

### **Evolution of Internet Structure**

Internet c. 1990

**PARC** 

- Tree structure, centered around one backbone
- National Science Foundation (NSF) funded

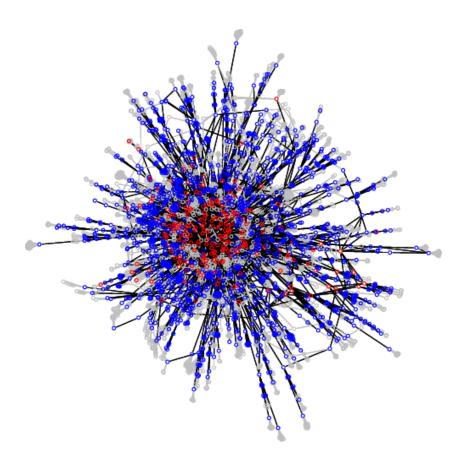
National backbone End users Service provider networks **NSFNET Backbone** Berkeley ISU **BARRNET** WestNet MidNet Regional Regional Regional **NCAR** Berkeley **UNM** KU



UA

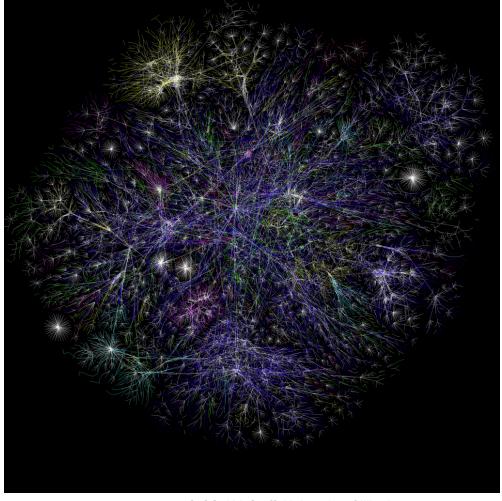
UNL

# An Old Internet ISP Map



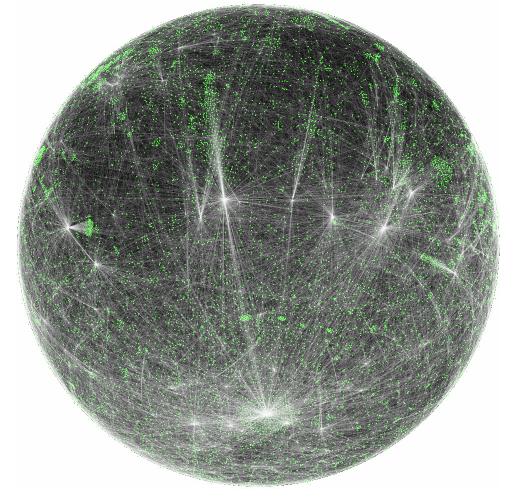


# A New Internet Map





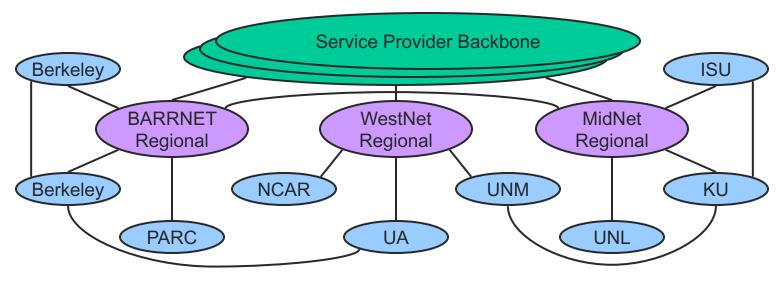
# Another Internet Map





### **Evolution of Internet Structure**

- Today
  - Multiple backbone service providers
  - Arbitrary graph structure





# Problems of Scale

- Main problems
  - Inefficient address allocation
  - Too many networks for routing



# IPv4 Address Model

- Properties
  - 32-bit address
  - Hierarchical
    - Network, subnet, host hierarchy
  - Maps to logically unique network adaptor
    - Exceptions: service request splitting for large web servers
- Three Class Model

