



# Data Communications and Networking

Fourth Edition

## Chapter 19

### Network Layer: Logical Addressing



# 19-1 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.

*Topics discussed in this section:*

Address Space

Notations

Classful Addressing

Classless Addressing

Network Address Translation (NAT)



# IPV4 Address

- ❑ An IPv4 address is 32 bits long.
- ❑ The IPv4 addresses are unique and universal.
- ❑ The address space of IPv4 is  $2^{32}$  or 4,294,967,296

# IPv4 Address

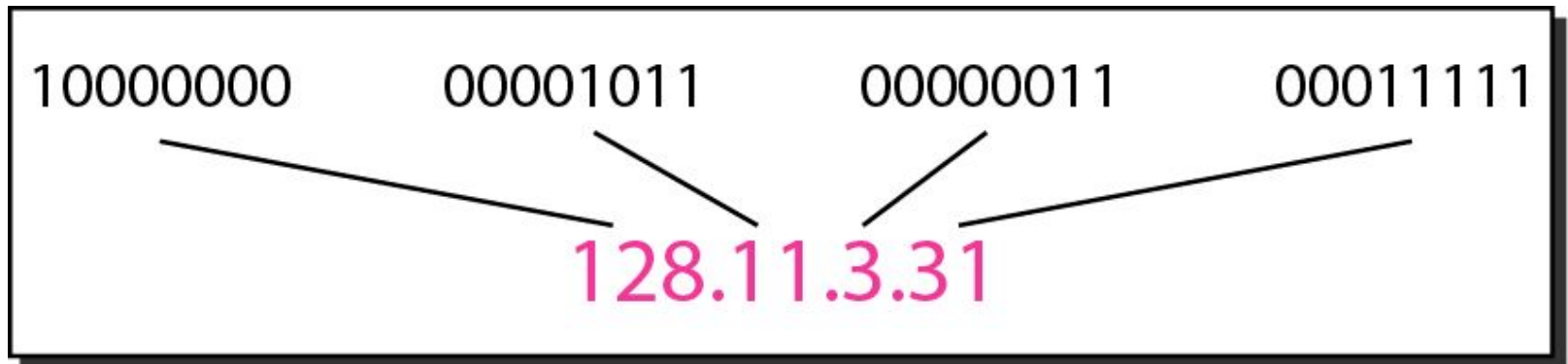
## □ Notation

### ◆ Binary Notation :

- The IPv4 address is displayed as 32 bits.
- Each octet is often referred to as a byte.

### ◆ Dotted-Decimal Notation

- To make the IPv4 address more compact and easier to read, Internet addresses are written in decimal form with a decimal point (dot) separating the byte.



## Notation (cont'd)

### □ Hexadecimal Notation

0111 0101   1001 0101   0001 1101   1110 1010

75

95

1D

EA

**0x75951DEA**

- *8 hexadecimal digits*
- *Used in network programming*

# Classful Addressing

- ❑ In classful addressing, the address space is divided into five classes: A, B, C, D, and E.
- ◆ If the address is given in binary notation, the first few bits can tell us the class of the address.
- ◆ If the address is given in decimal-dotted notation, the first byte defines the class.

	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

# Classful Addressing

## □ Classful Addresses

- ◆ Unicast Communication - A, B, C Class  
(~must be delivered to specific computer)
- ◆ Multicast Communication – D Class  
(~must be delivered to each member of the group)
- ◆ For reserve – E Class

# Classful Addressing

## ❏ Classes and blocks

- ❖ One problem with classful addressing is that each class is divided into a fixed number of blocks with each block having a fixed size.

**Table 19.1** *Number of blocks and block size in classful IPv4 addressing*

<i>Class</i>	<i>Number of Blocks</i>	<i>Block Size</i>	<i>Application</i>
A	128	16,777,216	Unicast
B	16,384	65,536	Unicast
C	2,097,152	256	Unicast
D	1	268,435,456	Multicast
E	1	268,435,456	Reserved



# Classful Addressing

- ❑ Class A addresses were designed for large organizations
  - ◆ The most of the addresses were wasted and were not used.
- ❑ Class B addresses were designed for midsize organizations
  - ◆ Class B is also too large for many organizations.
- ❑ Class C addresses were designed for small organizations
  - ◆ Class C is too small for many organizations.
- ❑ Class D addresses were designed for multicasting
  - ◆ Each addresses in this class is used to define one group of hosts on the Internet.
- ❑ Class E addresses were reserved for future use.
  - ◆ Only a few used, resulting in another waste of addresses.

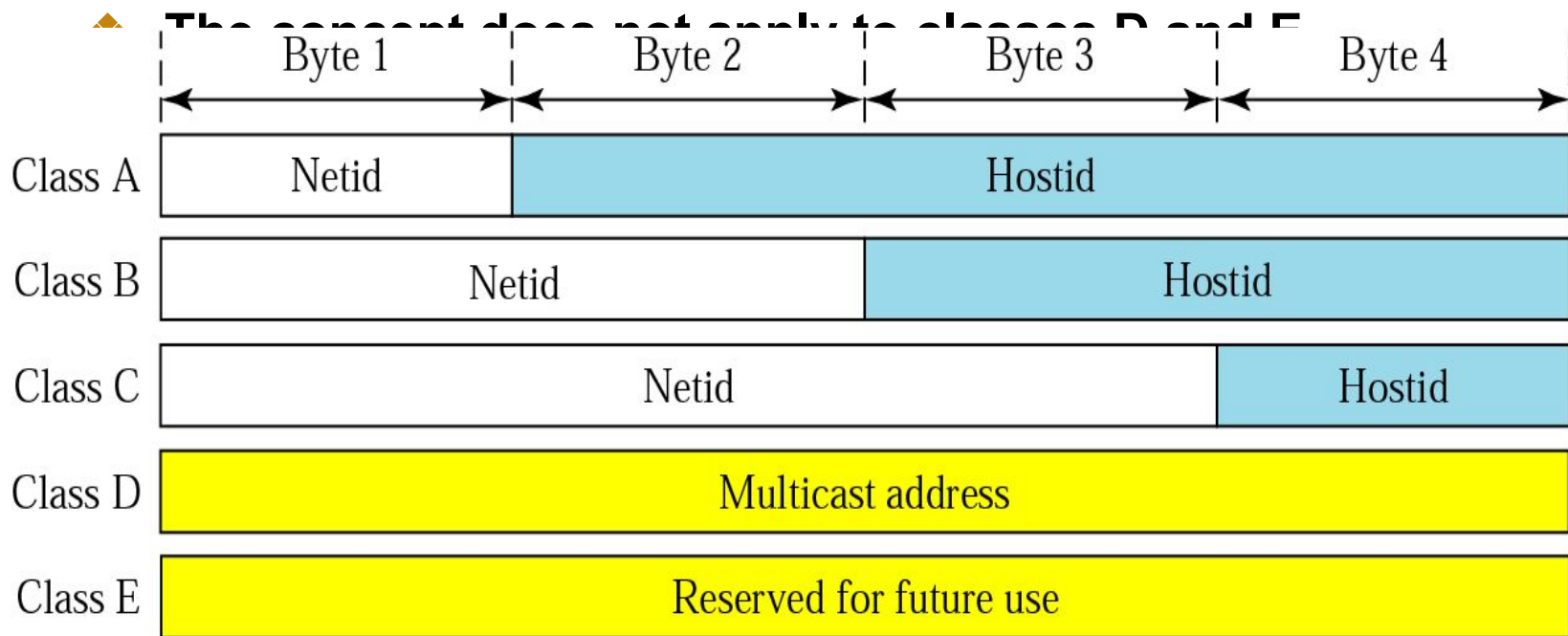
**In classful addressing, a large part of the available addresses were wasted.**



# Classful Addressing

## □ Netid and Hostid

- ◆ IP address in class A,B, or C is divided into netID and hostID.
  - netID defines a Network, and hostID defines a host in the networks.



# MASK

## □ Mask

- ◆ When a router receives a packet with a destination address, it needs to route the packet.
- ◆ The routing is based on the network address and subnetwork address.
  - The router **outside** the organization has a routing table with one column based on the **network addresses**;
  - The router **inside** the organization has a routing table based on the **subnetwork addresses**.
- ◆ The mask is a 32-bit binary number, and the mask can help to find the network and subnetwork address.
  - The routers **outside the organization** use a **Default Mask** to find the network address and,
  - The routers **inside** the organization use a **Subnet Mask** to find the subnetwork address..



# Default Mask

## □ Default Mask

- ◆ A default mask is a 32-bit binary number, and the default mask for each class are as follows; 255.0.0.0, 255.255.0.0, 255.255.255.0.
- ◆ Default mask gives the network address when ANDed with an address in the block.
  - If the bit in the mask is 1, the corresponding bit in the address is retained in the output (no change)
  - If the mask is 0, a 0 bit in the output is the result.

*Table 19.1 Default masks*

<i>Class</i>	<i>Binary</i>	<i>Dotted-Decimal</i>	<i>CIDR</i>
A	11111111 00000000 00000000 00000000	255.0.0.0	/8
B	11111111 11111111 00000000 00000000	255.255.0.0	/16
C	11111111 11111111 11111111 00000000	255.255.255.0	/24



# Subnet Mask

## □ Subnetting

- ◆ A network is divided into several smaller networks with each subnetwork (or subnet) having its subnetwork address

## □ Subnet Mask :

- ◆ We change some of the leftmost 0s in the default mask to make a subnet mask.
- ◆ The number of subnets is determined by the number of extra 1s.
  - If the number of extra 1s in n, the number of subnets is  $2^n$ .
  - If the number of subnets is N, the number of extra 1s is  $\log_2 N$ .

