

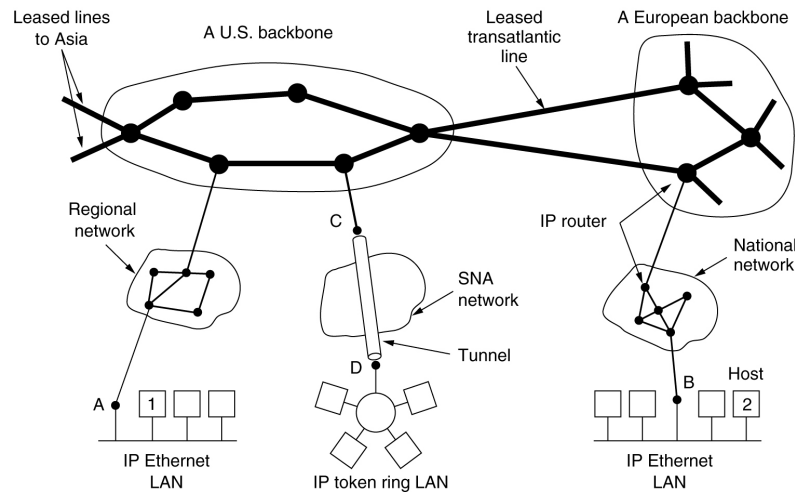
# The Network Layer

## The Network Layer in the Internet

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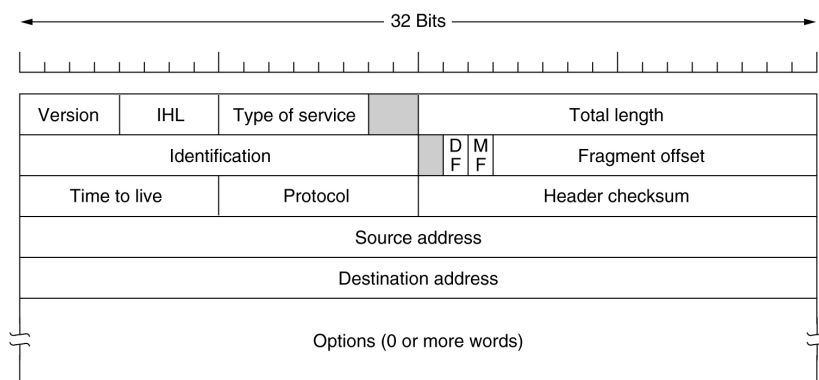
- The IP Protocol
- IP Addresses
- Internet Control Protocols

## Collection of Subnetworks



The Internet is an interconnected collection of many networks.

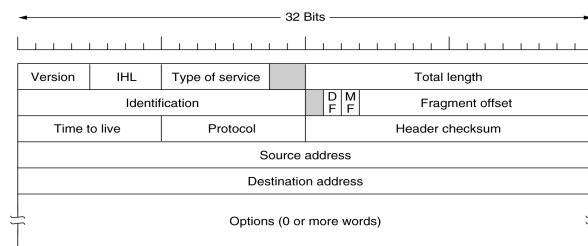
## The IP Protocol



The IPv4 (Internet Protocol) header.

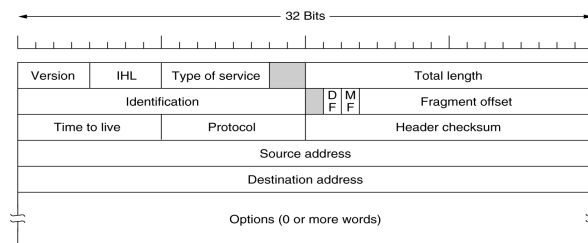
# The IP Protocol

- *Version* : keeps track of the version of the protocol used by the datagram (now IPv4 or IPv6).
- *IHL*: the header size is not constant; IHL tells the header size in 32 bits words. Minimum 5 (no options) ,Maximum 15 (60 bytes header, 40 bytes of options).
- *Type of Service*: Now used by differentiated services to tell the service class.
- *Total length*: maximum size of the datagram up to 65535 bytes.
- *Identification*: Used to identify fragments of the same datagram.
- *DF*: Don't Fragment bit