Class A:	0 Network (7 bits)	Host (24 bits)		
Class B:	1 0 Netwo	rk (14 bits) Host (16 bits)		6 bits)
Class C:	1 1 0	Network (21 bi	ts)	Host (8 bits)



# IPv4 Address Model

Class	Network ID	Host ID	# of # of Addresses Network	
А	0 + 7 bit	24 bit	2 <sup>24</sup> -2 126	
В	10 + 14 bit	16 bit	65,536 - 2	
С	110 + 21 bit	8 bit	256 - 2 2 <sup>21</sup>	
D	1110 + Multicast Address		IP Mul	ticast
E	Future Use			



### Basic Datagram Forwarding with IP

- Hosts and routers maintain forwarding tables
  - List of prefix, next hop
    - IP = 69.2.1.2 = 01000101 00000010 00000001 00000010
    - 24-bit prefix = 69.2.1.0/24
      = 01000101 00000010 00000001 \*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*
  - Often contains a default route
    - Pass unknown destination to provider ISP
  - Simple and static on hosts, edge routers
    - Complex and dynamic on core routers



# Basic Datagram Forwarding with IP

- Packet forwarding
  - Compare network portion of address with <network/host, next hop> pairs in table
    - Send directly to host on same network
    - Send to indirectly (via router on same network) to host on different network
  - Use ARP to get hardware address of host/router



### IPv4 Address Model

#### IP addresses

Host in class A network

**56.0.78.100** 

Host in class B network

128.174.252.1

Host in class C network

**1**98.182.196.56

www.usps.gov

www.cs.uiuc.edu

www.linux.org

#### Questions

- What networks should be allocated to a company with 1000 machines?
- What about a company with 100 machines?
- What about a company with 2 machines that plans to grow rapidly?



### Problems of Scale

- Pressure mostly on class B networks
  - Most companies plan to grow beyond 255 machines
  - Renumbering is time consuming and can interrupt service
  - Approximately 16,000 class B networks available
- Class B networks aren't very efficient
  - Few organizations have O(10,000) machines
  - More likely use O(1,000) of the 65,000 addresses
- Scaling problems with alternatives
  - Multiple class C networks
    - Routing tables don't scale
  - Protocols do not scale beyond O(10,000) networks



# IP Address Hierarchy Evolution

- Began with class based system
  - Subnetting within an organization
    - Network can be broken into smaller networks
    - Recognized only within the organization
    - Implemented by packet switching
    - Smaller networks called subnets

#### Class A:

0 Network (7 bits) Host (24 bits)
-----------------------------------

#### Class B:

1 0	Network (14 bits)	Host (16 bits)
-----	-------------------	----------------

#### Class C:

1	1 0	Network (21 bits)	Host (8 bits)
---	-----	-------------------	---------------

### Subnetting

#### Simple IP

 All hosts on the same network must have the same network number

#### Assumptions

- Subnets are close together
  - Look like one network to distant routers

#### Idea

- Take a single IP network number
- Allocate the IP addresses to several physical networks (subnets)

#### Subnetting

All hosts on the same network must have the same subnet number



### Subnetting

- Enables a domain to further partition address space into smaller networks
  - Subdivide host id into subnet ID + host ID
  - Subnet mask
- Only routers in the domain interpret subnet mask
  - Other routers treat IP address as normal class A, B or C address



### Subnet Example

#### Consider

- A domain with a class B address
- 135.104.\*
- Without subnetting
  - Every router in the domain needs to know how to route to every host
- However
  - the domain itself is likely organized as a hierarchy of physical networks



### Subnet Example

#### Solution

- Partition the 65,536 address in the class B network
  - 256 subnets each with 256 addresses
  - Subnet mask: 255.255.255.0
- If 135.104.5.{1,2,3} are all on the same physical network reachable from router 135.105.4.1
  - There only needs to be one routing entry for 135.104.5.\* pointing to 135.105.4.1 as next hop



### Subnetting

Normal IP

Class B:

1 0 Network (14 bits) Host (16 bits)

- Typical subnetting example
  - Use first byte of host as subnet number

Class B:

1 0 Network (14 bits) Subnet (8 bits) Host (8 bits)