	255.255.0.0			
Default Mask	11111111	11111111	00000000	00000000
			16	
	255.255.224.0			
Subnet Mask	11111111	11111111	111	00000000
			3	13

$$2^n = 2^3 = 8 \text{ subnets}$$



# Supernetting and Address depletion

## ❑ Supernetting

- ◆ Combining several class C addresses to create a larger range of addresses

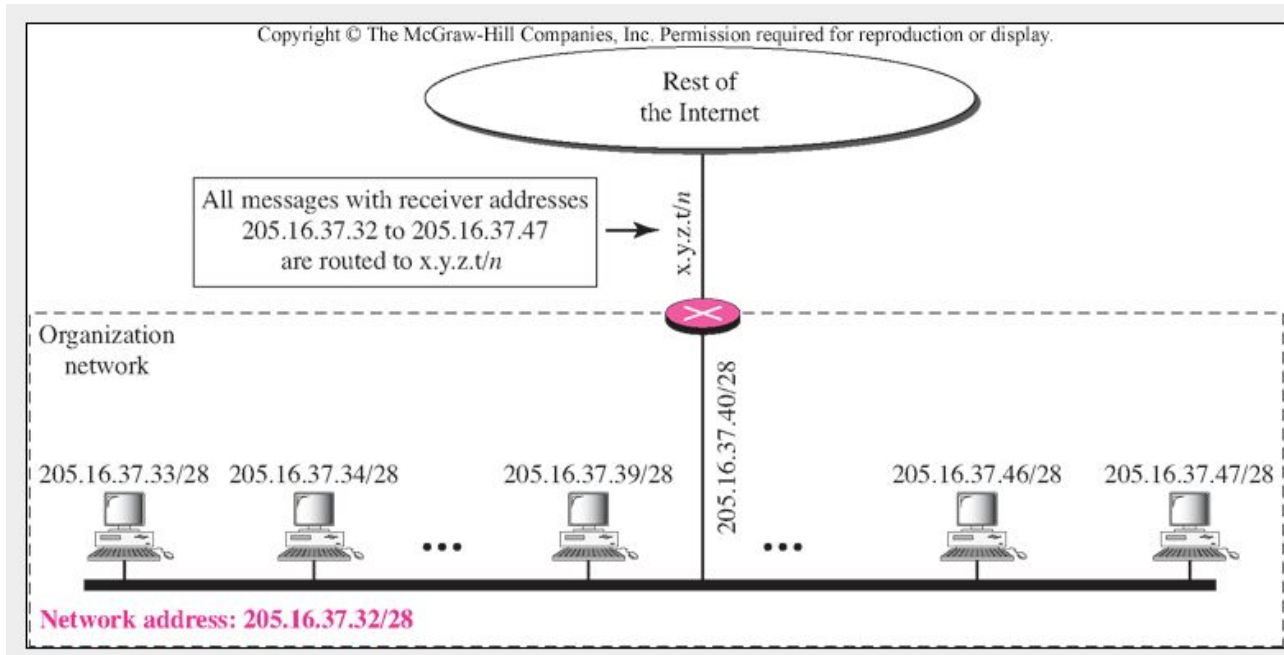
## ❑ Address Depletion

- ◆ The fast growth of the Internet led to the near depletion of the available addresses.
- ◆ Classful addressing, which is almost obsolete, is replaced with classless addressing.

# Network Address

## ❑ Network Addresses

- ◆ The first address in a block is normally not assigned to any device;
- ◆ It is used as the network address that represents the organization to the rest of the world.

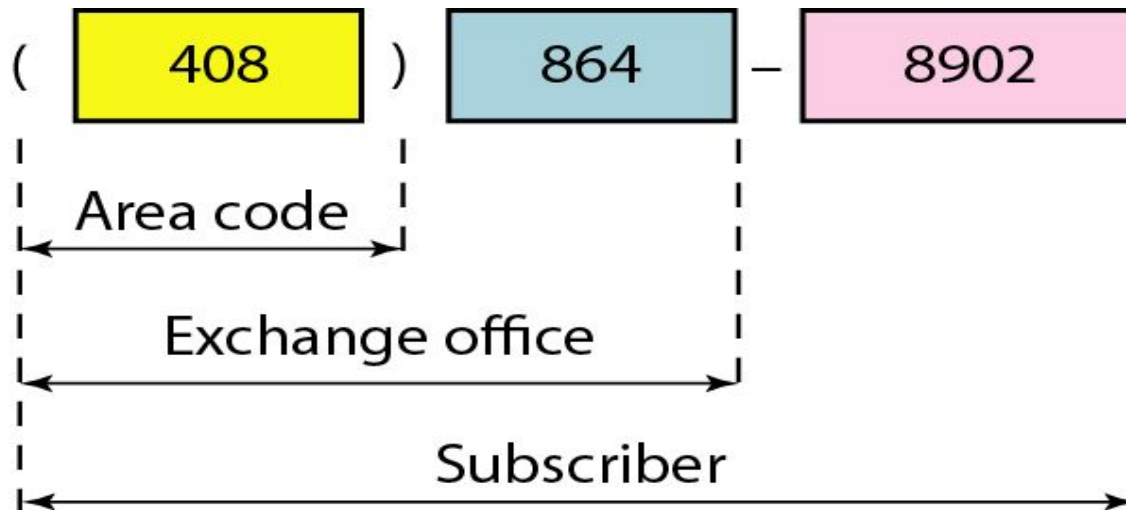


**Figure 19.4** *A network configuration for the block 205.16.37.32/28*

# Network Address

## □ Hierarchy

- ◆ IP addresses have levels of hierarchy.
- ◆ For example, a telephone network has three levels of hierarchy.
  - The leftmost 3 digits define the area code, the next 3 digits define the exchange, the last 4 digits define the connection of the local loop to the central office.



**Figure 19.5** *Two levels of hierarchy in an IPv4 address*

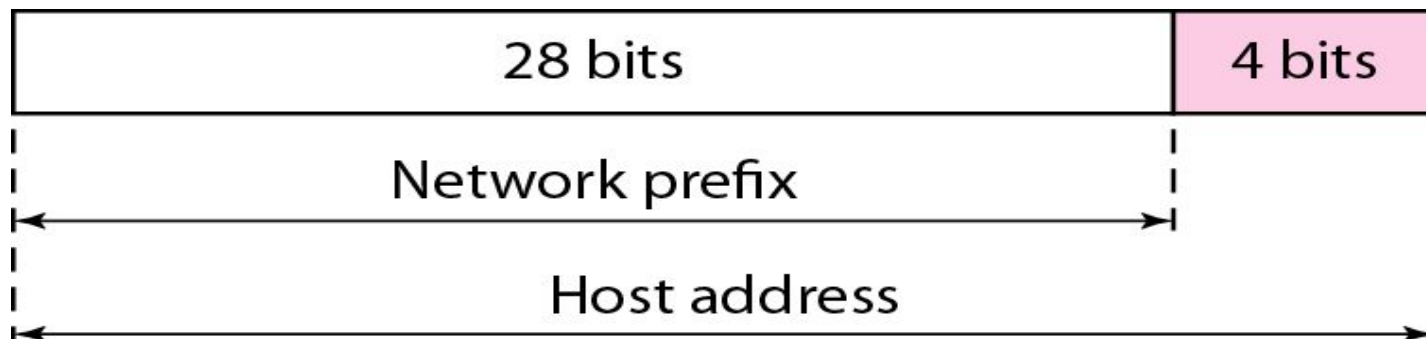


# Subnetting and Supernetting

## ❑ Two-level Hierarchy : No Subnetting

- ❖ Each IP address in the block can define only two-level of hierarchy when not subnetted.
  - the leftmost  $n$  bits (prefix) define the network;
  - the rightmost  $32 - n$  bits define the host.
- ❖ The part of the address that defines the network is called the **Prefix**;
- ❖ The part that defines the host is called the **Suffix**.
- ❖ The prefix is common to all addresses in the network; the suffix changes from one device to another.