# The IP Protocol

- *MF*: More Fragments; all fragments except the last have this bit set.
- *Fragment Offset*: tells where in the current datagram this fragment belongs (8192 fragments are possible with the 13 bits field).
- *Time to Live*: It is supposed to count seconds but in practice it counts hops (255)
- *Protocol*: TCP , UDP and many others (<http://www.iana.org>)
- *Header Checksum*: Verifies the header only.
- *Source and Destination addresses*: Indicate IP (Network+ host) numbers
- *Options*: Multiples of four bytes

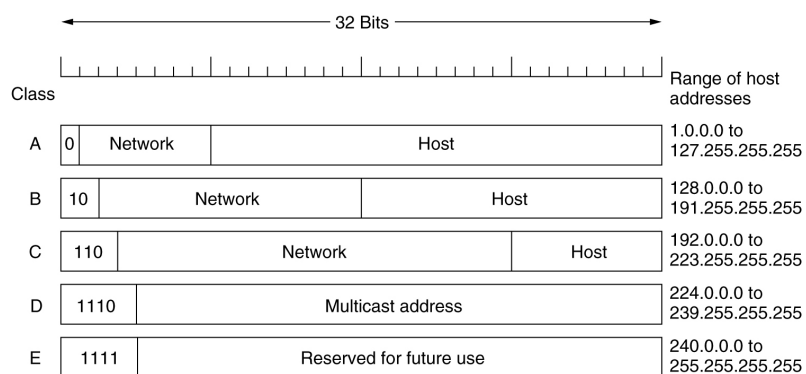


# The IP Protocol

Option	Description
Security	Specifies how secret the datagram is
Strict source routing	Gives the complete path to be followed
Loose source routing	Gives a list of routers not to be missed
Record route	Makes each router append its IP address
Timestamp	Makes each router append its address and timestamp

Some of the IP options.

# IP Addresses



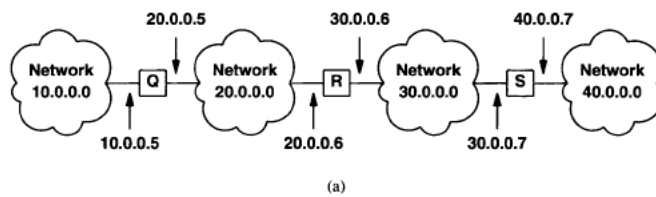
IP address formats.

## IP Addresses (2)

0 0	This host
0 0 . . . 0 0 Host	A host on this network
1 1	Broadcast on the local network
Network 1 1 1 1 . . . 1 1 1 1	Broadcast on a distant network
127 (Anything)	Loopback

Special IP addresses.

## Routing



TO REACH HOSTS ON NETWORK	ROUTE TO THIS ADDRESS
20.0.0.0	DELIVER DIRECTLY
30.0.0.0	DELIVER DIRECTLY
10.0.0.0	20.0.0.5
40.0.0.0	30.0.0.7

(b)

**Figure 8.2** (a) An example internet with 4 networks and 3 routers, and (b) the routing table in *R*.

## Routing Algorithm

### Algorithm:

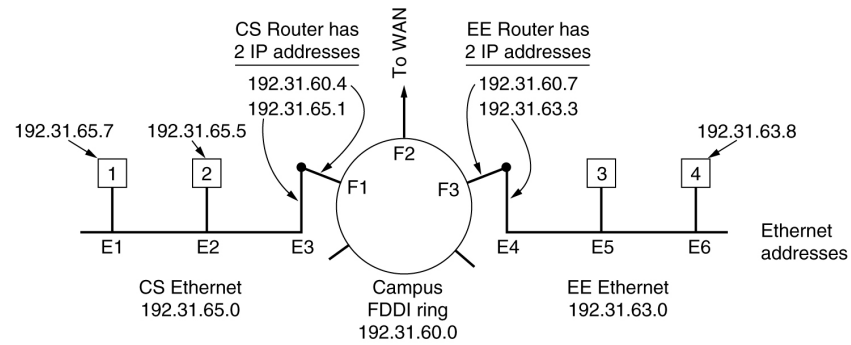
RouteDatagram (Datagram, RoutingTable)

```
Extract destination IP address, D, from the datagram
and compute the network prefix, N;
if N matches any directly connected network address
    deliver datagram to destination D over that network
    (This involves resolving D to a physical address,
    encapsulating the datagram, and sending the frame.)
else if the table contains a host-specific route for D
    send datagram to next-hop specified in table
else if the table contains a route for network N
    send datagram to next-hop specified in table
else if the table contains a default route
    send datagram to the default router specified in table
else declare a routing error;
```