- Atypical example
  - Non-contiguous 6-bit subnet number

Class B:

1 0 Network (14 bits)

### Subnetting

- The subnet mask specifies the bits of network and subnet addresses
- Routing table entries carry both addresses and subnet masks

#### Class B:

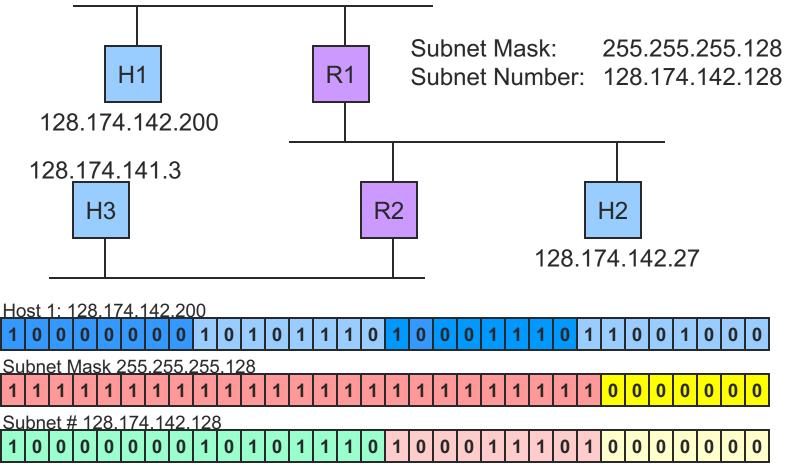
1 0 Network (14 bits) Host (16 bits)

#### Class B:

1 0 Network (14 bits) Subnet (8 bits) Host (8 bits)

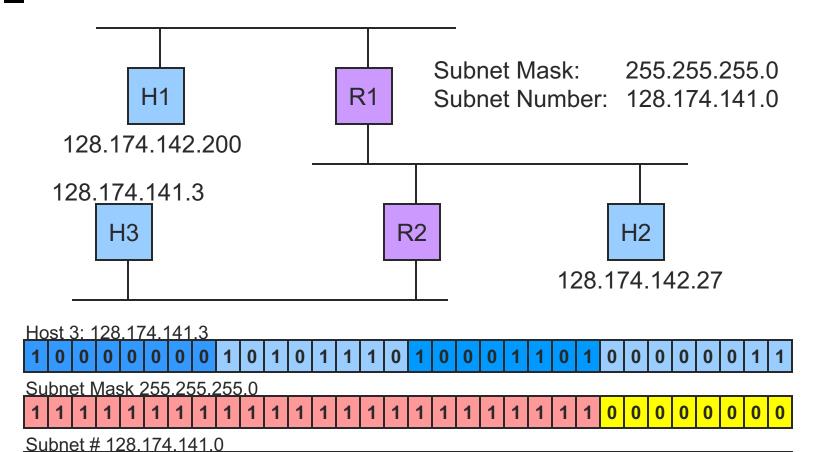
#### Subnet Mask:

### Subnetting – Host 1





### Subnetting – Host 3





0 | 0 | 0

0

0

0

0

0 0

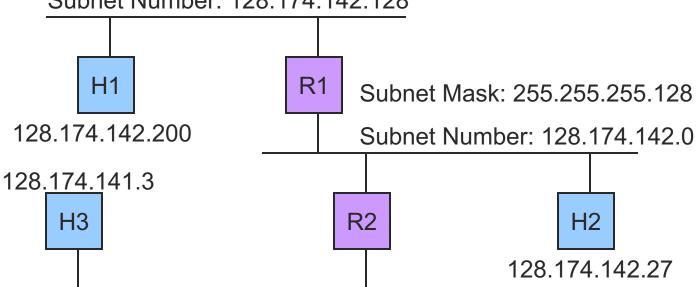
0 0 0 0

0 | 1 |

### Subnetting - Example

Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.128

Subnet Number: 128.174.142.128



Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.0

Subnet Number: 128.174.141.0



## Subnetting

#### Send from H1 to H3

Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.128 Subnet Number: 128.174.142.128

Table 128.17

H1

Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.128

Subnet Number: 128.174.142.0

128.174.141.3

R2

Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.0 Subnet Number: 128.174.141.0