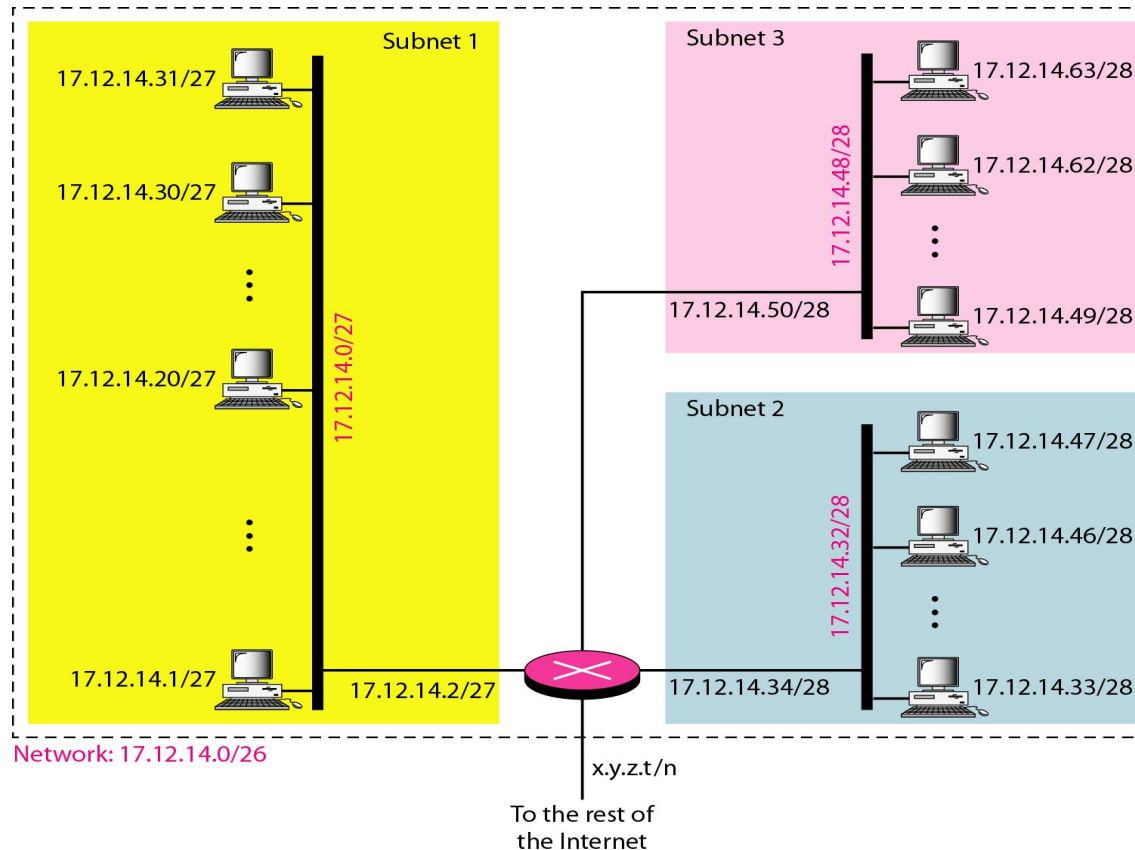
**Figure 19.6** *A frame in a character-oriented protocol*



# Subnetting and Supernetting

## Three-Levels of Hierarchy : Subnetting

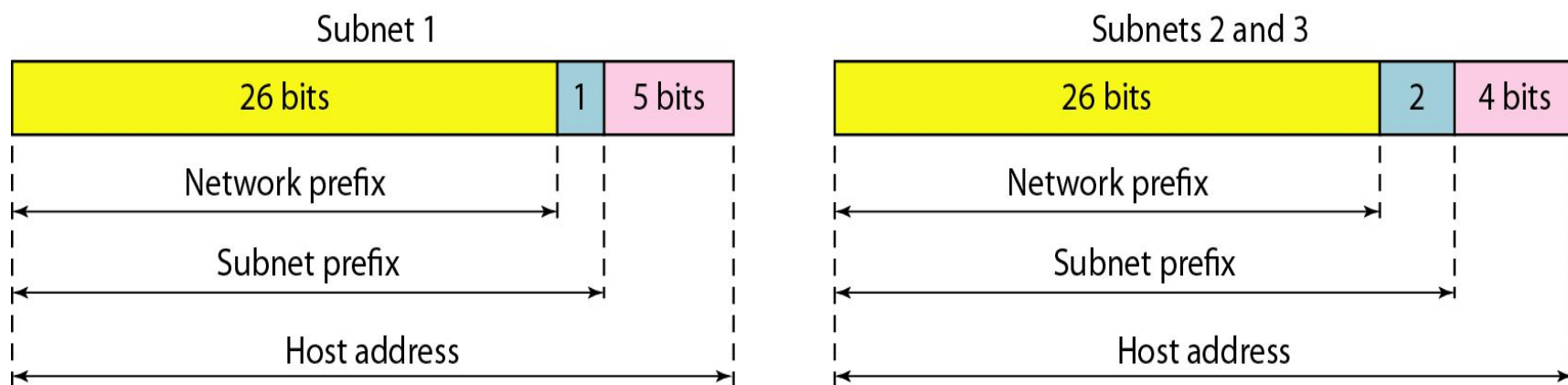
- Creating clusters of networks (called subnets)



**Figure 19.7** Configuration and addresses in a subnetted network

# Subnetting and Supernetting

- ❑ We have three levels of hierarchy through subnetting.
- ❖ The subnet prefix length can differ for the subnets.



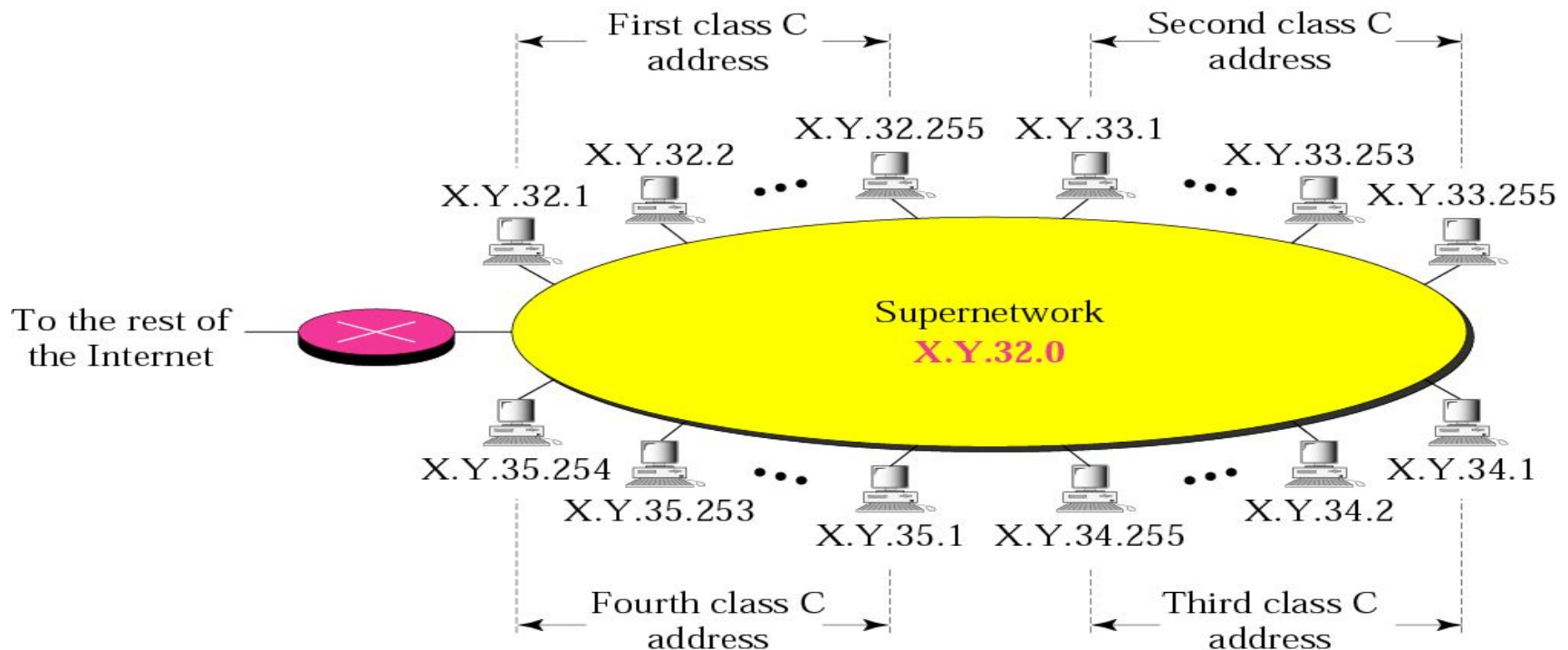
**Figure 19.8** *Three-level hierarchy in an IPv4 address*



# Supernetting

## ❑ Supernetting

- ◆ A maximum number of Class C is 256 addresses,
- ◆ If organization needed more addresses, The Supernetting can combine several class C blocks to create a larger range of addresses.  
( The mask changes from /24 to /22)



# Network Address Translation (NAT)

## ❑ Network Address Translation (NAT)

- ◆ NAT enables a user to have a large set of address internally and one address, or a small set of addresses, externally.
- ◆ The Internet authorities have reserved 3 sets of addresses as private addresses.
  - Any organization can use an address out of this set without permission from the Internet authorities.
  - They are unique inside the organization, but they are not unique globally.
  - No router will forward this packet as the destination address.

