPF:**

**1. Point-to-point link:** The point-to-point link directly connects the two routers without any host or router in between.

**2. Transient link:** When several routers are attached in a network, they are known as a transient link.

The transient link has two different implementations:

Unrealistic topology: When all the routers are connected to each other, it is known as an unrealistic topology.

Realistic topology: When some designated router exists in a network then it is known as a realistic topology. Here designated router is a router to which all the routers are connected. All the packets sent by the routers will be passed through the designated router.

**3. Stub link:** It is a network that is connected to the single router. Data enters to the network through the single router and leaves the network through the same router.

**4. Virtual link:** If the link between the two routers is broken, the administration creates the virtual path between the routers, and that path could be a long one also.

# **There are five different types of packets in OSPF:**

- Hello
- Database Description
- Link state request
- Link state update
- Link state Acknowledgment

## **1. Hello packet**

The Hello packet is used to create a neighborhood relationship and check the neighbor's reachability. Therefore, the Hello packet is used when the connection between the routers need to be established.

## **2. Database Description**

After establishing a connection, if the neighbor router is communicating with the system first time, it sends the database information about the network topology to the system so that the system can update or modify accordingly.

## **3. Link state request**

The link-state request is sent by the router to obtain the information of a specified route. Suppose there are two routers, i.e., router 1 and router 2, and router 1 wants to know the information about the router 2, so router 1 sends the link state request to the router 2. When router 2 receives the link state request, then it sends the link-state information to router 1.

## **4. Link state update**

The link-state update is used by the router to advertise the state of its links. If any router wants to broadcast the state of its links, it uses the link-state update.

## **5. Link state acknowledgment**

The link-state acknowledgment makes the routing more reliable by forcing each router to send the acknowledgment on each link state update. For example, router A sends the link state update to the router B and router C, then in return, the router B and C sends the link-state acknowledgment to the router A, so that the router A gets to know that both the routers have received the link-state update.

**The device running the OSPF protocol undergoes the following states:**

- **Down:** If the device is in a down state, it has not received the HELLO packet. Here, down does not mean that the device is physically down; it means that the OSPF process has not been started yet.
- **Init:** If the device comes in an init state, it means that the device has received the HELLO packet from the other router.
- **2WAY:** If the device is in a 2WAY state, which means that both the routers have received the HELLO packet from the other router, and the connection gets established between the routers.
- **Exstart:** Once the exchange between the routers get started, both the routers move to the Exstart state. In this state, master and slave are selected based on the router's id. The master controls the sequence of numbers, and starts the exchange process.
- **Exchange:** In the exchange state, both the routers send a list of LSAs to each other that contain a database description.
- **Loading:** On the loading state, the LSR, LSU, and LSA are exchanged.
- **Full:** Once the exchange of the LSAs is completed, the routers move to the full state.