#### At H1:

- Compute (H3 AND H1's subnet mask)
  - 128.174.141.3 AND 255.255.255.128
  - $\Rightarrow$  = 128.174.141.0 ( $\neq$  128.174.142.128)
    - If result == H1's subnet number
      - H3 and H1 are on the same subnet

#### else

route through appropriate router



**H3** 

H2

128 174 142 27

Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2 196 = 1100 0100

$$196 = 1100 \ 0100$$

128 = 1000 0000

Next hop

$$142 = 1000 \ 1110$$

$$145 = 1001 0001$$

$$196 = 1100 0100$$



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2 196 = 1100 0100

$$196 = 1100 \ 0100$$

128 = 1000 0000

Next hop

128.174.142.196

to R1

 $141 = 1000 \ 1101$ 

128.174.142.95

 $142 = 1000 \ 1110$ 

128.174.141.137

145 = 1001 0001

128.174.145.18

 $196 = 1100 \ 0100$ 

131.126.244.15



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2

128 = 1000 0000

Next hop

128.174.142.196

**128.174.142.95** 

**128.174.141.137** 

**128.174.145.18** 

131.126.244.15

$$141 = 1000 \ 1101$$

$$142 = 1000 \ 1110$$

$$145 = 1001 0001$$



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2

Next hop

128.174.142.196

**128.174.142.95** 

**128.174.141.137** 

**128.174.145.18** 

131.126.244.15

Interface 1 142 - 1000 1110

to Interface 1 142 = 1000 1110

145 = 1001 0001

 $141 = 1000 \ 1101$ 

196 = 1100 0100



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2 137 = 1000 1001

$$137 = 1000 \ 1003$$

128 = 1000 0000

Next hop

128.174.142.196

128.174.142.95

128.174.141.137

128.174.145.18

131.126.244.15

$$142 = 1000 \ 1110$$

$$145 = 1001 0001$$

 $196 = 1100 \ 0100$ 



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

	Example Table from R2	137 = 1000 1001	128	= 1	1000	0000
	<ul><li>Next hop</li></ul>		141	= 1	1000	1101
	<ul><li>128.174.142.196</li><li>128.174.142.95</li><li>128.174.141.137</li></ul>					1110
			145		000	2221
	<b>128.174.145.18</b>		145	= 1	LOOT	0001
	<b>1</b> 31.126.244.15		196	= 1	100	0100

Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2

$$18 = 0001 \ 0010$$

$$128 = 1000 0000$$

Next hop

$$142 = 1000 \ 1110$$

$$145 = 1001 0001$$



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2	18 = 0001 0010	128 = 1000 0000
<ul><li>Next hop</li></ul>		141 = 1000 1101
<b>128.174.142.196</b>		
<b>128.174.142.95</b>		$142 = 1000 \ 1110$
<b>128.174.141.137</b>		145 1001 0001
<b>128.174.145.18</b>	to R3	145 = 1001 0001
<b>131.126.244.15</b>		196 = 1100 0100



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2

$$15 = 0000 1111 12$$

128 = 1000 0000

Next hop

128.174.142.196

128.174.142.95

**128.174.141.137** 

128.174.145.18

131.126.244.15

$$141 = 1000 \ 1101$$
 $142 = 1000 \ 1110$ 

$$145 = 1001 0001$$

196 = 1100 0100



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

Example Table from R2	15 = 0000 1111	128 = 1000 0000
<ul><li>Next hop</li></ul>		141 = 1000 1101
<ul><li>128.174.142.196</li></ul>		141 = 1000 1101
<b>128.174.142.95</b>		$142 = 1000 \ 1110$
<ul><li>128.174.141.137</li></ul>		145 1001 0001
<ul><li>128.174.145.18</li></ul>		145 = 1001 0001
<b>131.126.244.15</b>	to R3	196 = 1100 0100



Subnet #	Subnet Mask	Next Hop
128.174.141.0	255.255.255.0	Interface 0
128.174.142.0	255.255.255.128	Interface 1
128.174.142.128	255.255.255.128	R1
128.174.0.0	255.255.0.0	R3
Default	0.0.0.0	R3