**Table 19.3** *Addresses for private networks*

<i>Range</i>			<i>Total</i>
10.0.0.0	to	10.255.255.255	$2^{24}$
172.16.0.0	to	172.31.255.255	$2^{20}$
192.168.0.0	to	192.168.255.255	$2^{16}$

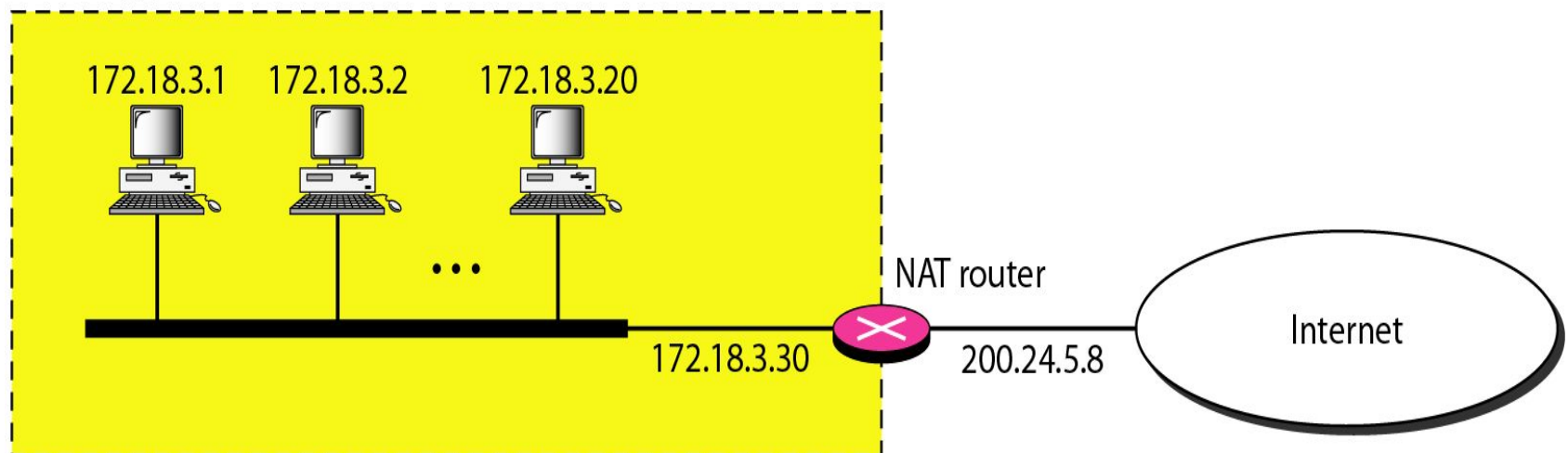


# Network Address Translation (NAT)

## ❑ NAT Implementation

- ◆ The router that connects the network to the global address uses one private address and one global address.
- ◆ The private network is transparent to the rest of the Internet; the rest of the Internet sees only the NAT router with the address 200.24.5.8.

Site using private addresses



**Figure 19.10** *A NAT implementation*

# Network Address Translation (NAT)

## □ Address translation

- ◆ All the outgoing packets go through the NAT router, which replaces the source address in the packet with the **global NAT address**.
- ◆ All incoming packets also pass through the NAT router, which replaces the destination addresses in the packet with the appropriate private address.

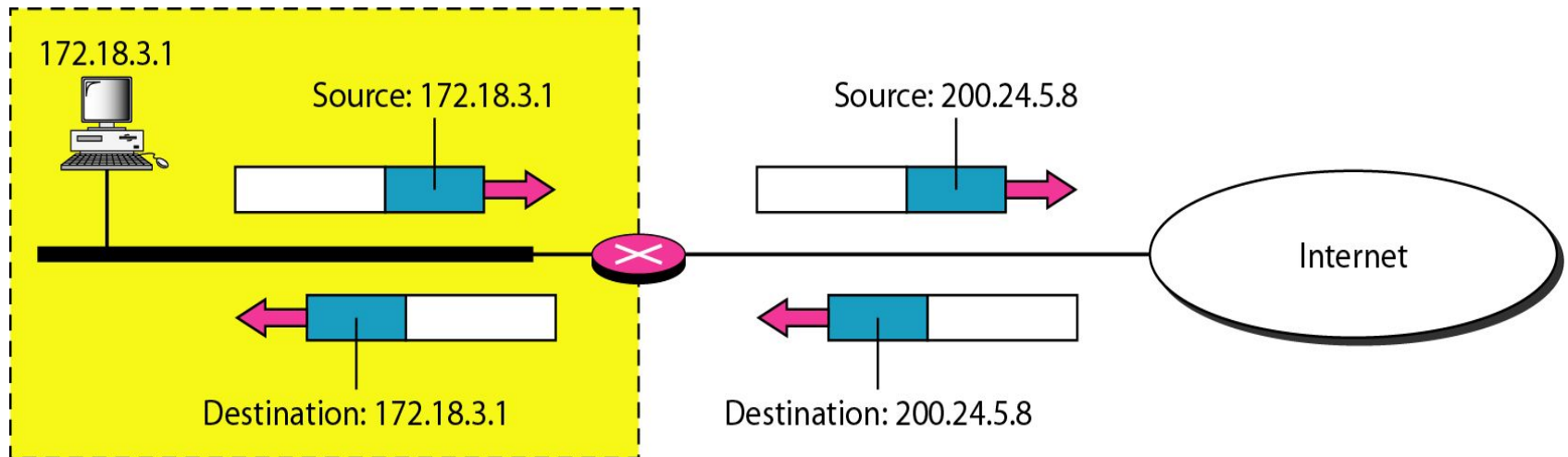


Figure 19.11 *Addresses in a NAT*

# Network Address Translation (NAT)

## Translation Table

- ◆ When the router translates the source address of the outgoing packet, it also **makes note of the destination address** – where the packet is going.
- ◆ When the response comes back from the destination, the router uses the source address of the packet to find the private address of the packet.

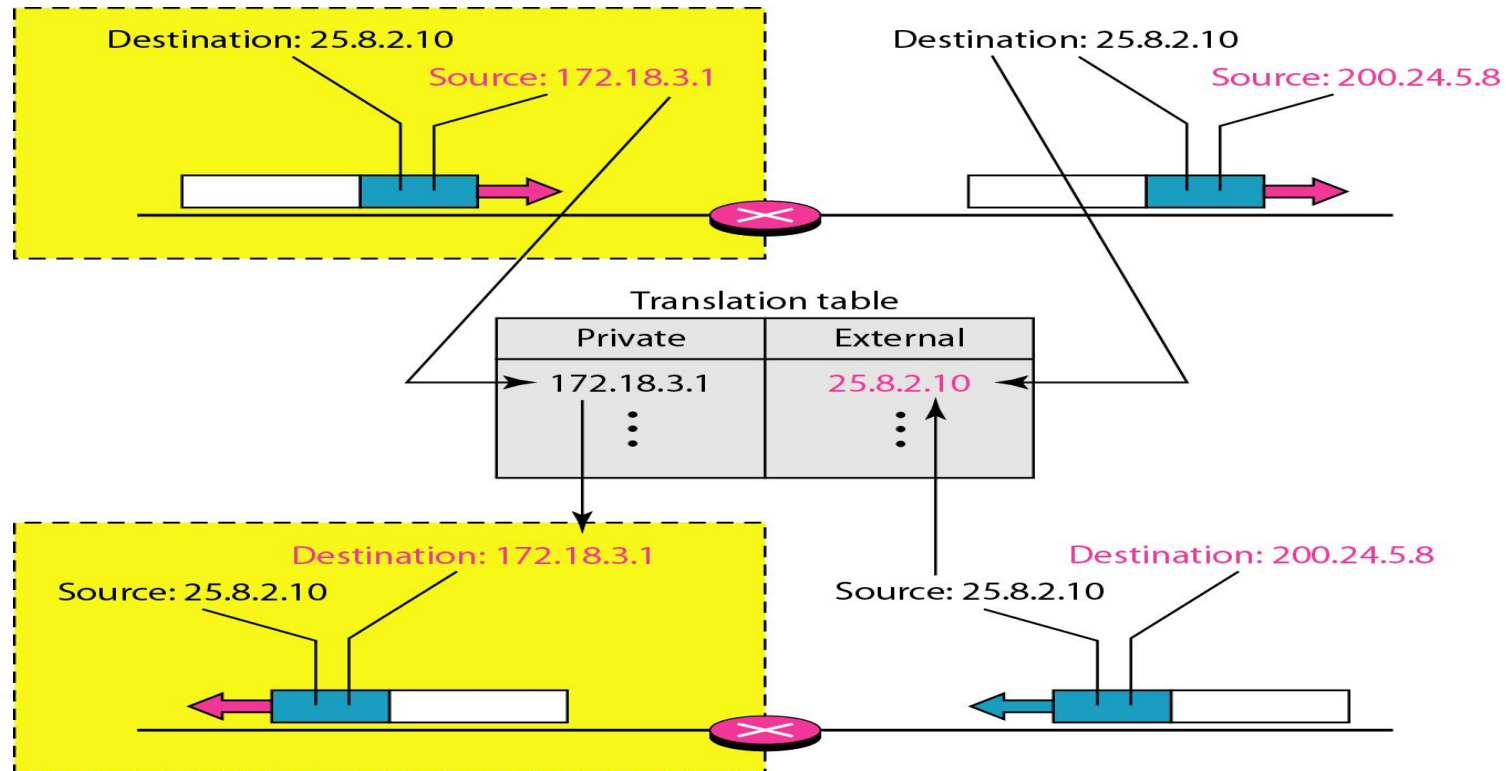


Figure 19.12 NAT address translation



# Network Address Translation (NAT)

- Using both IP addresses and port numbers

**Table 19.4** *Five-column translation table*

<i>Private Address</i>	<i>Private Port</i>	<i>External Address</i>	<i>External Port</i>	<i>Transport Protocol</i>
172.18.3.1	1400	25.8.3.2	80	TCP
172.18.3.2	1401	25.8.3.2	80	TCP
...	...	...	...	...