## ARP– The Address Resolution Protocol

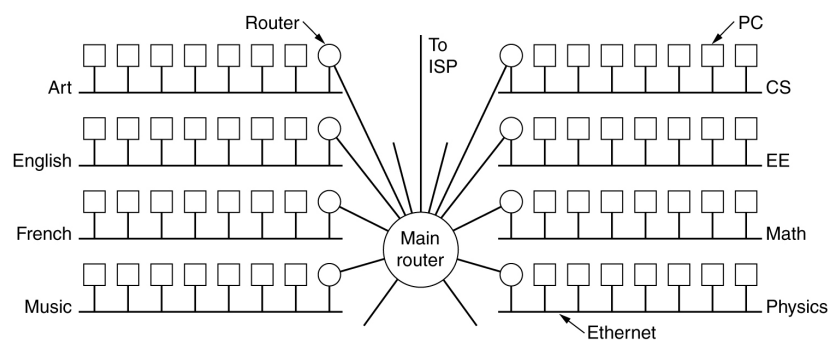
- Most part of the computers in the Internet are attached to LAN's by an interface board that only understands data link layer addresses (MAC addresses)
- How to map IP addresses into MAC addresses? ARP is the answer.
  - When a router wants to send a packet to an IP address on it's own network it must find out the corresponding MAC address.
  - Instead of managing a table (error prone and time consuming) the router broadcast a message in the network asking: "Who owns IP ###.###.### ?"
  - The corresponding host on the LAN will answer back with its MAC address.
  - Caches are used to improve the efficiency of the algorithm.
  - Almost all machines in the Internet run ARP (RFC 826)

## ARP– The Address Resolution Protocol



Three interconnected /24 networks: two Ethernet and an FDDI ring.

## Subnets

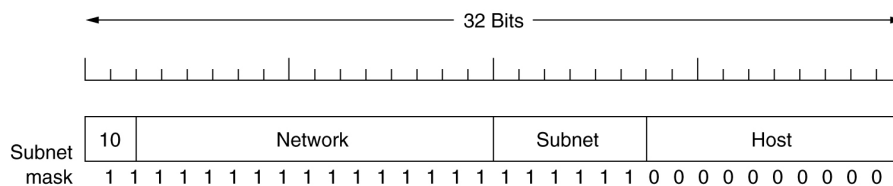


A campus network consisting of LANs for various departments.

## Subnets

- Imagine a growing University with an assigned class B address.
- When the network grows (Ethernet for example) new routers have to be introduced to separate the traffic.
- New addresses are not an option because IP addresses are scarce and we already have more than 60000 addresses...
- But the addresses belong to a single network, not to a collection of LAN's.

## Subnets



A class B network subnetted into 64 subnets.  
Subnet mask: 255.255.252.0/22



## Routing with subnets

### Algorithm:

Route-IP-Datagram (datagram, routing-table)

```
Extract destination IP address, ID from datagram;
If prefix of ID matches address of any directly connected
  network send datagram to destination over that network
  (This involves resolving ID to a physical address,
   encapsulating the datagram, and sending the frame.)
else
  for each entry in routing table do
    Let N be the bitwise-and of ID and the subnet mask
    If N equals the network address field of the entry then
      route the datagram to the specified next hop address
  endforloop
If no matches were found, declare a routing error;
```

## Subnets

- Example: A packet addressed to 130.50.15.6 arriving at the main router is ANDed with the subnet mask 255.255.252.0/22  
10000010.00110010.00001111.00000110  
11111111.11111111.11111100.00000000  
10000010.00110010.00001100.00000000 > 130.50.12.0
- The routing table is searched for the interface to use to get to this subnet.
- *Subnetting reduces router table space by creating a three layer hierarchy: network, subnet, host.*

## CIDR – Classless Inter-Domain Routing

- How to give Internet a little space to breath ?
  - Allocate the remaining IP addresses in variable-size blocks, without regard to classes.
  - Dropping classes makes forwarding more complicated because we can't use only the IP to look for an outgoing line as was done before.
  - The routing tables were extended with a 32 bit mask column. So we have:  
(IP address, subnet mask, Outgoing line) for each entry.
  - In order to keep the routing table as small as possible routers often combine several entries into a single *aggregate entry* whenever possible.