#### Example Table from R2

Next hop

**128.174.142.196** 

128.174.142.95

**128.174.141.137** 

128.174.145.18

**131.126.244.15** 

to R1

to Interface 1

to Interface 0

to R3

to R3



### Subnetting

#### Notes

- Non-contiguous subnets are difficult to administer
- Multiple subnets on one physical network
  - Must be routed through router

#### Pros

- Helps address consumption
- Helps reduce routing table size



### The Crisis

- Fixed 32-bit address space for IPv4
- Network allocation based on Classic A, B, C Model
- Central allocation authority
  - Randomly assigning addresses
- Problems
  - Router table explosion
  - Address space exhaustion



# Classless Interdomain Routing (CIDR)

#### CIDR/Supernetting

- Problem with subnetting
  - Allows hierarchy within organizations
  - Does not reduce class B address space pressure
- Solution
  - Aggregate routes in routing tables
  - Eliminate class notation
  - Generalize subnet notion
  - Allow only contiguous subnet masks
  - Specify network by <network #, # of bits in subnet mask>
  - Equivalent to <network #, # of hosts>
  - Blocks of class C networks can now be treated as one network



- Route aggregation
  - Use contiguous blocks of Class C addresses
    - Example:
      - o 192.4.16 192.4.31
      - 20 bit subnet mask
    - Block size must be a power of 2
  - Network number may be any length

192.4.16.0



192.4.31.0



**Subnet Mask** 

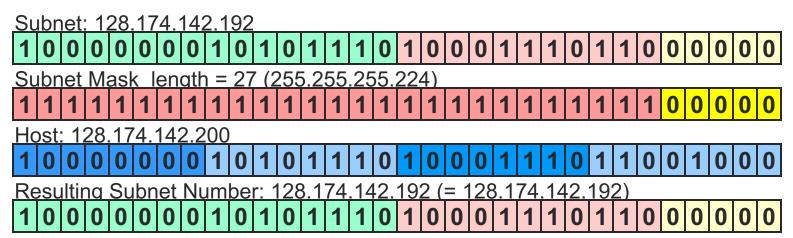


Subnet # / length	Next Hop
128.174.141.0 / 24	Interface 0
128.174.142.192 / 27	Interface 1
128.174.142.128 / 25	R1
128.174.0.0 / 16	R3
Default	R3

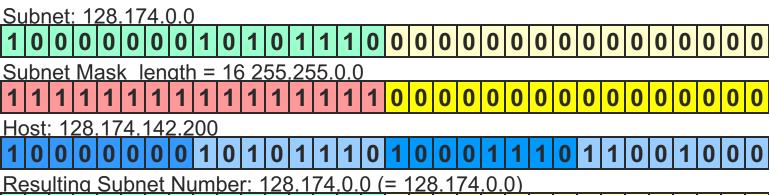
#### CIDR is similar to subnetting

- Trend is for increasing amounts of overlap in routing table entries
- Example: 128.174.142.200
  - Matches second, third and fourth lines
  - Route to entry with longest match











#### Subnetting

- Share one address (network number) across multiple physical networks
- Supernetting
  - Aggregate multiple addresses (network numbers) for one physical network



- Allows hierarchical development
  - Assign a block of addresses to a regional provider
    - Ex: 128.0.0.0/9 to BARRNET
  - Regional provider subdivides address and hands out block to sub-regional providers
    - Ex: 128.132.0.0/16 to Berkeley
  - Sub-regional providers can divide further for smaller organizations
    - Ex: 128.132.32.0/1 to Berkeley Computer Science Department



## Pros and Cons

- Provides a fast easy solution
- Was not intended to be permanent
- Multihomed sites cannot benefit from aggregation
- Not backward compatible



#### IPv6

- History
  - Next generation IP (AKA IPng)
  - Intended to extend address space and routing limitations of IPv4
    - Requires header change
    - Attempted to include everything new in one change
  - IETF moderated
    - Based on Simple Internet Protocol Plus (SIPP)