## 19-2 IPv6 ADDRESSES

**Despite all short-term solutions, address depletion is still a long-term problem for the Internet. This and other problems in the IP protocol itself have been the motivation for IPv6.**

**Topics discussed in this section:**

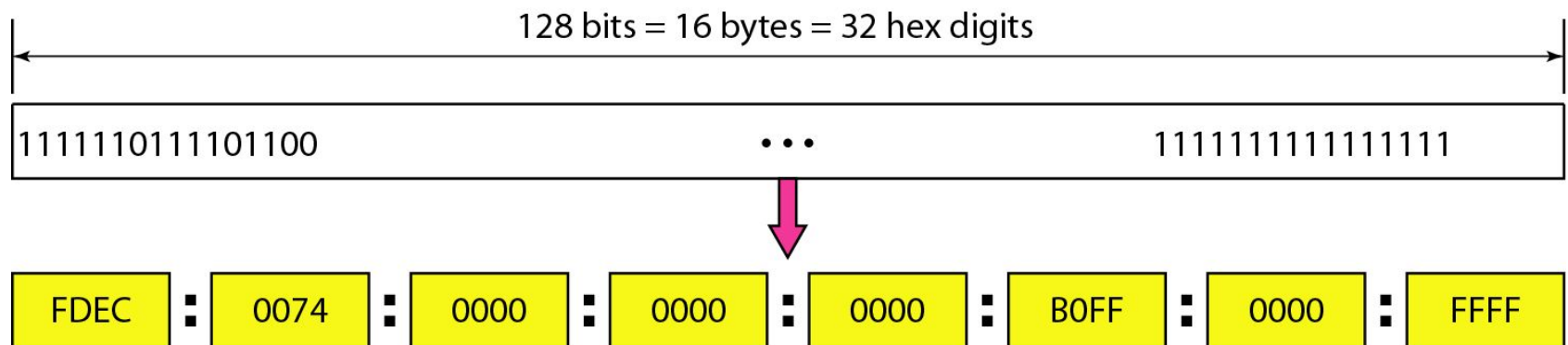
**Structure**

**Address Space**



# Structure - IPv6

- ❑ An IPv6 address consists of 16 bytes (Octets); it is 128 bits long.
- ❑ Hexadeximal Colon Notation
  - ❖ In this notation, 128 bits is divided into eight sections, each 2 bytes in length.
  - ❖ Therefore, the address consists of 32 hexadecimal digits, with every four digits separated by a colon.



# Abbreviation

- ❑ Although the IP address, even in hexadecimal format, is very long, many of the digits are zeros.
- ❑ The leading zeros of a section (four digits between two colons) can be omitted.
  - ◆ Only the leading zeros can be dropped, not the trailing zeros.

Original

FDEC : 0074 : 0000 : 0000 : 0000 : B0FF : 0000 : FFF0

Abbreviated

FDEC : 74 : 0 : 0 : 0 : B0FF : 0 : FFF0

More abbreviated

FDEC : 74 : : B0FF : 0 : FFF0

Gap



# Address Space

- ❑ IPv6 has a much larger address space;  $2^{128}$  addresses are available.

# Summary (1)

- ❑ At the Network layer, a global identification system that uniquely identifies every host and router is necessary for delivery of packet from host to host.
- ❑ An IPv4 address is 32 bits long and uniquely and universally defines a host or router on the Internet.
- ❑ In classful addressing, the portion of the IP address that identifies the network is called the netid.
- ❑ In classful addressing, the portion of the IP address that identifies the host or router on the network is called the hosted.
- ❑ An IP address defines a device's connection to a network.
- ❑ There are five classes in IPv4 addresses. Classes A, B, and C differ in the number of hosts allowed per network. Class D is for multicasting and Class E is reserved.



## Summary(2)

- ❑ The class of an address is easily determined by examination of the first byte.
- ❑ Addresses in classes A, B, or C are mostly used for unicast communication.
- ❑ Address in class D are used for multicast communication.
- ❑ Subnetting divides a large network into several smaller ones, adding an intermediate level of hierarchy in IP addressing.
- ❑ Supernetting combines several networks into one large one.
- ❑ In classless addressing, we can divide the address space into variable-length blocks.



# Data Communications and Networking

Fourth Edition

## Chapter 20

### Network Layer: Internet Protocol



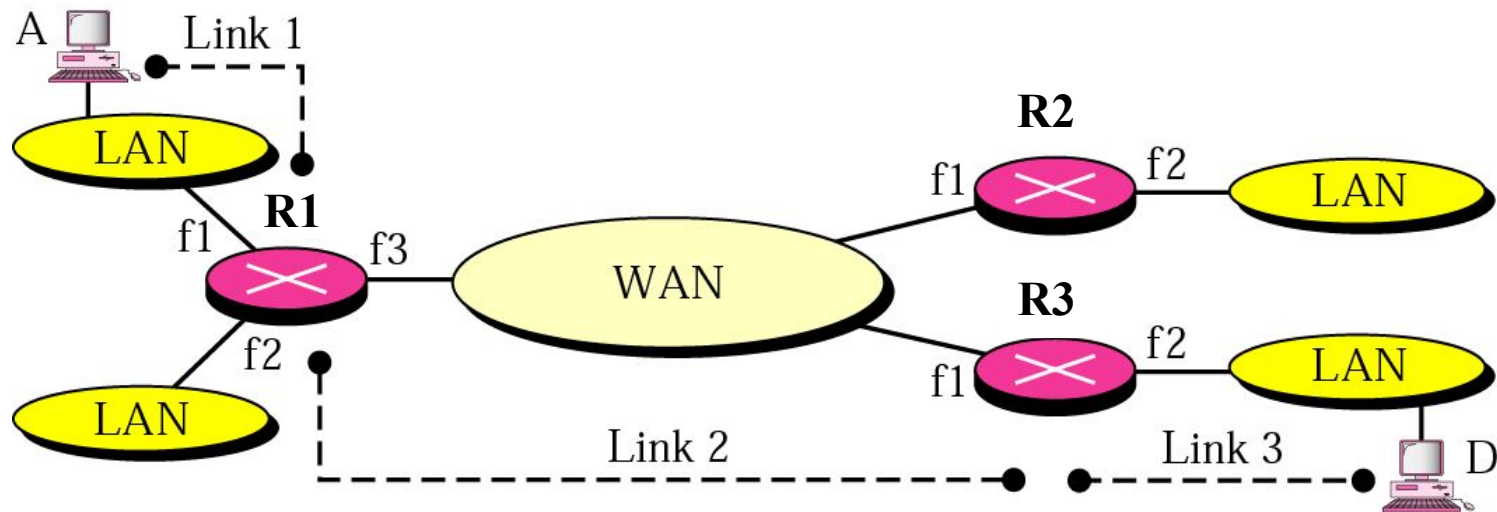


# Internetworking

## □ Internetworking

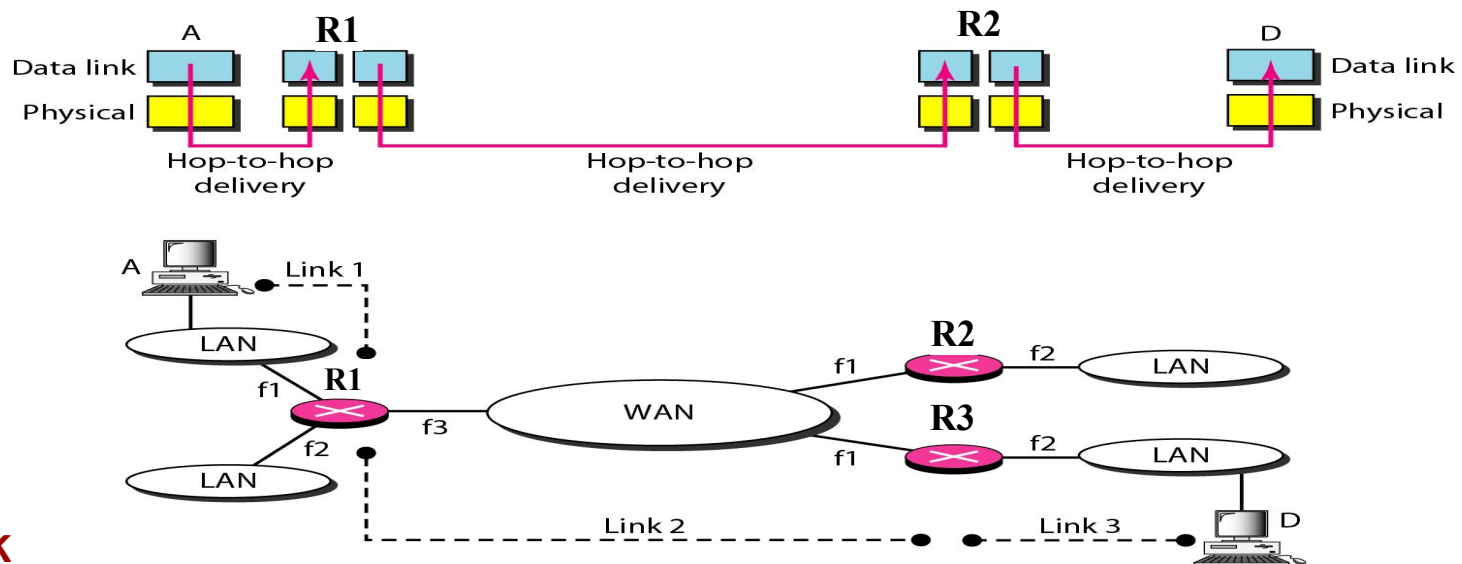
- ◆ The physical and data link layers of a network operate locally.
- ◆ These two layers are jointly responsible for data delivery on the network from one node to the next.