## CIDR – Classless Inter-Domain Routing

- Consider an Example where millions of addresses are available starting at:
  - 194.24.0.0 (11000010.00011000.00000000.00000000)
  - Cambridge needs 2048 addresses ( $2^{11}=2048$ ) so we need 11 bits for the host, thus we have a netmask with 21 bits.

11000010.00011000.00000000.00000001 (starting address)

11000010.00011000.00000111.11111111 (last address = broadcast)

Decimal Notation:

194.24.0.1 (start address) 194.24.7.255 (last address = broadcast)

255.255.248.0 (netmask)

**Written as: 194.24.0.0/21**

## CIDR – Classless Inter-Domain Routing

- Next, Oxford requests 4096 addresses ( $2^{12}=4096$ ) so we must allocate addresses in a 12 bit boundary.
- Its not possible to start in 194.24.8.0 because there are not enough consecutive addresses available

11000010.00011000.00001000.00000000 (First available address)

11000010.00011000.00010000.00000000 (first address from Oxford)

11000010.00011000.00011111.11111111 (last address from Oxford)

Decimal Notation:

194.24.16.0 (start address) 194.24.31.255 (last address = broadcast)

255.255.240.0 (netmask)

**Written as: 194.24.16.0/20**

## CIDR – Classless Inter-Domain Routing

- Next, Edinburgh requests 1024 addresses ( $2^{10}=1024$ ) so we must allocate addresses in a 10 bit boundary.
- There is one available starting in 194.24.8.0 just after Cambridge

11000010.00011000.00001000.00000000 (first Edinburgh address)

11000010.00011000.00001011.11111111 (last Edinburgh address)

Decimal Notation:

194.24.8.0 (start address) 194.24.11.255 (last address = broadcast)

255.255.252.0 (netmask)

**Written as: 194.24.8.0/22**

## CIDR – Classless Inter-Domain Routing

University	First address	Last address	How many	Written as
Cambridge	194.24.0.0	194.24.7.255	2048	194.24.0.0/21
Edinburgh	194.24.8.0	194.24.11.255	1024	194.24.8.0/22
(Available)	194.24.12.0	194.24.15.255	1024	194.24.12/22
Oxford	194.24.16.0	194.24.31.255	4096	194.24.16.0/20

A set of IP address assignments.

## CIDR – Classless Inter-Domain Routing

- Routing Tables all over the world are now updated with

Address	Mask	Interface
11000010.00011000.00000000.00000000	11111111.11111111.11111000.00000000	Cambridge
11000010.00011000.00001000.00000000	11111111.11111111.11111100.00000000	Edinburgh
11000010.00011000.00010000.00000000	11111111.11111111.11110000.00000000	Oxford

- **Example:**

Look at IP addresses assigned in the next table. What happens when a packet comes in addressed to 194.24.17.4 ?

Consider a router in Oporto that has 2 outgoing lines, one for New York and another to Paris. What are the changes in its routing table when the entries in the next table come in ?

## CIDR – Classless Inter-Domain Routing

- 194.24.17.4 (?)  
11000010.00011000.00010001.00000100  
11111111.11111111.11111000.00000000 (Cambridge Mask)  
11000010.00011000.00010000.00000000  
Result does no match Cambridge base address so continue...  
  
11000010.00011000.00010001.00000100  
11111111.11111111.11111100.00000000 (Edinburgh Mask)  
11000010.00011000.00010000.00000000  
Result does no match Edinburgh base address so continue...  
  
11000010.00011000.00010001.00000100  
11111111.11111111.11110000.00000000 (Oxford Mask)  
11000010.00011000.00010000.00000000  
Result does match Oxford base address!

## CIDR – Classless Inter-Domain Routing

- *If no longer matches* are found farther down the table the entry is sent to the correspondent interface.
- The router in Oporto will use its outgoing line to Paris to forward traffic for all the newly assign addresses. So it will aggregate all the three entries in one:
- **194.24.0.0/19          Paris**
- If the unassigned addresses are distributed to a University in California (that will be reached using the New York interface) a new entry must be added to deal with it:
- **194.24.12.0/22          New York**