#### IPv6

- Wish list
  - 128-bit addresses
  - Multicast traffic
  - Mobility
  - Real-time traffic/quality of service guarantees
  - Authentication and security
  - Autoconfiguration for local IP addresses
  - End-to-end fragmentation
  - Protocol extensions
- Smooth transition!
- Note
  - Many of these functionalities have been retrofit into IPv4



### **IPv6 Addresses**

- 128-bit
  - o 3.4 x 1038 addresses (as compared to 4 x 109
- Classless addressing/routing (similar to CIDR)
- Address notation
  - String of eight 16-bit hex values separated by colons
    - 5CFA:0002:0000:0000:CF07:1234:5678:FFCD
  - Set of contiguous 0's can be elided
    - 5CFA:0002::0000:CF07:1234:5678:FFCD
- Address assignment
  - Provider-based
  - geographic



# IPv6

Prefix	Address type
0000 0000	Reserved (includes transition addresses)
0000 0001	ISO NSAP (Network Service Point) Allocation
0000 010	Novell IPX allocation
010	Provider-based unicast
100	Geographic multicast
1111 1110 10	Link local address
1111 1110 11	Site local address
1111 1111	Multicast address
Other	unassigned

### **IPv4 Packet Format**

- 20 Byte minimum
- Mandatory fields are not always used
  - e.g. fragmentation
- Options are an unordered list of (name, value) pairs

0 8 16 31 version hdr len TOS length ident offset flags TTL protocol checksum source address destination address options (variable) pad (variable)



# IPv6 Packet Format

0		8	16	31
version	priority	flow label		
	payload	d length next header hop limit		
	source address word 1			
source address word 2				
source address word 3				
source address word 4				
destination address word 1				
destination address word 2				
destination address word 3				
destination address word 4				
options (variable number, usually fixed length)				

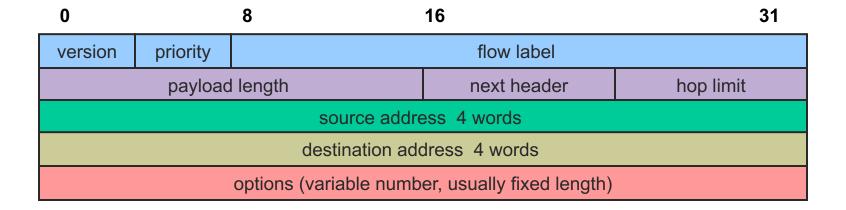
40



24

# IPv6 Packet Format

- 40 Byte minimum
- Mandatory fields (almost) always used
- Strict order on options reduces processing time
  - No need to parse irrelevant options





# IPv6 Packet Format

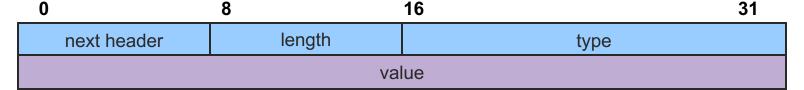
- Version
  - 0 6
- Priority and Flow Label
  - Support service guarantees
  - Allow "fair" bandwidth allocation
- Payload Length
  - Header not included
- Next Header
  - Combines options and protocol
  - Linked list of options
  - Ends with higher-level protocol header (e.g. TCP)
- Hop Limit
  - TTL renamed to match usage



- Must appear in order
  - Hop-by-hop options
    - Miscellaneous information for routers
  - Routing
    - Full/partial route to follow
  - Fragmentation
    - IP fragmentation info
  - Authentication
    - Sender identification
  - Encrypted security payload
    - Information about contents
  - Destination options
    - Information for destination



- Hop-by-Hop extension
  - Length is in bytes beyond mandatory 8



- Jumbogram option (packet longer than 65,535 bytes)
  - Payload length in main header set to 0

0	8	16	31	
next header	0	194	0	
Payload length in bytes				

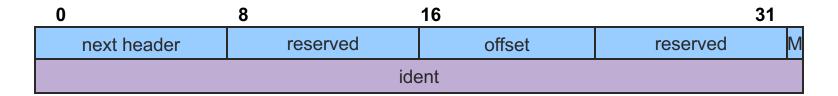


0	8	16	31	
next header	0	# of addresses	next address	
	strict/loose routing bitmap			
1 – 24 addresses				