R



# Internetworking

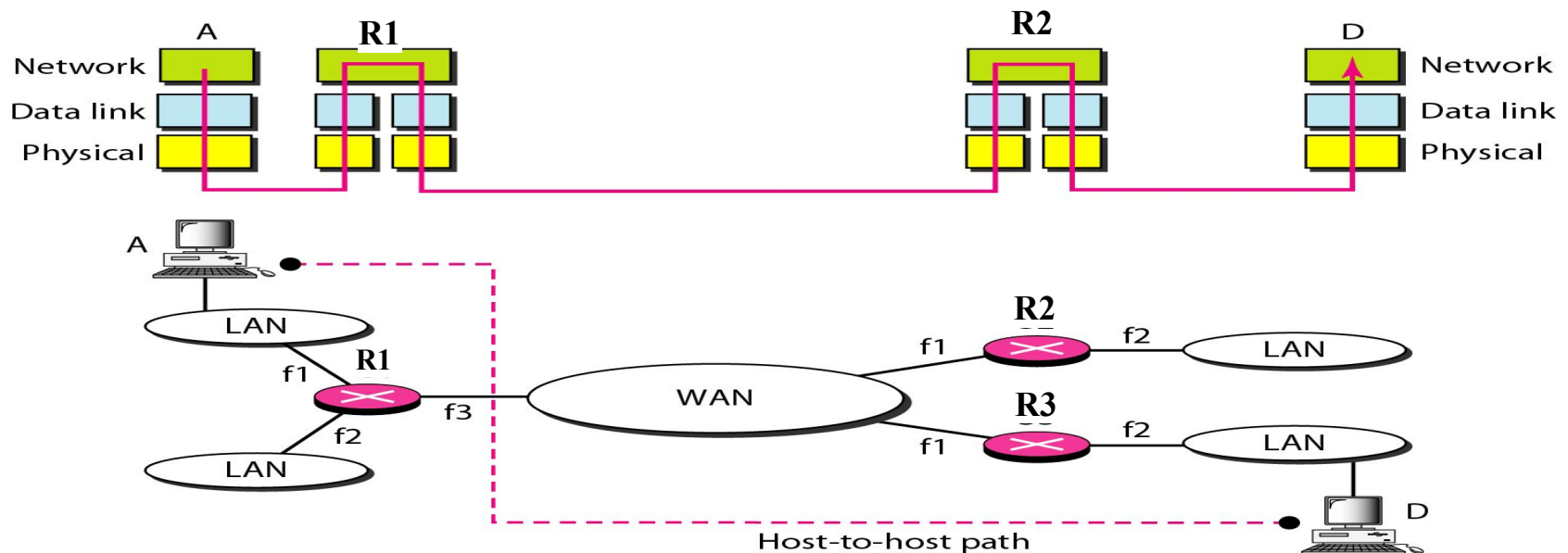
- ❑ When data arrive at interface f1 of R1, how does R1 know that interface f3 is the outgoing interface ?
- ◆ There is no provision in the data link (or physical) layer to help R1 make the right decision. The frame does not carry any routing information either.
- ◆ The frame contains the MAC address of the A and R1.
- ❑ A LAN or a WAN carry the frame through one link.



# Internetworking

## ❑ Need for Network Layer

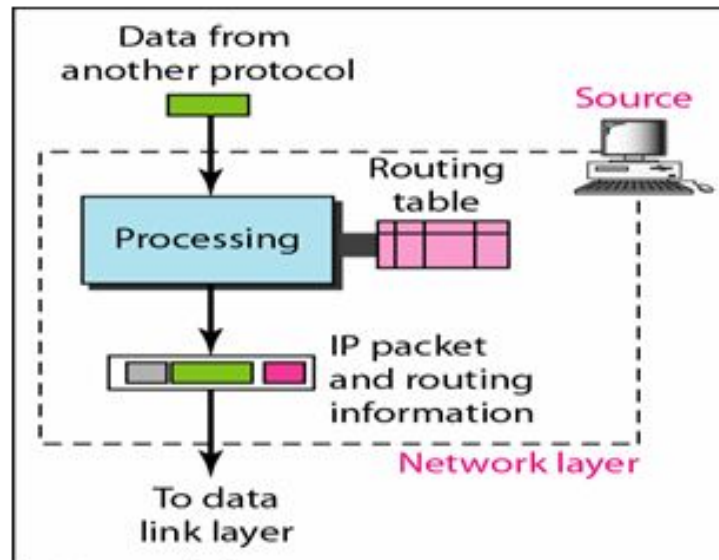
- ❖ To solve the problem of delivery through several links, the network layer (or the inter network layer, as it is sometimes called) was designed.
- ❖ The network layer is responsible for host-to-host delivery and for routing the packets through the routers or switches.



# Internetworking

## ❏ Network layer at the source

- ◆ The network layer is responsible for creating a packet from the data coming from another protocol.
- ◆ The header of the packet contains, among other information, the logical addresses of the source and destination.
- ◆ The network layer is responsible for checking its routing table to find the routing information.
- ◆ If the packet is too large, the packet is fragmented.

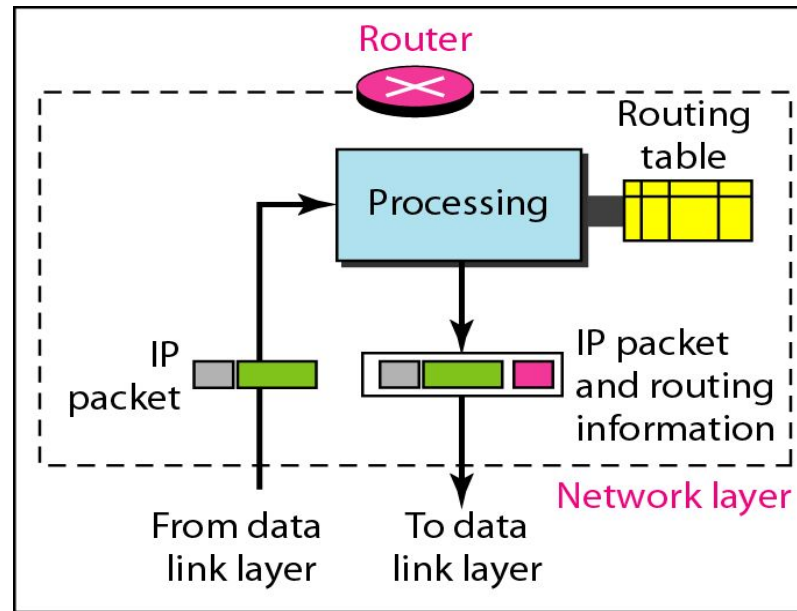


a. Network layer at source

# Internetworking

## ❑ Network layer at the switch or router

- ❖ The network layer is responsible for routing the packet.
- ❖ When a packet arrives, the router or switch consults its routing table and finds the interface from which the packet must be sent.
- ❖ The packet, after some changes in the header, with the routing information is passed to the data link layer again.