#### Routing extension

- Up to 24 "anycast" addresses target AS' s/providers
- Next address tracks current target
- Strict routing requires direct link
- Loose routing allows intermediate nodes





- Fragmentation extension
  - Similar to IPv4 fragmentation
    - 13-bit offset
    - Last fragment mark (M)
  - Larger fragment identification field



- Authentication extension
  - Designed to be very flexible
  - Includes
    - Security parameters index (SPI)
    - Authentication data
- Encryption Extension
  - Called encapsulating security payload (ESP)
  - Includes an SPI
  - All headers and data after ESP are encrypted



- Address length
  - 8 byte
    - Might run out in a few decades
    - Less header overhead
  - 16 byte
    - More overhead
    - Good for foreseeable future
  - 20 byte
    - Even more overhead
    - Compatible with OSI
  - Variable length



- Hop limit
  - 65,535
    - 32 hop paths are common now
    - In a decade, we may see much longer paths
  - 255
    - Objective is to limit lost packet lifetime
    - Good network design makes long paths unlikely
      - Source to backbone
      - Across backbone
      - Backbone to destination



- Greater than 64KB data
  - Good for supercomputer/high bandwidth applications
  - Too much overhead to fragment large data packets
- 64 KB data
  - More compatible with low-bandwidth lines
  - 1 MB packet ties up a 1.5MBps line for more than 5 seconds
  - Inconveniences interactive users



- Keep checksum
  - Removing checksum from IP is analogous to removing brakes from a car
    - Light and faster
    - Unprepared for the unexpected
- Remove checksum
  - Typically duplicated in data link and transport layers
  - Very expensive in IPv4



#### Mobile hosts

- Direct or indirect connectivity
  - Reconnect directly using canonical address
  - Use home and foreign agents to forward traffic
- Mobility introduces asymmetry
  - Base station signal is strong, heard by mobile units
  - Mobile unit signal is weak and susceptible to interference, may not be heard by base station



#### Security

- Where?
  - Network layer
    - A standard service
  - Application layer
    - No viable standard
    - Application susceptible to errors in network implementation
    - Expensive to turn on and off
- o How?
  - Political import/export issues
  - Cryptographic strength issues

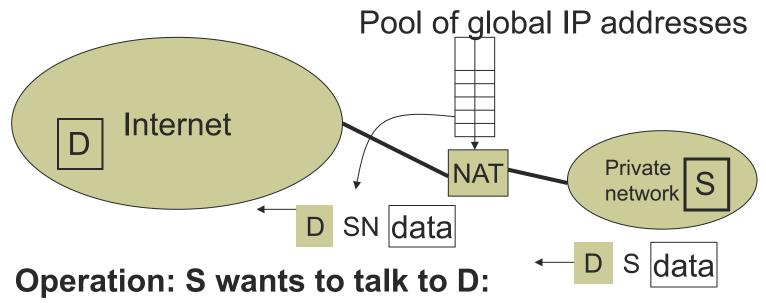


# Network Address Translation (NAT)

- Kludge (but useful)
- Sits between your network and the Internet
- Translates local network layer addresses to global IP addresses
- Has a pool of global IP addresses (less than number of hosts on your network)



### **NAT Illustration**



- Create S-SN mapping
- Replace S with SN for outgoing packets
- Replace SN with S for incoming packets



# -What if we only have few (or just one) IP address?

- Use NAPT (Network Address Port Translator)
- NAPT translates:
  - <Paddr1, portA> to <Gaddr, portB>
  - potentially thousands of simultaneous connections with one global IP address



### Problems with NAT

- Hides the internal network structure
  - some consider this an advantage
- Multiple NAT hops must ensure consistent mappings
- Some protocols carry addresses
  - e.g., FTP carries addresses in text
  - o what is the problem?
- Encryption



#### Approach

- Assign one router a global IP address
- Assign internal hosts local IP addresses

#### Change IP Headers

- IP addresses (and possibly port numbers) of IP datagrams are replaced at the boundary of a private network
- Enables hosts on private networks to communicate with hosts on the Internet
- Run on routers that connect private networks to the public Internet



Outgoing packet

What address do the remote hosts respond to?

- Source IP address (private IP) replaced by global IP address maintained by NAT router
- Incoming packet

Destination IP address (global IP of NAT router caches translation table:

(source IP address, port #)

NAT router caches translation table:

(source IP address, new port #)

NAT router caches translation table:

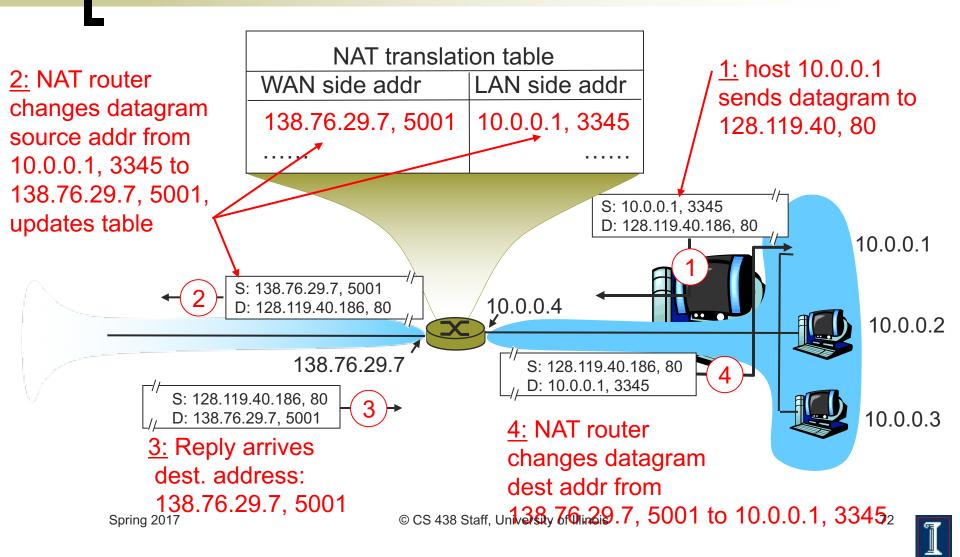
(source IP address, new port #)

Destination: 172.18.3.1

Destination: 200.24.5.8

- Benefits: local network uses just one (or a few) IP address as far as outside word is concerned
  - No need to be allocated range of addresses from ISP
    - Just one IP address is used for all devices
  - Can change addresses of devices in local network without notifying outside world
  - Can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
  - Devices inside local net not explicitly addressable, visible by outside world (a security plus)





#### Address Pooling

- Corporate network has many hosts
- Only a small number of public IP addresses

#### NAT solution

- Manage corporate network with a private address space
- NAT, at boundary between corporate network and public Internet, manages a pool of public IP addresses
- When a host from corporate network sends an IP datagram to a host in public Internet, NAT picks a public IP address from the address pool, and binds this address to the private address of the host



#### Load balancing

 Balance the load on a set of identical servers, which are accessible from a single IP address

#### NAT solution

- Servers are assigned private addresses
- NAT acts as a proxy for requests to the server from the public network
- NAT changes the destination IP address of arriving packets to one of the private addresses for a server
- Balances load on the servers by assigning addresses in a round-robin fashion



### NAT: Consequences

- 16-bit port-number field
  - 60,000 simultaneous connections with a single LAN-side address!
- End-to-end connectivity
  - NAT destroys universal end-to-end reachability of hosts on the Internet
  - A host in the public Internet often cannot initiate communication to a host in a private network
  - The problem is worse, when two hosts that are in different private networks need to communicate with each other



### NAT: Consequences

#### Performance

- Modifying the IP header by changing the IP address requires that NAT boxes recalculate the IP header checksum
- Modifying port number requires that NAT boxes recalculate TCP checksum

#### Fragmentation

 Datagrams fragmented before NAT device must not be assigned different IP addresses or different port numbers



## NAT: Consequences

- IP address in application data
  - Applications often carry IP addresses in the payload of the application data
  - No longer work across a private-public network boundary
  - Hack: Some NAT devices inspect the payload of widely used application layer protocols and, if an IP address is detected in the application-layer header or the application payload, translate the address according to the address translation table