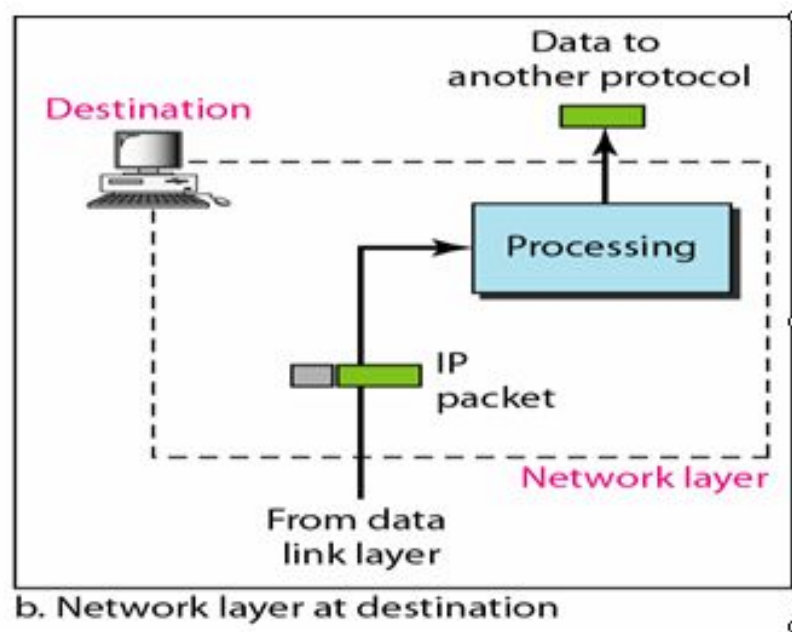


c. Network layer at a router

# Internetworking

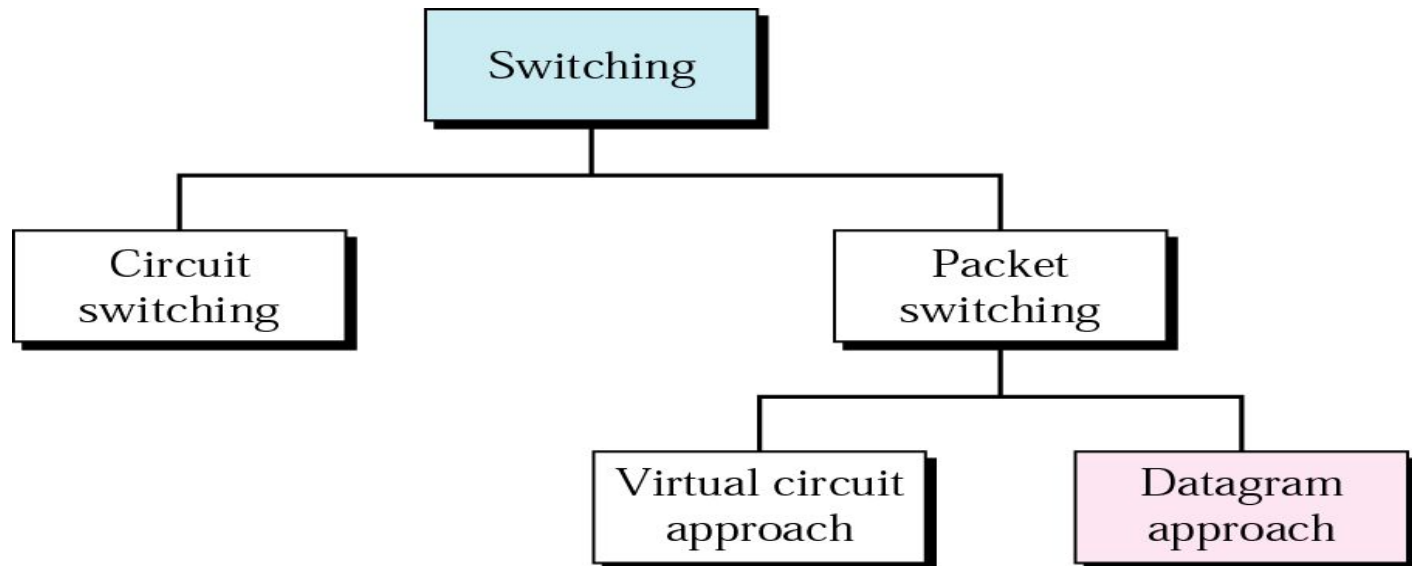
## ❑ Network layer at the destination

- ❖ The network layer is responsible for address verification;
- ❖ It makes sure that the destination address on the packet is the same as the address of the host.
- ❖ If the packet is a fragment, the network layer waits until all fragments have arrived, and then reassembles them and delivers the reassembled packet to the transport layer.



# Internet as a Datagram Network

- ❑ The Internet, at the network layer, is a packet switched network.
- ❑ The Internet has chosen the datagram approach to switching in the network layer.
- ❑ It uses the universal addresses defined in the network layer to route packets from the source to the destination.



# Internet as a Connectionless Network

## ❑ Connection-oriented service

- ❖ The source first makes a connection with the destination before sending a packet.
- ❖ When the connection is established, a sequence of packets can be sent one after another.
- ❖ They are sent on the same path in sequential order.
- ❖ When all packets of a message have been delivered, the connection is terminated.





# Internet as a Connectionless Network

## ❑ Connection-oriented service

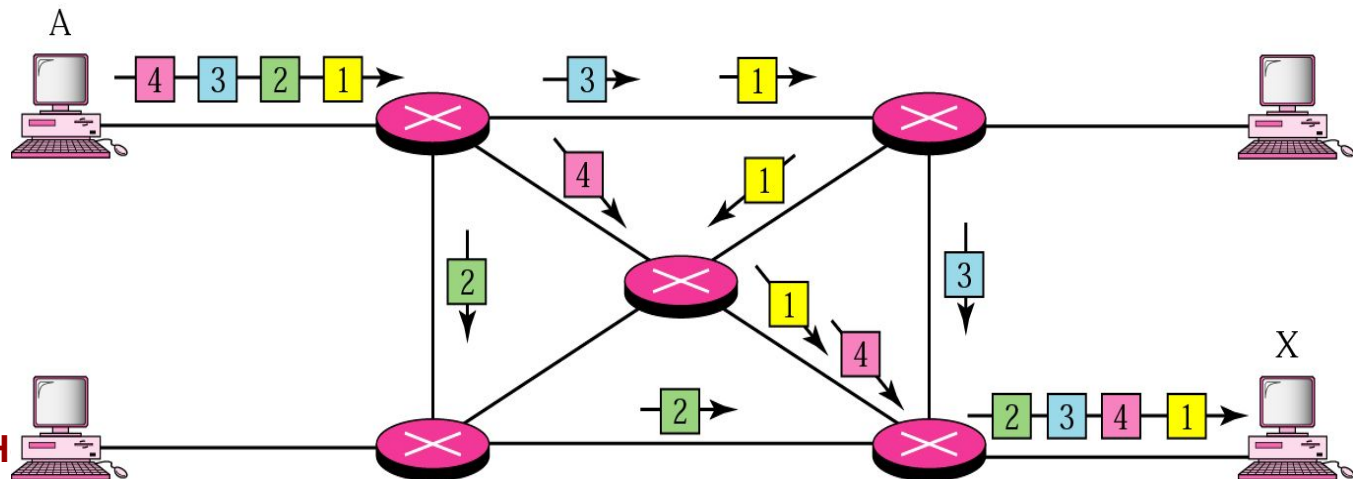
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- ❖ They are sent on the same path in sequential order.
- ❖ When all packets of a message have been delivered, the connection is terminated.



# Internet as a Connectionless Network

## ❑ Connectionless service

- ❖ The network layer protocol treats each packet independently, with each packet having no relationship to any other packet.
- ❖ The packets in a message may or may not travel the same path to their destination.
- ❖ This type of service is used in the datagram approach to packet switching.
- ❖ **Communication at the network layer in the Internet is connectionless.**



## 20-2 IPv4

The Internet Protocol version 4 (**IPv4**) is the delivery mechanism used by the TCP/IP protocols.

*Topics discussed in this section:*

Datagram

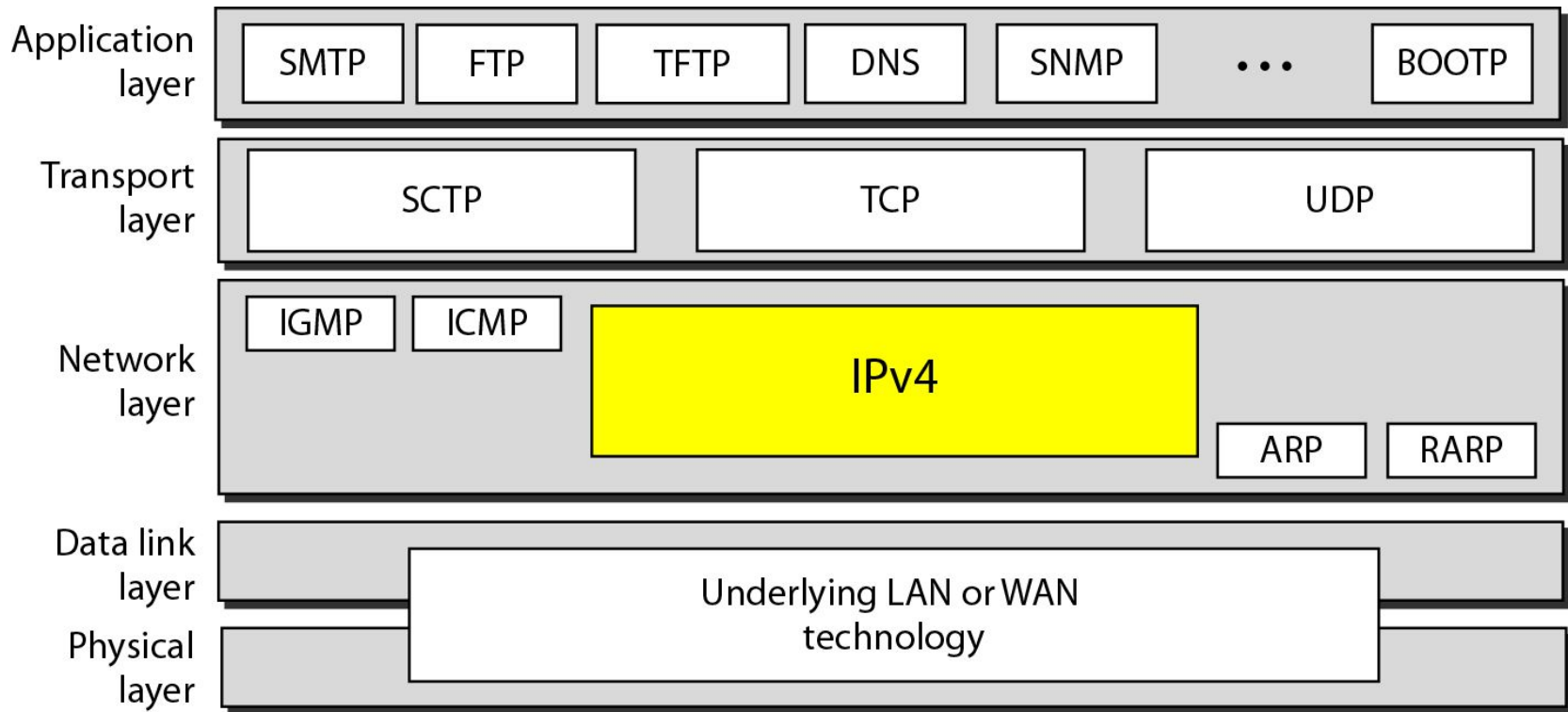
Fragmentation

Checksum

Options



# IPv4



**Figure 20.4** *Position of IPv4 in TCP/IP protocol suite*

## ❑ Best-effort delivery

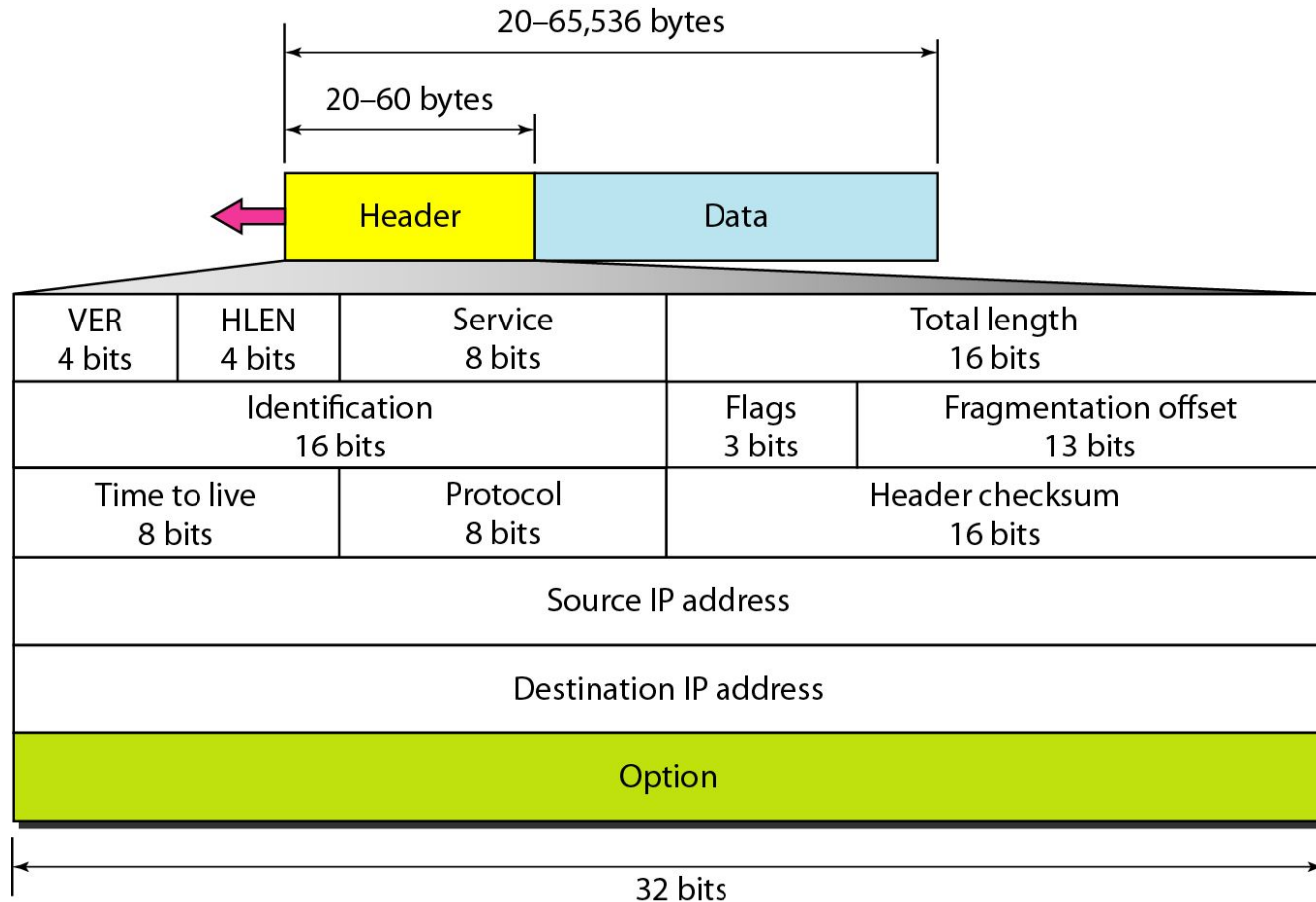
- ❖ IPv4 is an unreliable and connectionless datagram protocol - **a best-effort delivery service.**
- ❖ The term best-effort means that IPv4 provides no error control or flow control (except for error detection on the header).

## ❑ Connectionless protocol

- ❖ Each datagram is handled independently, and diagrams sent by the source to the same destination could arrive out of order.
- ❖ Also, some could be lost or corrupted during transmission.
- ❖ IPv4 relies on a high-level protocol to take of all these problem.

# IPv4 Datagram

❑ Packets in the IPv4 layer are called Datagrams.



# IPv4 Datagram (cont'd)

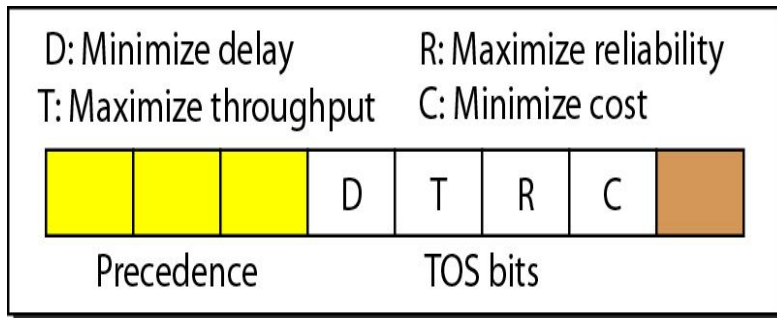
- ❑ A datagram is a variable-length packet consisting of a header and data.
- ❑ Header
  - ◆ length : 20 – 60 bytes
  - ◆ Contains information essential to routing and delivery.
- ❑ Version (VER) : It defines the Version of IPv4. it is 4.
- ❑ Header Length (HLEN) : Defining the total length of the datagram header in 4byte words.

# IPv4 Datagram (cont'd)

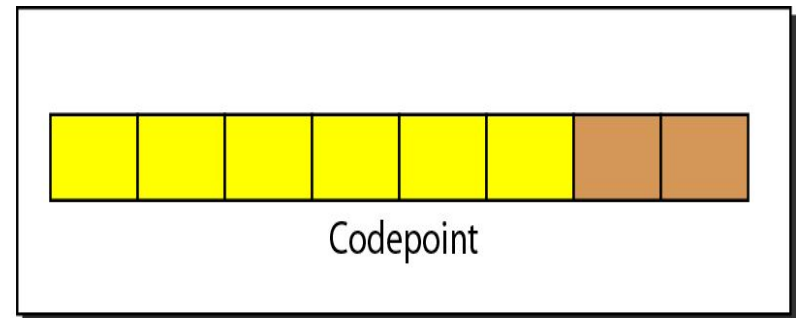
## □ Differentiated Services

- ❖ The first 3 bits are called precedence bits. The next 4 bits are type of service (TOS) bits, and the last bit is not used.
- ❖ The precedence subfield was part of version 4, but never used.

**Figure 20.6** *Service type or differentiated services*



Service type



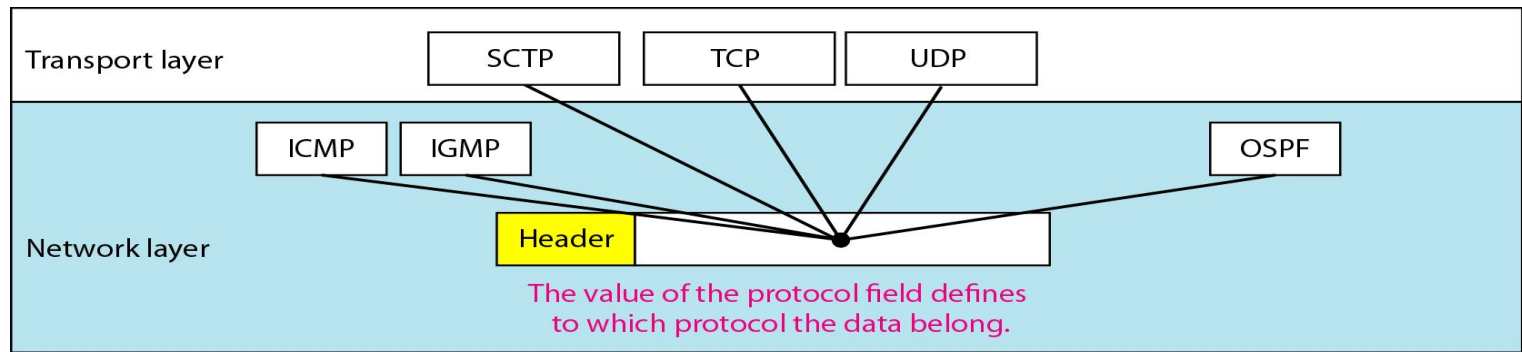
Differentiated services



# IPv4 Datagram (cont'd)

## □ Protocol

- ❖ Defining the higher level protocol that uses the services of the IP layer
  - TCP, UDP, ICMP, and IGMP
  - Multiplexing data from different higher level protocols



Value	Protocol
1	ICMP
2	IGMP
6	TCP
8	EGP
17	UDP
89	OSPF



# Summary

- ❑ IPv4 is an unreliable connectionless protocol responsible for source-to-destination delivery.
- ❑ Packets in the IPv4 layer are called datagrams. A datagram consists of a header(20 to 60 bytes) and data. The maximum length of a datagram is 65,535 bytes.
- ❑ The MTU is the maximum number of bytes that a data link protocol can encapsulate. MTU varies from protocol to protocol.
- ❑ Fragmentation is the division of a datagram into smaller units to accommodate the MTU of a datalink protocol.
- ❑ The IPv4 datagram header consists of a fixed, 20-byte section and a variable options section with a maximum of 40 bytes.
- ❑ The options section of the IPv4 header is used for network testing and debugging.



## Summary (2)

- ❑ The six IPv4 options each have a specific function.
- ❑ IPv6, the latest version of the Internet Protocol, has a 128-bit address space, a revised header format, new options, an allowance for extension, support for resource allocation, and increased security measures.
- ❑ An IPv6 datagram is composed of a base header and a payload.
- ❑ Extension header add functionality to the IPv6 datagram.
- ❑ Three strategies used to handle the transition for version 4 to version 6 are dual stack, tunneling, and header translation.

# Thanks !

